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Preface

The purpose of the *Preface* to this new issue of *Theory and Practice of Second Language Acquisition* is twofold. Firstly, it offers a short introduction for new readers to familiarize them with the origins of the journal (a permanent element of the *Preface*). Secondly, the text provides a fairly detailed comment on the contents of the present issue.

Theory and Practice of Second Language Acquisition was founded as a forum of discussion for both Polish and foreign scholars and seems to have fulfilled its mission as a journal on the rise. The present volume marks the eighth year of its presence in the scholarly world. The journal has become quite popular and we receive more and more qualified submissions from Polish and foreign researchers. Indeed, since its foundation, every consecutive issue of the journal has welcomed contributions from many renowned researchers, including Peter MacIntyre, David Singleton, Larissa Aronin, Sarah Mercer, Tammy Gregersen, and Jean-Marc Dewaele, among others. Also, the fast growing number of OA uploads testifies to the journal's increasing popularity, as does the queue of articles already accepted and awaiting their turn to be included in the next volumes to be published. This is why we have decided to increase the number of research papers published in a single volume for the second time: in the first years of the journal's existence there were six, last year seven, and starting with issue 8(1), TAPSLA includes eight research contributions, followed by two book reviews. It is the journal's ambition to demonstrate new trends and hitherto unknown venues for research in SLA, focusing both on theoretical discussions and the practical solutions to problems that are based upon them. We aim not only to publish and share with our readers contributions from well-known and respected scholars but also to promote young researchers from all over the world, who often present fresh and innovative ideas or open up new perspectives on issues already under discussion. In other words, the journal hopes to become a venue for the exchange

of ideas between well-established academics and those inspired by them. In terms of its content, the journal presents contributions on issues ranging from purely linguistic and cognitively-oriented research on language acquisition processes to psycho- and sociolinguistic studies, always trying to feature the most recent developments in terms both of topic choice and of the methodology of research. We publish our journal through an open access system, where the entire production process is executed online and the final product is available to everyone, thus offering an opportunity to share ideas through a broad, effective and economical mode of dissemination. We aim at keeping high standards and quality, which are guaranteed by the international Editorial Board of TAPSLA, whose members are well-known Polish and foreign experts on a wide range of second language acquisition issues. The journal is indexed in numerous databases, including Scopus. The journal is published by the prestigious Polish academic publisher, Wydawnictwo Uniwersytetu Śląskiego (University of Silesia Press in Katowice), which provides an experienced team of editors to oversee the copyediting and technical side of the production. Updated information and all the issues published so far are available on the journal webpage at www.tapsla.us.edu.pl.

The present volume 8(2) offers a wide variety of interesting topics well-grounded in theoretical considerations and literature overviews, but importantly, also reporting on empirical projects carried out by researchers, some of them well-known scholars, others young aspiring academics. The articles selected also offer a variety of contexts in which the studies were conducted, ranging from that of our local Polish research to Iranian university studies, which are quite well-represented here. The opening text by Liliana Piasecka, entitled "When "grass was greener": Longplay Album Covers and Learning English. A Retrospection," at first sight looks like a sentimental journey into the world of music (which it is in part). The author's aim is to demonstrate the power of experiential learning which combines elements of material culture that are meaningful to a learner and thus, that motivate him or her to learn a FL. The account is based on the author's own reflections on her learning experiences and the impact of longplay album (LP) covers of the 1960s on her learning success. The text also offers some practical ideas for a FL classroom. In the next text, "The Development of Language Skills in Speakers of English as an Additional Language. What Matters More, Daily Use or Age of Onset?", Luca Cilibrasi and Daniela Marková once again question the importance of age of onset, which was assumed in earlier research, compared to daily exposure and language use in terms of vocabulary and overall proficiency in this language. The study, which is based on a large number of public datasets and analyzed statistically, shows that language use is a better predictor of language proficiency than age of onset. Another text focusing on the age factor in a FL context, authored by Anna Borkowska and entitled "The Relationship between Age-advanced

Learners' In-class Willingness to Communicate in English, Intrinsic Motivation, Classroom Environment and Teacher Immediacy—A Pilot Study," looks at third age learners of foreign languages (seniors). The main objective of this questionnaire study was to establish the relationship between willingness to communicate (WTC), intrinsic motivation, classroom environment, and teacher immediacy. The analysis of the data leads the author to the conclusion that senior FL learners are more eager to use meaning-focused activities (such as dyadic interaction tasks) than form-focused ones, emphasising that practical communication is for them the main purpose of FL learning. These seniors' motivation to learn a FL is defined as communication both in a natural environment (abroad) and in the classroom in a non-threatening climate established by a professional, patient, and empathetic language teacher.

The next three articles in this issue introduce readers to themes investigated in the FL instructional settings at the authors' academic institutions in Iran and Korea. The topic of FL learning motivation is taken up in the text by Yahya Ghelichli, Seyyed Hassan Seyyedrezaei, and Zari Sadat Seyyedrezaei, "Improving Student Engagement and Motivation: Perspectives of Iranian EFL Learners." The authors state that intensive language engagement increases motivation to learn a language, which has been the topic of many quantitative studies but fewer qualitative ones. The study presented in this article uses the qualitative paradigm of a semi-structure interview, in which a group of Iranian male learners of English reflected upon the determinants of and relation between their engagement and motivation to learn. It seems that, among other factors, it is teacher behavior that impacts their engagement most, whereas both teachers and parents are important in the development of their motivation to learn. The next article, by Hyang-Il Kim and entitled "Investigating the Roles of the Four Sources of Self-Efficacy Beliefs in an EFL Listening Context," demonstrates the importance of self-efficacy beliefs in FL learning. It reports on an empirical study conducted with Korean learners of English. The author aimed to verify the self-efficacy hypothesis proposed by Bandura (1997), this time in the context of listening tasks. The four sources of efficacy proposed by Bandura were confirmed by the data collected in the study, which demonstrated that they all affect basic self-efficacy, while emotional states are evidenced in advanced-skill efficacy. In their text "Effects of Adjunct Model of Instruction on EAP Learners' Reading Comprehension Skill," Mahzad Karimi and Elahe Ghorbanchian investigate the possibilities and effectiveness of new methodologies of online teaching employed in the conditions of pandemic restrictions in a course of English for Academic Purposes (EAP). The effectiveness of developing reading comprehension by means of the adjunct model was measured in an experiment conducted among university architecture students. The statistical analysis (ANOVA) established the effectiveness of the adjunct model compared with more traditional teaching. The text by Danial Babajani Azizi, Nourollah

Gharanjik, and Mahmood Dehqan entitled "The Effects of Mobile-mediated Explicit and Implicit Feedback on EFL Learners' Use of English Prepositions" also takes up the theme of technology used as a tool in language instruction. In this paper, the authors focus on use of the WhatsApp application in giving corrective feedback. Their experiment aimed at comparing the effects of mobile-mediated explicit and implicit corrective feedback on learner performance in a selected area of grammar. The results of tests administered at various stages of instruction (pre-test, post-test, delayed post-test) demonstrated that the groups improved significantly on the immediate post-test but also maintained higher scores on the delayed post-test.

The closing article, by Aleksandra Szymańska-Tworek and entitled "Mentoring as Professional Development for Mentors," moves away from the issue of language instruction as such and focuses on FL teacher professional development. The author offers an innovative view on the importance of being a school-based mentor to pre-service EFL teachers. The process of mentoring is seen by the author as an important element of teacher professional development and growth. On the basis of the data collected from a web-based questionnaire for teacher-mentors, the author concludes that mentoring practice develops teachers' capacity for reflection and leadership skills as well as fostering co-operation and inspiration in the trainees.

The two book reviews published in this issue are of two works that have appeared as part of a series. They both offer the latest findings of theoretical and empirical research on the fairly new concept of dominant language constellation (DLC) and its application in multilingualism research and multilingual language education, The first book review, by Bessie Dendrinos of *Dominant Language Constellations: A New Perspective on Multilingualism* (2020, edited by Joseph Lo Bianco and Larissa Aronin), points out the merits of the book as offering a comprehensible and complete explanation of the construct of DLC as defined by Larissa Aronin and its application in developing our understanding of the phenomenon of multilingualism. The reviewer also sees this volume as having value as an inspiration for different and innovative multilingualism studies, provided by the examples it contains of studies conducted in a variety of cultural contexts around the world. The second review, by Lisa Marie Brinkmann, is of a companion book on DLC, *Dominant Language Constellations Approach in Education and Language Acquisition* (2021, edited by Larissa Aronin and Eva Vetter), and goes back to defining and redefining the concept of DLC, but its specific focus is on demonstrating how this concept applies to language education and educational policies. Apart from theoretical considerations on DLC in language education policy and school practice, the concept is presented in action in empirical studies that focus on teacher training and on researching the language identities of multilingual language users and learners by means of qualitative methods (narratives, visualizations). The appearance of these two

volumes on DLC does not exhaust all the possibilities the concept offers in multilingualism research, as a third volume is now in preparation.

We would like to emphasize that although the articles contained in this issue offer mainly reports on empirical research, they are also grounded in solid theoretical bases and overviews of literature in a given area. Additionally, the research presented here has a strong potential for language practitioners and the practical ideas proposed by some of the authors can be adapted for many other teaching and learning contexts. The texts cover a whole array of topics focusing on FL learners and teachers in their different capacities and show empirical work that is being done in various contexts of bi- and multilingualism in different parts of the world. This diversity of contexts is a valuable asset as it allows us to compare research interests and the research methodologies applied. Publishing in our journal, which is available online in open access, our contributors are all able to reach a wide readership around the world.

We believe that researchers, teachers, and students can all benefit from this issue of TAPSLA and will find the articles published here not only useful but also inspirational. In this place, we would like to thank all the authors in this issue and, as is our usual practice, extend our invitation to all Polish and foreign researchers and academics to share their work with us by submitting it to the journal.

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Articles

Theory and Practice of Second Language Acquisition
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When "grass was greener"*: Longplay Album Covers and Learning English. A Retrospection

Abstract

This paper brings together several important threads accounting for learning English as a foreign language, that is, language learning experience, material culture as an element of this experience as well as a component of the learning environment, motivation and music. Material culture has recently attracted the attention of researchers interested in foreign/second language learning and multilingualism because it provides a rich context for many multilingual practices. Longplay album covers are an excellent example of artefacts that combine the verbal with the material. Music and songs, pop songs in particular, are an important motivating factor in learning languages.

The aim of this paper is to share with the reader the author and her generation's encounters with pop music of the 1960s, focusing on language learning experience based on the material aspects of these encounters, that is, longplay record covers. The paper, then, is the author's personal reflection based on her own experience as well as on the multiple discussions she has had with friends and colleagues whose teenage years spanned the 1960s. Also connections between music and language learning are discussed along with suggestions of activities capitalizing on learners' interest in music in the teaching process.

Keywords: foreign language learning experience, material culture, longplay album covers, pop music, motivation

L2 Learning Experience and Material Culture

L2 learning experience is an important component of L2 Motivational Self System (Dörnyei, 2005), but it has been largely underresearched. It may

* The quote comes from the song "High Hopes" from the Pink Floyd's album *Division Bell* (1994): "The grass was greener / The light was brighter / With friends surrounded / The nights of wonder" (http://www.pink-floyd-lyrics.com/html/high-hopes-lyrics-division-bell.html).

be conceptualized as language input and immediate learning environment (Dörnyei, 2009) but also, more broadly, as "situated classroom experiences as well as experiences beyond the classroom comprising cognitive and emotional processes" (Csizér & Kálmán, 2019, p. 227). Outside the classroom experiences with language input and use provide an intriguing source of information about the tangled pathways to foreign language proficiency. In addition, the experiences addressed in this paper are also related to material culture that has been an inseparable component of various learning environments and which has taken various forms.

Although material culture is a relatively recent research trend in the area of foreign/second language learning and multilingualism as it allows for many multilingual practices by providing "the physical, historical, and emotional background for communication" (Aronin, 2012, p. 180), it has been used in foreign/second language learning contexts for some time quite frequently. In Communicative Language Teaching, for example, the use of realia understood as "real objects, specimens or artifacts—not copies, models, or representations—from a particular culture" (Berwald, 1987, p. 3) is encouraged exactly for these reasons. Real objects along with authentic texts used in a foreign language classroom bring to the learners a taste of reality and let them personally experience real life situations for which realia have been designed and prepared (Berwald, 1987; Richards & Rodgers, 2001, p. 170). They are also a rich and varied source of information related to the culture(s) of the target language community which they derive from.

The term "material culture" refers to a wide range of "artefacts and cultural landscapes" that "objectively represent a group's subjective vision of custom and order" (Marshall, 1981, p. 17). Societies and language communities produce and create large numbers of artefacts, many of which are relevant in multilingual contexts. The objects that are essential from the multilingual perspective "have inscriptions or language signs on them, and meaningfully relate to an individual's identity and surrounding social reality" (Aronin, 2012, p. 181), thus connecting the material and the verbal. Bringing out the importance of studies in material culture for multilingualism, Aronin (2012) argues that "such studies can help us to understand how materialities create and modify multilingual reality, being instrumental in shaping and reshaping identities of both individuals and communities" (p. 181). Songs and music, recorded on various media, not only allow for authentic interactions with the target language culture but also have a strong motivating power for learning the target language.

Music and songs, pop songs in particular, are an important motivating factor in learning languages. Listening to music has been identified as one of the main reasons for using the Internet (e.g., Piasecka, 2012; Szyszka, 2015). Music and songs, recorded on vinyl records, tapes, cassettes, CDs or mp3s, and thus given permanence, are a manifestation of material culture combining materiality and

language. The records have always come packaged in covers of various designs that have seduced people into buying them and finding pleasure in using them. However, what was easily available in some cultures, was an extravagance and a rarity in others. Longplay records with music and songs have been produced worldwide, but in the "golden sixties" the circulation of records with Western pop music was limited behind the Iron Curtain. In the 1960s and 1970s, for people living behind the Iron Curtain, access to Western music was neither simple nor cheap. Possessing a record of the Beatles, the Rolling Stones, or another popular music band, was considered as a mark of identity—the owner was someone to make friends with if people wanted to listen to the records. Despite the difficulties, teenagers could listen to the music on the radio (Radio Luxemburg, for example) or, if there was such an opportunity, to original recordings of the most popular singers and music bands of the day.

The Post-Second World War Period

To understand the role of pop music in the lives of young people, it it necessary to consider the political, social and cultural climate of the post-Second World War period. The United States enjoyed "economic growth and affluence that were unprecedented in the history of the world" (Patterson, 1998, p. 164). The production of consumer goods made people's lives comfortable and easy. At the same time, expectations were high with respect to the quality of living as well as personal and civil rights. Though generally optimistic, the 1950s also wittnessed the Black Americans' protests against racial discrimination and segregation, especially in the South. Yet it was not until the mid-1960s when the laws abolishing discrimination and segregation in public and political life were passed (*Civil Rights Act* of 1964 and *Voting Rights Act* of 1965, Patterson, 1998).

The turbulent 1960s in the U.S. were also marked by American involvement in the Vietnam War. Since the U.S. was a supporter of a "democratic and non-communist world order" (Patterson, 1998, p. 164), the war was waged to protect these important values. Yet, the escalation of the war, the growing number of casualties, the information about the atrocities of the war and the senseless bloodshed resulted in a strong opposition to it. The society, misled by the Johnson administration about the military and political situation in Vietnam, responded with fierce anti-war protests and demonstrations. The anti-war protest was also associated with American counterculture and its music.

Not all the Americans were under the spell of the economic prosperity of the 1950s, and towards the end of the decade the representatives of the Beat Generation "were deliberately rejecting what they considered the crass materi-

alism and conformity of American society" (Patterson, 1998, p. 170). Women were no longer satisfied with ideal housewives' roles prescribed by the conservative society. A birth-control pill triggered the sexual revolution. College and university students voiced their dissatisfaction not only with curricula but also with rules that regulated female and male social relations. A well-established social order was crumbling.

While the post-war U.S. enjoyed economic prosperity and was a scene of social unrest, post-war Europe was gradually rising from the ashes and ruins. Divided by the Iron Curtain—"the political, military, and ideological barrier erected by the Soviet Union after World War II to seal off itself and its dependent eastern and central European allies from open contact with the West and other noncommunist areas" (http://britannica.com)—into open and democratic West and communist-dominated Center and East, it took different routes of post-war reconstruction. The recovery of the West was supported by the Marshall Plan which was not accepted by the countries behind the Iron Curtain. Instead, the Council of Mutual Economic Assistance was founded to provide for the reconstruction, to encourage co-operation among the countries and link them strongly to the Soviet model of economy. At the same time, by limiting the access of these countries to the technologies, products and markets of the West, it accounted for inefficient economic systems dependent on Soviet subsidies and growing disillusionment with the system. This discontent resulted in a number of upheavals in the Eastern block (Bideleux & Jeffries, 2007). The upheavals were suppressed by friendly armies.

In Poland, the Poznań riots of June 1956 resulted in a change in leadership of the Communist Party and in some reforms that were implemented, though only temporarily. As a consequence, the 1960s "saw an actual diminution of political and cultural freedom; but […] even so, by 1965 it was still 'much ahead of most, if not all, of the members of the Soviet block in political liberalism'" (Brus, as cited in Fowkes, 2000, p. 65). Life behind the Iron Curtain in this decade was marked by a kind of stability but also by a shortage of many commodities.

The post-war period in Western Europe is also associated with the growing popularity of jazz and dance music, broadcast by American military radio stations. This music was characterised by freedom of expression both in the musical arrangement and song lyrics. Fretted by conservative society for its association with improper sexual behaviour, it was appreciated by the younger generation which rebelled against the established social system and was ready for changes in life style, reflected by fashion and music (Lipoński, 2004). In addition, the young generation became an important audience for pop music. So far, adults composed songs for adults but the presence of a teenage audience changed the sitation—teenagers not only listened to music but they also wrote it (Gołębiowski, 2004). These factors set the scene for the outburst of popular music in the 1960s. As Hayes (2002, p. 5) comments, "young people of the U.S.

and many Western Europen countries rebelled against the social convention of the time, adapting new ways of both thinking and living."

The "Golden Sixties"

The 1960s in Western Europe and the United States, then, witnessed dramatic changes in many spheres of life. People enjoyed relative prosperity, they could purchase more goods for the money they earned. Life became less formal and more casual, which affected people's attitudes to other people, politics, fashion, and music. New fashion trends emanated from Carnaby Street in London. Music in particular was important to young people worldwide, regardless of the political systems they lived in. The "golden sixties" was a decade of the rapid development of various music bands and genres of music that changed the understanding of popular music. That variety was represented by the "British Invasion," associated mostly with the American and worldwide success of the Beatles, the Rolling Stones, but also such singers as Tom Jones. The Beatles' appearance on the *Ed Sullivan Show* attracted an enormous television audience of about 74 million viewers. It was "the first successful invasion of the United States since British troops burned Washington 150 years earlier" (Hall, 2014, p. 69). It evoked enthusiasm from teenagers and hatred from the establishment. The young felt the magic of the band while their parents were terrified by their children's response (Slon, 2014).

The popularity of the Beatles struck the British Isles like a storm and then impacted the rest of the world. Crowds of teenage fans accompanied the band wherever it appeared. The phenomenon, referred to as Beatlemania, started in 1963 and stopped by 1967. The fans were described as "hysterical teenagers of every class and colour, shouting uncontrollably […] Each of them emotinally, mentally, or sexually excited, foaming at the mouth, bursting into tears, hurling themselves like lemmings in the direction of the Beatles, or just simply fainting" (Davies, 1996, p. 176). While Davis perceives the teenagers' fascination with the Beatles as hysteria, Lahr (1981) argues that "Beatlemania" is a misnomer because the fans were not hysterical but spellbound by the Fab Four. Their "music was a form of sympathetic magic, and the Beatles were local divinities who could change the mood and the look of their times by a song, a style, a word" (p. 22) which they did. Analysing the phenomenon, Lynskey (2013) notes that the fans participated in some kind of a ritual, their screaming was an expression of themselves, their youth, freedom and power. Moreover, by screaming and losing control, teenage girls who were then supposed to be "paragons of purity," protested against "the sexual repressiveness, the rigid double standard

of female teen culture" (Ehrenreich, as cited in Lynskey, 2013). For Ehrenreich, this phenomenon "was the first and most dramatic uprising of women's sexual revolution" (Ehrenreich, as cited in Lynskey, 2013).

Though the Beatles were the kings on the stage of pop music, other musical forms also gained popularity. Rock music was represented by surf rock (e.g., the Beach Boys), psychedelic rock (e.g., Jimmi Hendrix), roots rock (e.g., Bob Dylan), hard rock (e.g., Deep Purple), folk rock and protest music (e.g., Bob Dylan, Pete Seeger, Simon and Garfunkel). Protest music was inspired by social disobedience and the anti-war movement and showed the artists' and their generation's reaction to social injustice, as well as their appreciation of freedom, love, and peace, a clear influence of the hippie movement. Also African-American bands and singers became popular and recognised. On the one hand, "black music" that had previously been performed by white musicians got back to the "legitimate" African-American performers. On the other hand, African-Americans helped to break down the barriers of racial segregation (http://www.thepeoplehistory.com). The generation of the 1960s spoke and sang in many voices.

The "time of progress and protest" (Hayes, 2002, p. 5) that had such a strong impact on the ways of thinking and living in Western societies, had also influenced the lives and culture of people behind the Iron Curtain. The youth living there were also fond of music and new bands, both local and foreign. While records of Polish bands, though not cheap, were relatively easy to buy, records of the bands from the West were hard to obtain and exorbitantly expensive. Yet, Western music came through the radio, on pirate sound postcards, and from family living abroad. Sometimes it was brought by people who travelled abroad. A person who had a geniune Beatles' record, for example, enjoyed a high status in a peer group and everybody wanted to make friends with him or her. This way the ones who did not have a record could listen to it and have a look at the cover. The appearance of tape recorders made access to the songs, but not covers, much easier.

Listening to pop songs in English, teenagers behind the Iron Curtain were determined to find out what they were about. They tried to write down the lyrics from what they heard and thus incidentally practiced listening comprehension along with sound and word discrimination. Although the product was often hilarious, incomprehensible and far from the original, they kept trying.

Looking at and touching a vinyl record cover was also a valuable experience. The covers had song titles that might have been used as clues to understanding the lyrics. They also contained pictures and graphics that told their stories.

The enormous popularity of the Beatles crossed the physical and ideological borders. Davis observes that "young Russians no longer perceived the Western

culture as decadent and hostile; they liked listening to the Beatles' songs as much as other youngsters" (1996, p. xi). Not only musical tastes of young people from the Eastern block were affected, but also a life style represented, among other things, by fashion. Miniskirts and minidresses, floral shirts, hippie furs, hair styles and make up showed the young generation's fascination with colour and freedom (Yapp, 2005). In the mid-1960s, Beatle-like shoes (Polish *bitelsówki*) for males became fashionable in Poland. State shoe factories did not produce them but the need for this kind of shoes was satisfied by private shoemakers. Not all of them made the shoes, but the ones who did, enjoyed a high status among artisans. Custom-made Beatle-like shoes were in high regard (Szewczyk & Szabłowska, 2013). This is another piece of evidence that shows how the music of the days shaped the material culture.

Stories Told by Longplay Album Covers

Album covers have several functions, that is, they protect the records, they advertise them, they accompany the music, and they are a commodity (Inglis, 2001, p. 84). The 1950s and early 1960s did not change the traditional design of album covers but evolved into the so-called personality covers showing an attractive image of the performer(s), their names and the title of the album (Thorgerson, 1989, p. 10). It was only with the release of the Beatles' album *Revolver*, released in August 1966 (https://www.thebeatles.com/revolver), designed by Klaus Voorman, which won the Grammy Award for Best Album Cover of 1966 (Inglis, 2008, p. 92), that a new thinking about possible designs of record covers emerged.

The cover of *Revolver* shows "a remarkable visual-musical correspondence" (Inglis, 2001, p. 87) implying that innovations in music are supported by innovations in the visual design of the cover. A combination of line drawings of the Beatles' heads and small photographs of them reflects "the varieties and innovations of the music" (Inglis, 2001, p. 87) on the record.

When the band started recording *Sgt Pepper's Lonely Hearts' Club Band*, their intention was to have a cover that would be an integral element of the album. They wanted "to create a record whose musical impact would be complemented by its visual impact" (Inglis, 2008, p. 91). According to Paul McCartney,

> This album was a big production, and we wanted the album sleeve to be really interesting. Everyone agreed. When we were kids, we'd take a half-hour bus ride […] to buy an album, and then we'd come back on the bus,

> take it out of the brown paper bag and *read* it cover to cover […] you read them and you studied them. We liked the idea of reaching out to the record-buyer, because of our memories of spending our own hard-earned cash and really loving anyone who gave us value for money. (Inglis 2008, p. 91)

Peter Blake and Jann Haworth, the designers of the cover, took the challenge and successfully brought together fine art and popular culture (Inglis, 2001). The Beatles drew a list of characters who they liked and who influenced their lives. For the cover they chose movie stars, artists, sportsmen, comedians, gurus, singers, philosophers and scientists thus blowing up the traditional distinctions between "high" and "low" culture and contributing to "the shifting intellectual climate of the 1960s" (Inglis, 2008, p. 93). Cardboard figures that surround the Beatles wearing colourful satin uniforms and holding musical instruments in their hands (www.thebeatles.com/sgt-peppers-lonely-hearts-club-band-0) represent people

> who promote the ideas of other possible worlds or who offer literary or cinematic trips to exotic places […] the cover suggests that the Beatles to some extent live the past in the present, live in the shadows of their own as well as of other people's past accomplishments. (Poirier, 1969, pp. 178–179)

The cover tells an interesting story about the journey that the band had taken and how it affected their identities. They started as nice working class lads from Liverpool, "clean-shaven, look alike 'mop-tops'" (Inglis, 2008, p. 97) and achieved enormous popularity and commercial success but also became independent to follow their own artistic fascinations. They changed from musicians into magicians who have supernatural powers and who have multiple identities. Inglis (2008) writes that "in the world favoured by the Beatles, all of us have the ability to be magically transformed into whomever and whatever we may choose, whenever and wherever we may desire" (p. 94).

While the front cover showed the tableau-like image of a variety of characters who had some importance for the Beatles, the back cover was also innovative—it had the printed lyrics of all the songs from the album. This feature was greatly appreciated by music lovers. Gross (http://manhattman.com/2012/it-was-45-years-ago-today) recalls:

> [O]n that first Friday in June [1967], I ran down to my local music shop, anticipating the release of the new Beatles' album that day. […] WOW! What a cover! It was so different than anything I had ever seen at the time. I turned it over to discover *rows and rows of song lyrics* (italics mine). That was new too. I don't think it had ever been done before.

Song lyrics were presented as poetic texts and as such they could be studied, evaluated, and reflected on. Using song lyrics in this way, "the Beatles had shifted the function of popular music from music-as-entertainment to music-as-communication" (Inglis, 2008, p. 96).

Sgt Pepper's cover, like the cover of *Revolver* before, won the Grammy Award for Best Album Cover in 1967. It has also been recognised as one of the twenty masterpieces of British 20th century art and design (Inglis, 2001, p. 94).

The front cover was a challenge and a gift for learners of English as a foreign language. Not only did they listen to songs but they also tried to recognise as many famous people on the cover as possible (an interactive version of the *Sgt. Pepper* who's who can be found at https://www.udiscovermusic.com/stories/whos-who-on-the-beatles-sgt-peppers-lonely-hearts-club-band-album-cover/), they could talk about them, they could follow the lyrics, develop their own interpretations of what they were listening to, and travel to imagined places they had never visited. In a way, their experience with the cover was much similar to that of Peter Saville, a graphic designer, who says: "When I was 15, in the North-west of England…. the record cover to me was like a picture window to another world" (http://www.gigwise.com/news/45430/designer-peter-saville-the-album-cover-is-dead). In fact, record covers were picture windows to many different worlds and they meant different things to different people. They took the teenagers from the familiar surroundings to the new lands of imagination and creativity. They developed and sharpened their aesthetic sensitivity, with respect to both music and visual arts. They ushered them into a certain system of values and developed the feeling of belonging. They also inspired thinking about one's own identity: Who am I? Where do I belong? What matters in life? What matters in my personal life?

Almost all album covers of the Beatles were exceptional, they

> have been seen as groundbreaking in their visual and aesthetic properties, have been congratulated for their innovative and imaginative designs, have been credited with providing an early impetus for the expansion of the graphic design industry into the imagery of popular music, and have been seen as largely responsible for allowing the connections between art and pop to be made explicit. (Inglis, 2001, p. 83)

Then more covers with records inside became available. There was Leonard Cohen with his poetic texts, Joan Baez with her protest songs, Simon and Garfunkel, Bob Dylan, The Doors, and so on. From "Some Notes on the Songs" (*The Best of Leonard Cohen*) one could learn that "Chelsea Hotel" was written "for an American singer who died a while ago. She used to stay at the Chelsea Hotel, too." The lives of people who used to live in the famous Chelsea Hotel

in the late 1960s and 1970s are referred to in an interesting memoir by Patti Smith (2010).

From the foreign language learner's perspective the covers—excellent examples of material culture and a telling evidence of the impact of pop culture on the lives of young people—aroused interest in art, music and, consequently, language. They were rich in cultural information and aesthetically stimulating. Very often they were designed by well-known artists. They came with the records inside and song lyrics on the back covers or inside. Song lyrics themselves were not only samples of authentic language use and varieties of native speaker pronunciation, but they also appealed to themes and problems that were important to youngsters of those days. As a matter of fact, many of them still appeal to young people. In addition, the combination of music and language made many language forms memorable. Many of the author's friends and collegues still remember the lyrics of the songs they once listened to, sang, and learned. Last but not least, they invited reflection on the contemporary world and evoked a wide range of emotions.

Connections Between Music and Foreign Language Learning

Music and language connections have been observed and discussed since ancient times and have been studied from various perspectives. Music and language represent special abilities of a human brain and both are "human universal[s] in which perceptually discrete elements are organized into hierarchically structured sequences according to syntactic principles" (Patel, 2003, p. 674). This implies that linguistic and musical processing overlap in the brain. Neuropsychologists have found out that musical structure is processed in the area of the brain that has been associated with the processing of spoken and sign language structure (Levitin & Menon, 2003).

Music has always played an important role in the development of children and the development of language. Chen-Hafteck (1997) observes that "music and language are the two ways that humans communicate and express themselves through sound. Since birth, babies start to listen and produce sound without distinguishing between music and language, singing and speech" (p. 85). In the early years of their life children learn to sing simple songs that integrate language and music. When words and songs share stress and accent patterns, they support comprehension of word stress and extend attention span. Children learn to anticipate new information and their memory is enhanced (Palmer & Kelly, 1992). When four- and five-year-old children were tested on music tasks, phonological awareness tasks, and early reading development tasks, it

appeared that musical ability and phonological awareness are strongly related. Music perception was found to be a predictor of reading ability (Anvari, Trainor, Woodside, & Levy, 2002). Also the recreational use of music with children helps them to develop their intellectual and memory abilities, expression of feelings and emotions, and social skill of getting along with others. Children enjoy the music and share this enjoyment with others (Campbell, 2003).

While the research briefly referred to above concerns the context of first language acquisition, similar effects have also been found in second/foreign language learning situations. Learners who can accurately analyse, discriminate, and remember musical stimuli have stronger L2 phonological skills. This means that musical ability is a predictor of L2 phonological ability at the receptive and productive levels (Sleve & Miyake, 2006, p. 679).

From the pedagogical perspective, music performs important functions in foreign language classrooms. It introduces a relaxed state of mind, so strongly recommended by Suggestopedia (Richards & Rodgers, 2001, p. 102), and lowers the affective filter, thus reducing tension and negative emotions in learners and creating a friendly learning environment in which memory and attention are enhanced (Brewer & Campbell, 1991). The relaxing and creative nature of music is also stressed by Adkins (1997) who perceives it as the foundation of multi-sensory pedagogy. Moreover, music-based language learning activities provide an "acquisition-rich" environment in which learners can also rely on musical intelligence, a component of Multiple Intelligencies model (Gardner, 1983).

Music-based activities that create the learning environment may involve both high and pop culture. Learners become familiar with the culture(s) of the target language through its music and songs. Singing songs along with native singers is particularly useful for the development of foreign language skills. Learners imitate the sounds and the rhythm of the language, they also learn to speak quickly (Speh & Ahramjian, 2009). Setia et al. (2012) report that the use of English songs with primary school learners helps to increase their vocabulary and improve pronunciation. The learners are more interested in learning, enjoy the tasks, and report higher levels of confidence. All these enhance motivation for learning and using the foreign language which, thus, becomes less foreign.

Lake (2002–2003), a seasoned teacher of English as a second language, convincingly argues for the use of songs and music in language classrooms highlighting that they encourage whole brain and whole language learning, improve pronunciation and memory. Not only does he offer useful tips for using songs in the process of language teaching, but he also gives examples of songs that can be used, and shares his own teaching experiences with the readers. He sees English songs as a useful means of acculturation but they are also important as carriers of cultural information.

In a similar vein, Shayakhmetova et al. (2017) argue that songs can be successfully used for the development of intercultural competence. They carried

out a year-long experiment durning which EFL learners were studying eighteen topics related to British culture and everyday life, using five to six songs interwoven with other activities. After the experiment a test on the knowledge of British life was carried out and it appeared that the experimental group outperformed the control one and the difference was statistically significant. Moreover, the researchers also administered a survey to teachers to find out how English song lyrics are used in English teaching. This was accompanied by a learners' questionnaire to identify their attitude to using songs in English classes. The results reveal teachers' and students' positive attitude to the use of songs. The teachers recognise linguistic benefits of using songs that are manifested in the phonetic, lexical, grammatical, and communicative development along with the development of socio-cultural competence and tolerance of other cultures. Needless to say, also increased motivation for learning English is underscored. Although such an important contribution of songs to foreign language learning and teaching has been recognised, their use in the classroom is "episodic" (Shayakhmetova et al., 2017, p. 644) and their potential for the growth of linguistic and socio-cultural knowledge is definitely unexplored.

Since pop music and song lyrics play such an important role in young people's lives, they can be used to as a springboard for variuos language learning activities (Werner, 2019). Song lyrics include authentic language put in a specific text genre that can enhance learning motivation and reduce language anxiety. Although linguistic and socio-cultural gains from using pop song in the process of learning EFL are indisputable, "pop lyrics still seem to be underexploited" (Werner, 2019, p. 6). Werner (2019, p. 9) is particularly interested in non-standard grammatical forms that can be found in song lyrics as a means for developing EFL leaners' language awareness. A qualitative corpus study of pop lyrics allowed Werner to idenfity the non-standard forms that can be exploited in teaching to make EFL learners aware of register which accounts for pragmatic and stylistic appropriateness. Apart from register variation, these non-standard forms also show social and regional variation which are related to identity and linguistic capital as well.

While Werner is concerned with the potential of pop lyrics for the development of language awareness, Tegge (2017) focuses on the lexical knowledge and the opportunities for language learning that song lyrics offer. Assuming that both written and spoken text comprehension requires the lexical coverage of 95% to 98%, Tegge (2017) analysed two song corpora to find out how many words learners of English need to know to understand song lyrics. It appeared that to understand song lyrics taken from charts (the so-called chart corpus including pop songs from the top 100 end-of-year U.S. billboard charts, www.billboard.com), learners need to know "3,000 word families plus proper nouns, transparent compounds and marginal words" (Tegge, 2017) for 95%

lexical coverage. However, to reach 98% coverage, the knowledge of 6,000 word families is necessary. The 95% coverage is within the vocabulary range of learners of English (cf. Laufer 1998, 2001). The analysis of the other corpus (the so-called pedagogical corpus including songs selected by teachers and materials writers to be used in class) revealed that the knowledge of 2,000 word families plus proper nouns, transparent compounds and marginal words is needed for 95% lexical coverage while 98% coverage requires the knowledge of 4,000 word families.

These findings have clear pedagogical implications. Song lyrics defined as “a special case of written-to-be-spoken (or, rather, written-to-be-sung) genre” (Kreyer & Mukherjee, 2007, p. 37) are authentic and similar to oral and written spoken genres but are less lexically demanding than other written texts to be comfortably comprehended. In addition, teacher-selected songs are usually shorter, involve high frequency words and their lexical demand is lower than that of chart songs. Even so, they still may be demanding for EFL learners. Yet, because of their shortness they may be used during lessons for repeated listening, reading-while-listening as well as for identifying familiar and unfamiliar vocabulary.

To sum up, music and language can be perceived as “supportive sisters” (Stansell, 2005, p. 3). Music and songs support the intellectual, social, and emotional development of children, stimulate memory, bring relaxation, enjoyment, comfort, confidence, and motivation. They positively affect pronunciation and contribute to the development of reading skills. They contribute to the development of language awareness, lexical and sociolinguistic sensitivity as well as to the intercultural competence. These correspondences between music and language may explain why people, including foreign language learners, have always shown such a strong liking of music.

Conclusions

Interest in music is one of the most authentic and natural interests of people, especially of the younger ones (cf. Piasecka, 2012, p. 9; Szyszka, 2015, p. 9). Many members of the author’s generation were motivated to learn English by the pop music of the 1960s. Although original records of the most popular bands of that time from Western Europe and the United States were difficult to obtain behind the Iron Curtain, the ones that were available brought the music packaged in attractively designed covers. These covers carried the language and images which stimulated the listeners’-learners’ imagination, inhabited their memory, and exposed them to a rich multimodal cultural context. They opened

windows to new experience, new sensitivity, and new perceptions of the world. Moreover, they were the witnesses of the times when young people around the globe were getting their own voice to speak about the critical problems of their generation.

Taking the perspective of learner autonomy it may be concluded that adolescents from the 1960s fully practised their independence—they listened to what they wanted to (and to what was available) and they used pop songs as a resource and a motivator for language learning. Most interesting—they did all these marvelous things outside the classroom, in their free time, and they enjoyed it immensely.

The vinyl records of the 1960s and 1970s were gradually replaced by cassettes, which were gradually replaced by CDs. Then music and songs became available in the form of mp3s and now they can be easily found in many channels on the Internet. This does not mean, however, that vinyl records have disappeared from the phonographic market. Hasted (2012) notes that "[t]he ongoing upswing in sales of vinyl records, as CD sales collapse, has been heartening for all who still value their warm analogue sound and substantial, striking packaging." As a matter of fact, quite a number of young people are interested in vinyl records, they purchase and collect them. The statistics concerning the sales of vinyl records show a steady increase in their sales. Caulfield (2018) reports that in 2017 vinyl LP sales accounted for 14 percent of all physical album sales with the Beatles' *Sgt. Pepper's Lonely Hearts Club Band* as the top selling vinyl record.

English language teachers may capitalize on their learners' love of music and ask them to share their musical fascinations with other learners, which can be done in a variety of ways (cf. Lake 2002–2003). They can also use the potential of record covers by drawing their learners' attention to the design, the meaning of the design, and the possible connections that covers have with the music they advertise. Encourging the talk about visual art represented by the covers develops the learners' language skills along with their artistic sensitivity. The teachers may also invite learners to design their own covers for the records with their favourite musical pieces. The learners can model their own covers on the ones they appreciate. When they discover the story behind *Sgt Pepper's* cover, for example, they may be willing to make a list of characters who have influenced their lives so far and produce a tableau similar to *Sgt Pepper's* cover. Moreover, sharing the songs and music they like, learners build their own communities of practice, develop emotional sensitivity and—hopefully—reflectivity. Using record covers, music and language, the learners engage many senses, which supports memorisation and makes learning an interesting and engaging adventure.

Song lyrics—an underexploited genre in foreign language education—can be used to develop grammatical sensitivity, register awareness, the sense of

identity and the awareness of other cultures that the songs represent. Needless to say, song lyrics that represent authentic language have a great potential for language learners' lexical growth and sensitivity. Music matters if nothing else does. And so does language.

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Liliana Piasecka

Als „das Gras noch grüner war“: Schallplattenhüllen und Englischlernen Eine Retrospektive

Zusammenfassung

Das Erlernen des Englischen als Fremdsprache ist ein komplexer Prozess, der unter anderem solche Aspekte wie Lernerfahrung, Kultur und materielle Kultur als Bestandteil der Lernerfahrung bzw. des Lernumfelds sowie Motivation und Musik miteinbezieht. In der modernen Forschung wird das Augenmerk insbesondere auf die materielle Kultur im Kontext von Fremdsprachenerwerb und Mehrsprachigkeit gerichtet, weil sie eine reiche Fundgrube für verschiedene fremd- und mehrsprachige Aktivitäten ist. Schallplattenhüllen sind ein hervorragendes Beispiel für Artefakte, die das Verbale mit dem Materiellen verbinden. Musik und Lieder, insbesondere Popsongs, sind wichtige Motivatoren für das Fremdsprachenlernen. Im

vorliegenden Beitrag berichtet die Autorin über die Erfahrungen ihrer Generation mit der Popmusik in den 1960er Jahren. Der Fokus liegt dabei auf dem Fremdsprachenerwerb durch Kontakt mit materiellen Formen der Kultur, nämlich Schallplattenhüllen. In dieser Hinsicht stellt der Text eine persönliche Reflexion dar, die sich auf eigene Erfahrungen der Autorin sowie auf ihre zahlreichen Gespräche mit Freunden und Bekannten, welche in den 1960er Jahren Jugendliche waren, stützt. Darüber hinaus wird im Artikel auf das Verhältnis zwischen Musik und Fremdsprachenlernen eingegangen. Hingewiesen wird unter anderem auf die Rolle von Songtexten bei der Entwicklung von Sprachkenntnissen bzw. -bewusstsein und interkultureller Kompetenz. Es werden Vorschläge gemacht, wie das Musikinteresse der Schüler im Fremdsprachenunterricht gebraucht werden kann.

Schlüsselwörter: Fremdsprachenerwerb, materielle Kultur, Schallplattenhüllen, Popmusik, Motivation

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The Development of Language Skills in Speakers of English as an Additional Language What Matters More, Daily Use or Age of Onset?

Abstract

While seminal work identified age of onset to L2 as a core predictor of L2 learning in naturalistic environments, recent research has shown that other variables, such as language use, are more important than an early age of onset in predicting L2 attainment in speakers who learn the second language primarily in school. In this study, we investigated whether the acquisition of vocabulary and the development of overall proficiency in English as L2 can be predicted more faithfully by daily language, intended as daily share of L2 use in comparison to L1s, or L2 age of onset. To explore this issue, we analyzed a large public dataset of 650 speakers (de Bruin et al., 2017), in which participants were native in Spanish and/or Basque and spoke English as an additional language. Participants were previously assessed on their vocabulary skills using the LexTALE task and on their overall proficiency using a semi-structured interview. Language skills were then added to a linear regression model where age of onset and daily use of English were treated as predictors. Our results show that, in this dataset, use is a better predictor of language skills (both lexical knowledge and overall proficiency) than age of onset.

Keywords: bilingualism, age of onset, language use, English as L2

Age of Onset and Language Use

Proficient L2 Late Learners

Can one learn a second language proficiently if exposure starts later in life? This general question delimits one of the main problems in second language research, it is a recurrent doubt for people interested in language learning, and it is the leitmotif of this article. In this study, we specifically investigate the differential role of two variables that are expected to be predictors of second language learning: age of onset to the second language and amount of daily language use. We will try to understand how the two variables interact with each other, and which one is a better predictor of language skills, in a group of adult speakers of English as an additional language. We will analyze a large dataset that was kindly provided by Angela de Bruin, a researcher based at the University of York, and which includes the linguistic performances of 650 people tested in Spain in the Basque Country. All of these participants are native speakers of Spanish and/or Basque and all speak English as an additional language.

The Role of Age of Onset in L2 Learning

A common assumption in laypeople's discourse on education is that an early onset of exposure to a second language is crucial to attain native-like proficiency (Blom & Paradis, 2016; Pfenninger & Singleton, 2019). This notion is, however, mostly not corroborated by data (Muñoz, 2006; Pfenninger & Singleton, 2019), it appears to be true only for some domains of language (Herschensohn, 2013), and it appears to interact with a number of other variables in complex ways (Birdsong, 2018). This section describes this multifaceted picture. Generally speaking, age of onset is shown to be a crucial predictor for the language attainment of children emigrating to a new country. As Larson-Hall (2008) notices, this is not accidental, and it is probably due to the fact that extensive language immersion triggers implicit learning, a type of learning that may be more dependent on developmental factors than explicit learning.

One domain that seems to be particularly affected by age of onset is phonology (Sebastian-Galles & Bosch, 2005; Herschensohn, 2013). Phonology is the first linguistic domain to be acquired during childhood, and it is thus no surprise that age of onset to the second language affects the development of its phonology (Kuhl, 2004; Guasti, 2017). Studies show that children that are exposed to the second language from birth are the only ones that manage

to achieve native-like performance in phonological tasks in primary school (see, e.g., Kovelman, Baker, & Petitto, 2008, on Mexican children emigrating to the US) and similarly, adults that are exposed to a second language from birth are the only ones that perform like natives in fine-grained tasks of phonetic discrimination (Pallier, Bosch, & Sebastián-Gallés, 1997). In other words, even when speakers are very proficient in a second language, very subtle phonological differences due to the age of onset to L2 can still be recorded using experiments, and these have long-lasting effects.

Age of onset effects are, however, more controversial in other domains of language. Some studies do show age of onset effects in grammatical learning, even if these do not seem to appear across the board. McDonald (2000), for example, showed that age of onset to the L2 has long-term effects on grammatical knowledge, but these effects are modulated by the L1. In her study, groups of early and late sequential adults who emigrated to the United States were compared to monolinguals in their grammatical performance. The language of testing was English, and the L1 of the bilingual speakers could either be Spanish or Vietnamese. Age of onset showed to be a main predictor of grammatical performance, with different effects in the Spanish and the Vietnamese groups. For the Spanish group, the late sequentials performed poorly in a number of structures, including: past tense, plurals, third person, present progressive, auxiliaries, articles, yes/no questions and *wh*-questions. For the Vietnamese group, instead, difficulties were found in both early and late sequentials, though while for the early sequentials difficulties were limited to the traits that differ between English and Vietnamese, for the late sequentials the difficulties were more generalized (similarly to what was found for the Spanish late sequentials).

In other cases, the report of age of onset effects appears to be modulated by the system used to measure them. For instance, Abrahamsson and Hyltenstam (2009) investigated a large sample of Spanish-Swedish bilinguals and assessed their proficiency with two different systems. Participants in this study had a wide range of ages of onset (and life backgrounds), going between one and 47 years of age, and all of them identified as bilinguals. The first assessment consisted in the evaluation of their proficiency in Swedish, performed by a group of Swedish native speakers. This first analysis showed that the vast majority of speakers that were exposed to Swedish before 12 were perceived as native speakers by the Swedish judges, while the majority of those that were exposed to Swedish after 12 were perceived as non-native. However, once the early learners were assessed with a battery of Swedish language tasks, none of them (including the early sequentials, exposed at the time of nursery) did perform within the native-like range.

In a study investigating a sample of unprecedented size (over 600,000 people), Hartshorne, Tenenbaum, and Pinker (2018) tried to understand whether difficulties related to age of onset emerge linearly with time, or if there are

thresholds and cutting-off points. In their study, L2 speakers of English (with a wide variety of L1s) were assessed in a number of grammatical structures via online quiz. The subjects' age of acquisition was included in a model aiming at identifying any sharp decline in acquisition related to the age of onset. Their result suggests that people that were exposed to English after the age of 17 were extremely less likely to attain good performance in the language, but the model also showed a less abrupt but consistent decline taking place as early as at the age of three.

While these findings are important and do suggest a role of age of onset in second language learning, several studies have shown that age of onset may not be an actual contributing factor of the different learning trajectories just described, and in some cases, age of onset may even be a confounding variable (Birdsong, 2018).

First, one assumption in research that describes age of onset as a main predictor of language learning is the idea that there are maturational changes in our brain that make language acquisition natural at early ages, and gradually more difficult with time (stemming from classic work on the critical period, Lenneberg, 1967). When this idea is carefully put under scrutiny, it appears to be untrue to some extent. A biological description of brain development is beyond the scope of this article, but a few concepts may be outlined: evidence does suggest that brain plasticity is higher in younger learners, meaning that younger individuals' brains are overall more prone to adapt to new cognitive skills (Mundkur, 2005; Trettenbrein, 2017). However, increasing evidence shows that individual differences in brain plasticity can be extreme, with some individuals showing negligible signs of reduced plasticity over time (Wong et al., 2012; Paradis, Tulpar, & Arppe, 2016). The reasons behind these differences are yet to be fully understood, but the notion that there is a linear and regular correlation between time and cognitive decline is to be at least reconsidered. Additionally, the maturational account of age of onset effects has been critically reduced in new research approaches, as it appears that there is no decline in linguistic resources in late childhood, nor after puberty, and actually some aspects of cognition related to language may become sharper with time (Blom & Paradis, 2016).

Second, in experimental settings where multiple predictive variables are considered, it appears that the best predictor of second language learning success is to be found in socio-affective factors (Birdsong, 2018) and environmental factors (Blom & Paradis, 2016), rather than age of onset. In other words, what seems to be predicting success is how the speakers experience the language and not how early they are exposed to it (Birdsong, 2018), and speakers that are motivated and emotionally involved in their second language learning tend to be successful at any age. Often, second language learning in children with an early age of onset does indeed have the characteristic of being emotionally

important for the child, and thus an early age of onset does often correspond to successful second language learning. However, age of onset is not necessarily the key contributing factor of success, but a confounding variable. Some studies show that a late age of onset can still result in proficient learning if the motivation is high (Muñoz, 2006).

Finally, a plethora of studies show that there are complex interactions between age of onset effects and the role of quantity and quality of exposure, meaning that a later age of onset but a better quality and quantity of exposure may still result in proficient second language learning (Birdsong, 2018). The next section will discuss this variable in detail.

The Role of Language Use in L2 Learning

According to a number of researchers (e.g., Larson-Hall, 2008; Muñoz, 2006; Unsworth et al. 2011; Paradis et al., 2017; Cadierno et al., 2020), a large amount of language use and exposure is an even more important parameter than an early age of onset to attain proficiency in the second language, particularly when considering learners that rely primarily on classroom instruction. According to this view, people who are exposed to a second language late in their life but use the language frequently can acquire it at a near-native or even native-like level, compensating for effects of late age of onset. Unsworth et al. (2011), for example, have shown that the acquisition of complex grammatical phenomena (in this case gender in Dutch/Greek bilingual children) depends very closely on the amount of input that people have received and produced, rather than on their age of onset to these structures. Similarly, research conducted by Paradis et al. (2017) shows that the production of complex syntax by children speaking English as L2 is better predicted by the amount of exposure to the language, rather than by the age of onset. More specifically, children with a late age of onset but large exposure showed to rapidly develop good performance with complex structures, at a learning rate that even surpasses that of L1 learners. Similar findings were obtained by Cadierno et al. (2020) in a comparison of children with matched exposure but different onset. Using a semi-longitudinal design, the authors analyzed the linguistic development of young Danish learners of English (growing up in Denmark) with different ages of onset but the same length of formal instruction in English as a second language. According to their findings, the older students (their age of onset being 9–10 years) outperformed the younger students (with the age of onset being 7–8 years) in receptive grammar as well as receptive vocabulary, with the advantage of lexical ability being traceable even two years after the onset of English exposure, and the advantage in their grammatical skills growing over time. Interestingly, the authors suggest that, in the Danish context, this finding is related to

accumulated exposure that children get outside the classroom, with older children having a few more years of exposure to movies, series and games in English.

A study by Larson-Hall (2008) investigated whether these reflections extend to second language learners that rely uniquely on language exposure in the classroom (something relevant for our study, since in Spain exposure to English outside of the classroom is generally limited). In this study, several groups of second language learners (Japanese, with English as L2) with varying ages of onset were assessed on grammatical and phonological tasks. The study showed complex interactions between exposure and age of onset: While an earlier age of onset did have a significant role in predicting attainment, this revealed to be true only for learners who were exposed to English for a significant amount of time weekly, and thus as an early age of onset, per se, was not the core predicting variable. A long-term and large-scale (2,000 participants) study conducted by Muñoz (2006) on Catalan-Spanish learners of English is particularly revealing of these patterns. In this study, four groups of learners were followed for ten years during their development of English. These learners had different ages of onset: age eight, age 11, age 14, and age 18+. Number of hours of classroom exposure to English was carefully assessed for all individuals, and then included in the models analyzing the data. Two interesting findings emerged from this study: First, contrary to maturational accounts predicting a cognitive (or at least psycholinguistic) decline over time, the older learners were the fastest learners, and the trend then proceeded accordingly, with adolescents going faster than children. Second, regression analyses showed that number of classroom hours was a significant predictor of language attainment for all groups. Together, these two findings suggest that second language attainment may be predicted by classroom exposure rather than age of onset, with minimal advantages for an early age of onset. These parameters, as already outlined in the previous section, additionally interact in complex ways with other variables, such as motivation and the general cognitive development of the learner. A recent study by Pfenninger and Singleton (2019) confirms yet again these claims. In this study, English attainment of a large cohort of Swiss high school students was assessed in a 5-year longitudinal study. Crucially, results showed that intensity of exposure was a better predictor of success than age of onset.

The notion of language exposure is closely tied to the notion of language use: when people are exposed to a language in an interactive environment, this corresponds to a larger amount of language use (where use is a notion that includes both perception and production of a second language). Studies on second language use as a predictor of language skills are less common, but their findings go in the same direction (this is not surprising, since exposure and use are correlated variables). A study by Amuzie and Winke (2009)

shows that amount of language use is a main predictor of language attainment and self-perceived proficiency in students who travel to the United States for programs of second language immersion. Similar findings were obtained for learners of Japanese travelling to Japan (Dewey, Bown, & Eggett, 2012) and learners of Arabic travelling to Jordan and Morocco (Dewey, Belnap, & Hillstrom, 2013).

Finally, even if these claims mostly stem from research on learners that rely on classroom exposure, some studies on immigrants point in the same direction as well. A large-scale study of adolescent immigrants coming from several countries (China, Mexico, Haiti, and Dominican Republic) to the United States, investigated the role of language use in their English attainment after seven years from the arrival (Carhill, Suárez-Orozco, & Páez, 2008). In this study, learners were asked to evaluate their share (in percentage) of use of English in an average day. Additionally, they were asked to specify how much of this share was in formal and informal contexts. These values, together with additional metadata, were then used to predict English scores. The results showed that use of English was a main predictor of language scores, with a fundamental role being played by use in informal contexts.

In an epistemological paper, Tsimpli (2014) tried to integrate the apparent contradiction between age of onset and language use findings. By analyzing a large number of studies, her work suggests that the roles of age of onset and exposure vary depending on the structure under scrutiny: for some structures, the so-called late structures, exposure and use are the fundamental predictors, while for the so-called early structures, age of onset is a better predictor. The division in early and late structures is a reference to monolingual development, where certain structures are acquired very early, and others are acquired much later. The order of verbs and objects, for example, is acquired by children within the first two years of life (and it surfaces in their very first multi-word utterances). Inflectional morphology, instead, is acquired much later, starting around three years and lasting for several years (with some considerable variability depending on the language under scrutiny). When it comes to second language acquisition, Tsimpli (2014) argues that the proficient acquisition of structures that fall into the "early" box is heavily dependent on age of onset, while the acquisition of structures that fall into the "late" box is heavily dependent on use and exposure. The pattern described by Tsimpli in her epistemological article was confirmed experimentally by Ågren et al. (2014) in a longitudinal study testing a variety of structures, divided in early and late, in a group of Swedish-French bilingual children. Importantly for the current research, Tsimpli's work indicates that these two parameters (onset and use) have separate roles in second language acquisition, and thus deserve to be analyzed as separate predictors. In this study, we addressed this important and complex relationship by investigating the roles of age of onset and language

use in a large sample of English L2 learners having Spanish and/or Basque as L1. The notion of *use* adopted here is that of "daily share of English," similarly to Carhill, Suárez-Orozco, and Páez (2008).

Methods

Research Question, Hypothesis and Design

Research question: Are language skills in speakers with English as an additional language better predicted by age of onset or by daily use of English?

Hypothesis: Daily language use is more important than age of onset for the acquisition of both vocabulary and overall proficiency. Thus, our prediction is that, in this sample, daily language use will be a better predictor of linguistic attainment.

Design: To answer this question, we completed two multiple regressions on a dataset of speakers having English as additional language, in which age of onset and daily use were treated as predictors, and two different measures of language skills were treated as outcome variables. The predictors (age of onset and daily use) were assessed with a questionnaire. As explained in the Participants section, age of onset was coded based on a question assessing the age at which speakers started being in consistent contact with English (this meant, for most, the start of English training in school). Daily use was instead coded by asking speakers to specify the amount of share (in percentage), on an average day, of their use of English in comparison to Spanish and Basque. The predicted variables were overall language proficiency, assessed with a semi-structured interview, and lexical knowledge, assessed with the English version of the LexTALE. These two variables are described in detail in Procedure section.

Participants

The data of this dataset (known as the BEST dataset) were collected by de Bruin et al. (2017). The study of de Bruin et al. (2017) was submitted to the BCBL Ethics Committee and it received favorable opinion. Consent forms for each participant were collected and are stored in a secure location. Permission to use the dataset was granted in written form by Dr. de Bruin to the first author of this manuscript. For a more detailed description of the assessment procedure,

please see their reference. We report here some descriptive information provided by the authors: A sample of 650 (435 female) participants completed several tasks assessing language proficiency. Their ages varied between 18 and 50 years (mean = 25, SD = five years and seven months). At the time of assessment, the highest level of education obtained ranged from high school to university, with the majority of participants (80%) having attained a higher level of education (professional, university or postgraduate). More specifically, 380 subjects had a university bachelor's degree, 69 had a postgraduate university degree, 73 had a diploma in professional training (completed after high school), and 128 had a high school diploma. All participants at the time of assessment lived in Spain, in the Basque county, and identified as native speakers of Spanish and/or Basque, and second language learners of English. Self-perceived proficiency, described on a scale from zero to ten, was highest on average for Spanish (9.2), and slightly lower for Basque (8.03). English, described as a second language, obtained on average a score of 6.1. Socio-economic measures (except for education) and data relative to occupation were not collected. All participants learned Basque and Spanish in the first years of life (mean age of onset for Spanish = eight months, SD = one year and six months; mean age of onset for Basque = one year and eight months, SD = one year and ten months). Onset of exposure to English was on average at a later age (mean age of onset for English = six years and four months, SD = two years and six months), but all participants reported acquiring English at or before 12 years of age. Subjects were assessed by de Bruin et al. (2017) with a number of tasks provided in all three languages.

Procedure

Participants in this study were assessed with a number of tasks, and they additionally provided a self-perceived measure of their proficiency, language use and age of onset. We introduce here the measures and procedure used to assess these linguistic skills and metadata. The entire dataset was created over a period of 18 months, from January 2015 to June 2016. Participants first registered and completed the questionnaire aimed at gathering the metadata. Then, they completed the LexTALE tests, using an online website developed for this aim. Finally, they came to the research center, where they individually completed the picture-naming tests and underwent the semi-structured interview.

Initially, all subjects were asked to self-rate some parameters of their linguistic skills, by completing a questionnaire adapted from the Language Experience and Proficiency Questionnaire by Marian et al. (2007). Through this questionnaire, participants were asked to:

1. Self-evaluate their proficiency in each language on a scale from zero to ten. Specifically, they were given the following instruction: *On a scale from zero to ten, indicate your personal perception of your proficiency level for language X (ten being the highest score).*
2. Express the time they are exposed to each of the three languages in given day in percentage terms. Specifically, participants were given the following instruction: *Indicate the percentage of time that you are exposed to each of the languages. The sum of the percentages has to be 100%.*
3. State the age of first exposure to each language.

Lexical knowledge was assessed combining a set of three lexical decision tests, one for each language: LexTALE (Lemhöfer et al., 2012), LexTALE-Esp (Izura et al., 2014), and a Basque version of LexTALE developed for the purposes of the study by de Bruin et al. (2017). All participants completed the three variants of LexTALE (Spanish, Basque, & English) online. The order of the LexTALE tasks was Spanish-Basque-English. Sixty items (40 words, 20 non-words) were introduced to the participants in the English version of the test and subjects were asked to click on the appropriate button to show whether or not the item was an established English word. Finally, to measure overall language proficiency in each language, all subjects were interviewed and subsequently scored on a Likert-like scale by "a multilingual linguist with experience in assessing language proficiency" in a "semi-structured" interview (de Bruin et al., 2017, p. 2). The English interview score, and the English LexTALE score are chosen as outcome variables for this study, and the two tasks will then be described in more detail in the next section.

Tasks

Interview

The interviews were conducted by de Bruin et. al. (2017) and the data collected were made available for further research. The interview procedure was as follows: In each of their three languages, participants completed a brief semi-structured oral proficiency interview adapted from the structured *oral proficiency interview* format (Isbell & Winke, 2019). This five-minute interview was targeted at assessing the participants level of proficiency in spoken output, and more specifically their ability of producing different grammatical structures. It consisted of a series of questions that varied in complexity and required the interviewee to use multiple types of grammatical structures (e.g., questions prompting different tenses in the participant's response). Subjects were asked to answer questions revolving around a few core topics:

1. Presentation: Who are they? Where are they from? When did they start learning each of the languages they know? What did they study? Why? [completed in Basque].
2. Hobbies: sports, music, art, dance, ... [completed in English].
3. Know BCBL: How did they get to know the BCBL? [completed in English].
4. (Optional): What do they do during the weekend? [completed in English].
5. (Optional): Say something about a film or any current or remarkable news [completed in English].
6. (Optional): ....

The interview was performed and analyzed by a group of linguists with high expertise in English who were fluent speakers of Basque and Spanish. Each participant was assessed by one linguist (following directions from Gollan et al., 2012), but a total of four linguists with previous scientific knowledge in evaluating linguistic competence participated in the process. A Likert-like scale from one (lowest level) to five (native or native-like level) was used to score the result. In summary, according to de Bruin et al. (2017), the semi-structured interview design makes it a valid measure of oral proficiency and language profile knowledge, the questions asked "ranging in difficulty and requiring the participant to use different types of grammatical constructions" (de Bruin et al., 2017, p. 3).

LexTALE

LexTALE, an abbreviation for "Lexical Test for Advanced Learners of English," is a performance-based assessment of L2 lexical knowledge in advanced L2 learners of English which offers an alternative to self-ratings of proficiency. This assessment is widely employed in L2 vocabulary knowledge research as an approximate indication of lexical knowledge and, to a smaller extent, as a prompt of general proficiency (Lemhöfer & Broersma, 2012). Its main advantage over other tests is the rapidity of the testing. The test has been designed to be employed in psycholinguistic experimental studies and is intended for adult learners of English who began with the formal instruction at school around 10–12 years of age and have been using English on a daily basis ever since (e.g., to read articles, watch TV shows, etc.). It is a short free online test (available from: www.lextale.com) which usually takes approximately five minutes to complete; the examined learner is presented with 60 items (the ratio of words to non-words is 2:1) and is required to answer in an affirmative-negative manner (y/n) whether the items presented are actual existing English words or non-words (opting for a "no" when in doubt). The existing words occurring in the task are very rare, they have "a mean frequency of between

1 and 26 (mean: 6.4) occurrences per million according to the CELEX database" (Lemhöfer & Broersma, 2012, p. 329), meaning that it is highly improbable that the examined learner would know all of these words.

Three methods of scoring are employed when assessing the results of the LexTALE test:

1. A percentage correct measure adjusted for the unequal proportion of words and non-words by averaging the percentages correct for these two item types. As the authors explain (Lemhöfer & Broersma, 2012, p. 329) this measure is a "simple percentage correct measure, but corrected for the unequal proportion of words and non-words by averaging the percentages correct for these two item types. This way, a yes bias (creating high error rates in the nonwords) would be penalized in the same way as a no bias would (causing high error rates for words), independently of the different numbers of words versus nonwords."
2. ΔM is a value ranging from zero to one which takes into consideration the total sum of yes answers, and false alarms (non-words which elicited a 'yes' answer, marked *f*) when calculating the actual number of hits (existing words which elicited a 'yes' answer, marked *h*). This scoring method is based on Signal Detection Theory (SDT) and offers a more complex way to reflect the participant's guessing behavior (Huibregstse et al., 2002) by incorporating the concept of sophisticated guessing (guessing which does not occur randomly but rather as a result of the participant's uncertainty about a particular item) into its design.
3. I_{SDT} is the last scoring method used in LexTALE; this formula, developed by Huibregstse et al. (2002), is again based on SDT. This method takes into consideration that there are actually four answers in y/n question format ("hit" = 'yes' in case of a real word; "correct rejection" = 'no' in case of a non-word; "miss" = 'no' in case of a real word; "false alarm" = 'yes' in case of a non-word). The ISDT formula is more advanced than ΔM in accounting for sophisticated guessing and, in addition, it takes into account "individual response style" (the individual's tendency to lean towards either 'yes' or 'no' when in doubt) (p. 230).

While all methods provide control for guessing effects, the first scoring revealed to be in addition the most accurate of all in measuring language skills, leading to higher correlation coefficients with language scores of various kinds, including assessments such as the Quick Placement Test and a number of translation scores (Lemhöfer & Broersma, 2012). For these reasons, the "average correct" measure is now used as default in the scoring of LexTALE, and it was thus used in the current sample.

Data Analysis

Descriptive statistics for predictors and outcome variables are provided in Table 1. Following the guidelines of Hair et al. (2010) and Byrne (2010), all variables are to be considered normally distributed based on the values of skewness (smaller than two) and kurtosis (smaller than seven). Daily use presents a relatively high value of kurtosis because a few subjects declared a significantly higher level of daily use in comparison to the rest of the group. However, these subjects are not many, and this is why we still observe a mean of 11.15 with a standard deviation of 9.36. In total, 42 subjects out of 650 declared a daily use of 30% or higher, while the remaining 608 declared a value between 0% and 29%. Age of onset presents instead a very symmetrical distribution, with the most common age of onset occurring at the age of 6.37 (six years and four months), roughly corresponding to the start of schooling in Spain. Data were analyzed in R using multiple regression analysis, in order to assess the role of the two independent variables (daily language use and age of onset to English) in predicting the outcome variables (lex-TALE and interview score). Multiple regression was chosen because it is the most effective system to understand the relationship between predictors and outcome variables when the model is carefully constructed from theoretical considerations (Hoyt, Imel, & Chan, 2008). Since the dataset contains one datapoint for each subject (for each task), it was not possible to include random effects in any model, and a traditional regression was chosen instead.

Table 1

Descriptive Statistics for Predictors and Outcome Variables

	Age of onset	Daily use	Lex-TALE	Interview
Mean (SD)	6.37 (2.49)	11.15 (9.36)	66.75 (9.23)	3.32 (0.94)
Min-Max	0 – 12	0 – 70	41.25 – 71.25	0 – 8
Skewness-Kurtosis	0.45 – 0.10	1.63 – 5.47	0.56 – 0.84	–0.22 – –0.35

Regressions were run using the function lm() in R, from the *stats* package (R team, 2017). Factors were compared using a forced entry method. With this method, all factors are entered simultaneously and are given the same weight. The method thus gives a reliable estimate of the importance of each factor in predicting the outcome variable (Field at al., 2012). The models used are the following:

Lm1 (formula = interview-score ~ use * AoO, data = BEST)
Lm2 (formula = lex-tale ~ use * AoO, data = BEST)

The choice of predictive factors is theory-based: this study aims at assessing the roles of daily language use and age of onset as predictors of proficiency scores, and as such daily language use and age of onset were included in both models as predictors. The interaction between these factors was also included, based on its theoretical relevance (use may show to be more or less important according to the age of onset). Both models offer a good fit for the data, with Lm1 showing an F (646) = 21.3, $p < .001$, and Lm2 showing an F (646) = 28.45, $p < .001$. This measure of fit compares the model used to a hypothetical model with no predictors (so-called intercept-only model), and the results indicate that there is a significant difference, implying thus that the models used manage to capture patterns in the data. Both models offer a medium correlation coefficient according to Cohen's guidelines (Cohen, 1988), with $r = 0.3$ for Lm1 and $r = 0.34$ for Lm2, indicating that both models account for a medium amount of variance, or, in other words, that both models offer a medium level of explained variation. Results are presented in the two tables below. P-values are automatically provided by R when running the function lm():

Table 2

Results from the Regression Model Predicting the Interview Score

	Estimate	SE	t	*p*
Intercept	61.190	1.456	42.003	<.0001
Use	0.328	0.098	3.333	0.0009***
AoO	0.372	0.210	1.774	0.076
Use:AoO	–0.006	0.014	–0.478	0.632

Table 3

Results from the Regression Model Predicting the LexTALE Score

	Estimate	SE	t	*p*
Intercept	2.981	0.145	20.472	<.0001
Use	0.032	0.009	3.328	0.0009***
AoO	–0.009	0.021	–0.473	0.636
Use:AoO	0.0005	0.001	0.397	0.691

Our analysis shows that, in both cases, only use is a significant predictor of language skills, with $p < .001$ in both models. This relationship is shown visually in the scatterplots below. While the scatterplots representing the relationship between age of onset and language skills are relatively flat, the scatterplots representing the relationship between the amount of use and language skills are both steep (Figures 1 and 2). This means that while age of onset does not have a significant effect on language skills, daily use does have a significant

effect, with larger amounts of daily use leading to higher language scores (ascending trending line).

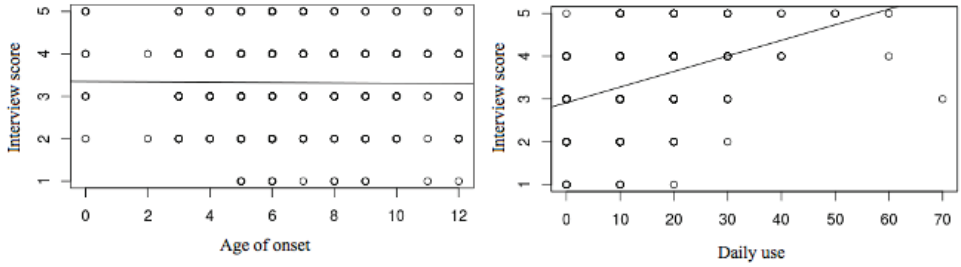

Figure 1. Scatterplots age of onset-interview score & daily use-interview score

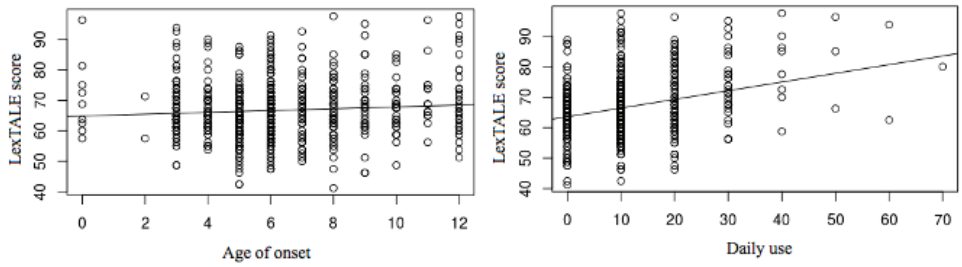

Figure 2. Scatterplots age of onset-LexTALE score & daily use-LexTALE score

Discussion

Daily Use as a Predictor of Language Skills

The BEST dataset is a large dataset which allows for the profiling and characterization of different sorts of multilingual subjects from the Basque Country (who speak Spanish and/or Basque and have varying proficiency levels in English) by combining several measurements of their language skills (de Bruin et al., 2017). Our study analyzed this dataset to investigate whether overall proficiency and lexical knowledge in English are better predicted by age of onset or by daily language use. Two different outcome measures were adopted: the output of the LexTALE task and the score obtained on a semi-structured interview. In short, our analysis shows that daily use is a better predictor than age of onset of both LexTALE and interview scores.

This finding contributes to a long-lasting debate as to whether it is more important to be exposed to the second language early or to be exposed to it for

many hours a day (even if the age of onset is later in life). Our data suggests that daily use may be more important than age of onset, at least in the sample currently analyzed. Our findings are consistent with studies that show that use is a better predictor than age of onset in second language learning (Carhill, Suárez-Orozco, & Páez, 2008; Larson-Hall, 2008; Muñoz, 2006; Unsworth et al. 2011; Paradis et al., 2017). The current study extends this line of work in that it investigates a specific type of measure of language use, which is daily share. This measure was previously used to predict language skills in immigrants (Carhill, Suárez-Orozco, & Páez, 2008), but not to predict attainment in second language learners who use English as an additional language while being immersed in their native language (in their native country). This simple measure of language use, that can be obtained with one unique question in a questionnaire, appears to be a highly significant predictor of language attainment. This measure does not necessarily indicate that daily use is the reason for language attainment. A high share of daily use of a language might indicate, or be related to, motivation and attitudes toward the language, factors that are shown to be crucial for second language learning, particularly when learners rely primarily on classroom instruction (Blom & Paradis, 2016; Birdsong, 2018; Pfenninger & Singleton, 2019). While it is not possible to clearly separate use from socio-affective factors, it is possible to make a comparison between age of onset effects and daily use effects. The fact that age of onset does not predict attainment in this sample complements previous work that has given similar results. The large-scale study of Muñoz (2006), for example, also investigated Spanish learners of English in Spain, and similarly concluded that age of onset was not a predictor of success, while input was. The study of Paradis et al. (2007) investigating the acquisition of grammatical structures in French-English bilinguals, also showed that input was a better predictor than age of onset. The study of Unsworth et al. (2011), investigating Greek-Dutch bilinguals showed that input was a better predictor than age of onset for the acquisition of complex structures (such as grammatical gender), as described in epistemological work by Tsimpli (2014). Similar results were obtained with second language learners of other languages (Dewey et al., 2012; Dewey et al., 2014; Bown & Eggett, 2012). In summary, when input and age of onset are included in the same model and compared, it appears that input can have a more important role in predicting attainment than age of onset. Our findings contribute to this body of research.

These claims may seem in contradiction with studies that show that age of onset is a crucial predictor of language attainment (McDonald, 2000; Abrahamsson & Hyltenstam, 2009; Hartshorne, Tenenbaum, & Pinker, 2018). However, it should be stressed that these studies did not make a direct comparison between use and age of onset in each given model (as we did). Often, an early age of onset is correlated to a large amount of use, without one actu-

ally influencing directly the other (Birdsong, 2018; Babatsouli & Ball, 2020). Thus, showing the presence of age of onset effects does not undermine the role of use effects if these are not included in the same model. However, there are also many cases in which an early age of onset does not correspond to extensive use, and it is thus important to characterize the differential effects of use and age of onset, because they may have rather different roles when they do not correlate (Tsimpli, 2014). In other words, we do not deny that in many cases an early age of onset corresponds to higher results in language attainment, especially if the sample analyzed consists of children that emigrated to a new country, but we suggest that these results may be due to additional exposure that children with an early age of onset might receive (Babatsouli & Ball, 2020), or possibly to socio-affective factors related to early exposure to a language (Birdsong, 2018). In both cases, such findings reduce the validity of maturational accounts, and contribute to the growing body of evidence showing that a late age of onset can correspond to proficient learning, given the right conditions (Paradis et al., 2017; Blom & Paradis, 2016; Pfenninger & Singleton, 2019). The lack of simple age of onset effects may be interpretated within the realm of brain development and brain plasticity research. Despite the fact that generally speaking brain plasticity is stronger in younger children (Mundkur, 2005), our results and other findings of this kind (Blom & Paradis, 2016), suggest that there is no detectable decline in cognitive language skills related to age in older children and young adults, particularly when the object of analysis is explicit learning.

Kinds of Language Skills

In this study, language use appears to be more important than age of onset in predicting language skills. This finding is confirmed with two different tasks: a semi-structured interview and a version of the LexTALE assessment. It is interesting to observe an advantage of use over onset in both these tasks, since they measure rather different aspects of linguistic knowledge: the semi-structured interview taps into various components of grammar and as such offers a good estimate of overall language proficiency (de Bruin et al., 2017), including comprehension and use of complex structures. LexTALE, on the other hand, offers a quick measure of vocabulary knowledge (Lemhöfer & Broersma, 2012). Further analyses of these tasks may offer some additional characterization of what they measure, and the current section attempts at doing so.

A semi-structured interview is a flexible method that can be quite successful in assessing a speaker's general proficiency. Particularly, semi-structured interviews offer a way to approach participants individually, while also upholding a recurrent interview structure. Upon a closer look at the interview

questions used in this study, it is reasonable to say that these indeed elicit various grammatical structures, as stated by de Bruin et al. (2017), and most predominantly different tenses. Some tenses may be represented more than others: for example, the answers elicited by the first question seem to focus mainly on simple present and past tenses. Other questions are more flexible and allow for elicitation of a more varied set of structures. The topics of the interview are described rather broadly, which allows for additional questioning by the experimenter when they feel the need to further verify the participant's employment of a certain structure. The resulting score, marked on a proficiency scale (from one to five), thus, reflects a multi-component assessment, which allows for a relative in-depth inspection of the participant's proficiency. This statement is supported by the agreement between the interview scores and the rest of the measures (such as self-perceived proficiency), which indicates the "pragmatical" validity of the interview.

LexTALE, being a widely used test, has received considerable attention in the literature. The most intuitive interpretation of LexTALE is that of a lexical assessment. This idea was evaluated by Lemhöfer and Broersma (2012) by testing two experimental groups (Dutch and Korean speakers of English) with LexTALE and comparing the acquired data against self-rating scores and word translation test scores (from L1 to L2 and vice versa). The data show that LexTALE scores correlate with the translation scores more closely than with self-rating scores, and consequently suggest that LexTALE may be primarily an indicator of lexical knowledge. In some cases, LexTALE has been used as a measure of general proficiency. A study by Nakata et al. (2020) investigated correlations between a wide range of linguistic measures. The study employed LexTALE, Vocabulary Size Test (VST), TOEFL ITP (as a measure of general proficiency), a translation task, and self-ratings of speaking, writing, reading, and listening with an additional self-rating of vocabulary knowledge. The correlation of VST and LexTALE scores verified LexTALE to be a better predictor of lexical knowledge than any form of self-rating (speaking, writing, reading, listening, and vocabulary knowledge). However, LexTALE was also found to be a better measure of lexical proficiency than self-ratings, showing a high correlation with the TOEFL scores. As the authors put it, LexTALE was demonstrated to be an "approximate measure of English vocabulary knowledge and, to a lesser extent, general proficiency" (p. 335).

The fact that, in the current study, language use appears as a better predictor than age of onset with both these outcome measures, offers some material for reflection. According to Tsimpli (2014), use is expected to be a better predictor than age of onset particularly when the outcome measure is a so-called late structure. Late structures are those that are acquired later during development, and that require substantial grammar-external and even language-external resources to be comprehended and used. Are the outcome variables adopted in

this study a measure of late-structure development? In the case of the interview, we may reasonably assume so. The semi-structured interview supposedly assesses explicitly the use of complex language and, more specifically, the use of a variety of grammatical structures (de Bruin et al., 2017). It is thus indeed expected that use will be a better predictor than age of onset for this variable. In the case of the LexTALE task, the answer is less obvious. Vocabulary knowledge is something that can hardly be classified as either early or late, since the acquisition of the lexicon (in both L1 and L2) is a process that starts with the initial stages of learning and virtually never stops. However, given the correlations between lexical knowledge and overall proficiency, the answer may be positive also in this case.

Beyond these reflections, our analyses have clear practical relevance for theories concerning the acquisition of English as a second or additional language. Our results in fact suggest that the acquisition of English as an additional language is possible also when the age of onset occurs later, and that a large share of daily use can overcome the difficulties related to a later age of onset, consistently with findings from a growing number of studies (Carhill, Suárez-Orozco, & Páez, 2008; Larson-Hall, 2008; Muñoz, 2006; Unsworth et al. 2011; Paradis et al., 2017; Pfenninger & Singleton, 2019; Cadierno et al., 2020). The implications for students are clear: speakers need to use the second (or additional) language as much as possible to obtain high proficiency levels, and, by doing so, they may even overcome in performance speakers that were exposed to a second language since early childhood (Paradis et al., 2017). In the meantime, it should be stressed that these outcome measures (the interview and LexTALE) are not an exhaustive measure of language skills. Acquisition in other domains might be more dependent on an early age of onset. As discussed in the introduction, phonology (for example) might not show native-like development with a late age of onset, even when daily use is very high (Pallier et al., 1997; Kovelman, Baker, & Petitto, 2008; Herschensohn, 2013). Further research is needed to ascertain to what degree the findings we report here for interview scores and LexTALE scores can be extended to other linguistic domains.

Conclusion

In conclusion, this study showed that daily language use is better than age of onset in predicting vocabulary and general proficiency in a sample of English learners who are natives in Spanish and/or Basque. This finding is consistent with the growing body of evidence showing that quantity and quality of exposure are among the main pillars of second language attainment (Larson-Hall,

2008; Muñoz, 2006; Unsworth et al. 2011; Paradis et al., 2017; Pfenninger & Singleton, 2019), and suggesting that previously reported age of onset effects are not uniquely related to brain development trajectories (Mundkur, 2005), but to correlations between age of onset and other environmental and socio-affective variables (Blom & Paradis, 2016; Birdsong, 2018; Pfenninger & Singleton, 2019).

Compliance with Ethical Standard

Informed consent: Permission to use the dataset was granted in written form by Dr de Bruin to the first author of this manuscript. The study of de Bruin et al. (2017), consisting in the collection of this dataset, was submitted to the BCBL Ethics Committee and it received favorable opinion. Consent forms for each participant were collected and are stored in a secure location. The statement from de Bruin (2017) original paper reads: "This study was carried out in accordance with the recommendations of BCBL Ethics Committee with written informed consent from all subjects. All subjects gave written informed consent in accordance with the Declaration of Helsinki. The protocol was approved by the BCBL Ethics Committee."

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Research involving Human Participants and/or Animal: This study does involve human participants.

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Luca Cilibrasi, Daniela Marková

Die Entwicklung der Sprachkenntnisse bei Lernenden des Englischen als Zusatzsprache. Was ist wichtiger: der tägliche Sprachgebrauch oder das Alter bei Erwerbsbeginn?

Zusammenfassung

In dem vorliegenden Beitrag wird untersucht, ob der Wortschatzerwerb und die Entwicklung der allgemeinen Sprachkompetenz im Englischen als Zusatzsprache mehr durch den täglichen Sprachgebrauch oder auch durch das Alter bei Erwerbsbeginn geprägt werden. Hierfür wurde eine zahlenmäßig große Gruppe von 650 Probanden (der Datensatz wurde freundlicherweise von de Bruin et al., 2017, zur Verfügung gestellt) einer Analyse unterzogen, die spanische und/oder baskische Muttersprachler sind und Englisch als Zusatzsprache (Drittsprache) verwenden. Die Wortschatzkenntnisse der Probanden wurden eingangs mit einem LexTALE-Test und ihre allgemeine Sprachkompetenz mit einem semistrukturierten Interview beurteilt. Danach wertete man ihre Sprachkenntnisse mittels eines Modells aus, in dem das Alter bei Erwerbsbeginn und der tägliche Sprachgebrauch als Prädiktoren behandelt wurden. Die Ergebnisse zeigten, dass in dem analysierten Datensatz der tägliche Sprachgebrauch ein besserer Prädiktor für Sprachkenntnisse (sowohl in Bezug auf die Lexik als auch auf allgemeine Sprachkompetenz) als das Alter bei Erwerbsbeginn war.

Schlüsselwörter: Zweisprachigkeit, Alter bei Erwerbsbeginn, täglicher Sprachgebrauch, Englisch, Hypothese der kritischen Periode

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The Relationship among Age-advanced Learners'* In-class Willingness to Communicate in English, Intrinsic Motivation, Classroom Environment and Teacher Immediacy—A Pilot Study

Abstract

The article aims to scrutinize third agers' in-class willingness to communicate (WTC) in English as well as to determine the relationship among WTC, intrinsic motivation, classroom environment, and teacher immediacy. The instrument adapted to this study was a questionnaire comprising biodata items, the in-class WTC tool (Peng & Woodrow, 2010), intrinsic motivation (Noels, Clément, & Pelletier, 2001), classroom environment (Fraser, Fisher, & McRobbie, 1996), and the teacher immediacy scale (Zhang & Oetzel, 2006).

The data revealed that senior learners' WTC was higher in meaning-focused than in form-focused activities. This finding indicates that the participants paid due attention to communicative interactions in English. Also, they were more eager to be actively involved in dyadic exercises as it might have given them a sense of security and confidence. It is noteworthy that intrinsic motivation turned out to be the strongest predictor of in-class WTC. The analysis showed that communication in English abroad and in-class was of paramount relevance for the informants. The older adults also underscored the fundamental role of the language instructor. In this respect, the students attached great importance to a non-threatening atmosphere, and the teacher's personality traits, namely patience, professionalism, and empathy.

Keywords: willingness to communicate, seniors, motivation, teacher immediacy

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* Language learners aged 55 plus are defined in various sources as *age-advanced learners* (Pfenninger & Polz, 2018), *third-age learners* (Gabryś-Barker, 2018), *third agers* (Oxford, 2018), *late language learners* (Singleton, 2018), *older adults/learners* (e.g., Kliesch et al., 2018; Ramírez Gómez, 2016), *senior learners/students* (e.g., Derenowski, 2018; Niżegorodcew, 2018), and *seniors* (e.g., Pawlak, Derenowski, & Mystkowska-Wiertelak, 2018). I am going to use the terms interchangeably.

Without a doubt, seniors constitute one of the most autonomous language learners, and as such they have their linguistic needs and goals clearly defined (cf. Gabryś-Barker, 2018; Oxford, 2018). It has been well-established that older adults place great weight to developing communicative skills in-class, which is of practical relevance in real-life situations (e.g., Grotek, 2018; Jaroszewska, 2013; Ramírez Gómez, 2016). My numerous observations of third agers as language students have indicated that they are eager to speak English, and share their opinions during classes. Regardless of the level of proficiency, they are open to experimenting with English, and their eagerness to speak seems to be even higher in dyadic interactions. To the best of my knowledge, however, there are no publications regarding older learners' willingness to communicate (WTC) or the variables that might shape their readiness to speak English.

Therefore, the present pilot paper attempts to explore seniors' in-class WTC in English, and identify the relationship between classroom WTC, intrinsic motivation, classroom environment, and teacher immediacy.

In-class WTC in a Second Language

Originally, the concept of WTC was developed with reference to the first language, and it was related to an individual's general predisposition to initiate and sustain verbal interaction with other people (McCroskey & Richmond, 1987). L2 WTC, on the other hand, concerns both trait-like and situation-based factors, and is traditionally defined as "a readiness to enter into discourse at a particular time with a specific person or persons, using a L2" (MacIntyre et al., 1998, p. 547). The desire to communicate is of great value as it exerts a positive effect on language learners' communicative behaviors in the classroom context, and as aptly stated by MacIntyre (2020, p. 112), "choosing to communicate or not may be one of the most important decisions a person can make" in second language interactions.

It seems fundamental to note that initial and early studies were conducted without any distinction between in-class and out-of-class WTC. MacIntyre et al. (2001) examined readiness to communicate for all four skills using the same scale for both WTC inside and outside the classroom in an immersion context. A significant modification was proposed by Weaver (2005), who designed a scale that aimed at measuring eagerness to speak in typical classroom situations. Peng and Woodrow (2010) adapted Weaver's (2005) tool, and supplemented it with McCrockey and Baer's (1985) scale with a view of creating a new instrument based on WTC in meaning-focused and form-focused tasks. This scale was intended to measure L2 WTC in a variety of exercises among

three kinds of interlocutors, such as the teacher, a peer and a group of peers. It turned out that Chinese university students tended to have a higher level of WTC in form-focused activities (e.g., Peng, 2014; Peng & Woodrow, 2010). They were more likely to speak in teacher-centered situations, and meaningful communication, which is typically more risky and unpredictable, might be a source of losing face or public humiliation (cf. Simpson, 2008; Wen & Clément, 2003).

Much in a similar vein, Cao and Philp (2006) conducted a substantial study which investigated WTC in three interactional situations, namely, dyadic work, group work, and whole class. As also indicated in previous research, some students preferred group work with three or four partners as that form of learning offered multiple perspective opportunities (e.g., Cao, 2011; Cao & Philp, 2006; Riasati, 2012). In this respect, Fushino (2010) manifests that cooperation in groups may encourage learners with lower linguistic competence to involve themselves actively in a task as well as to "experience a growing degree of success" (p. 718). By contrast, pair work is deemed to be less competitive and generates less anxiety when compared to whole class activities (Cao, 2013; Mystkowska-Wiertelak, 2016; Riasati, 2018). Also, students tend to express a lower level of WTC while giving a lecture in front of class as they feel less secure and confident (e.g., Riasati & Rahimi, 2018). It is worthwhile to note that Mystkowska-Wiertelak and Pawlak (2014) conducted a study whose main aim was to measure younger adults' WTC in a monologue and a dialogue. It was reported that the initial high WTC in monologues was likely to decrease while readiness to communicate in dialogues was lower at the onset, and it tended to boost during the task performance. The scholars write that "the initial unwillingness to talk tended to fade away as the students became more engaged in the task, perhaps in response to the points raised by the other participants" (p. 254).

What also appears critical is that interlocutors play a key role in facilitating in-class WTC. It has been manifested that students have a preference for speaking with classmates they know well since familiarity has a significant impact on L2 WTC (e.g., Kang, 2005; Mystkowska-Wiertelak & Pawlak, 2017). Likewise, cooperative partners are of particular significance as they motivate learners to active engagement in a task (e.g., Cao & Philp, 2006; Nagy & Nikolov, 2007; Pawlak & Mystkowska-Wiertelak, 2015). Students may also feel encouraged to discuss a topic when classmates' opinions are different (Riasati, 2018; Riasati & Rahimi, 2018).

In actual teaching practice, in-class WTC is facilitated by a supportive and non-threatening atmosphere (e.g., J.-M. Dewaele & L. Dewaele, 2018; Khajavy, MacIntyre, & Barabadi, 2017; Mystkowska-Wiertelak & Pawlak, 2017). Class climate is perceived as one of the situation cues affecting WTC. In the proposed framework of situational antecedents of state WTC, Zhang, Beckmann and Beckmann (2018) have clearly emphasized that a positive atmosphere is

an influential factor shaping WTC. In this regard, the teacher is a powerful figure who is a capable of creating and maintaining a laid-back atmosphere (Dewaele, 2019; Piechurska-Kuciel, 2014; Riasati, 2018; Sheybani, 2019). In a large number of studies a stress-free environment as well as teacher support have been detailed as potent factors fostering in-class communication (e.g., Eddy-U, 2015; Mystkowska-Wiertelak & Pawlak, 2017). The language instructor who is capable of creating a supportive classroom environment may build a good rapport with students. The teacher's verbal and non-verbal behaviors in-class serve a beneficial purpose as they reduce potential discomfort while using a L2 at the oral level. Therefore, teacher immediacy has a positive influence on boosting in-class readiness to speak as it provides encouragement that, in consequence, prompts more open and active involvement during classes (e.g., Cao, 2011; Wen & Clément, 2003; Zarrinabadi, 2014; J. Zhang, Beckmann, & Beckmann, 2019; Q. Zhang & Oetzel, 2006).

Third Agers in an English Classroom

In-class WTC among third age learners, who are mainly defined as 55 years of age and older (cf. Gabryś-Barker, 2018; Ramírez Gómez, 2016; Stuart-Hamilton, 2012), has not been investigated in the literature of the subject. However, there is a rich body of research which indirectly suggests that older adults ought to be eager to speak a foreign language inside a classroom environment. It seems significant at this juncture to concentrate on English as it is the most commonly learnt language at third age universities in Poland (e.g., Jaroszewska, 2013; Matusz & Rakowska, 2019; Szarota, 2009).

Basically, seniors may be viewed as unique language students in terms of their motivation to learn English. Owing to the fact that their professional paths have come to an end, extrinsic motivation is no longer a driving factor that might facilitate improvement of language skills in late adulthood (e.g., Pawlak, Derenowski, & Mystkowska-Wiertelak, 2018). As opposed to younger adults, they are not interested in passing exams in order to get formal qualifications and start their careers (cf. Derenowski, 2018). For this reason, third agers typically turn to activities that give them a meaningful goal in their personal life, as well as open doors to being a worthy member of the community (cf. Lawrence & Lightfoot, 2009; Wieczorkowska, 2017). Moreover, they tend to put their emotional well-being first because they are aware of the fact that they have less time left (Sigelman & Rider, 2015).

Gabryś-Barker (2018, p. xv) points out that learning a foreign language may be treated as "a lifestyle choice and a pleasurable pastime," which results

in evoking positive emotions. As evidenced in the studies by Pfenninger and Polz (2018), as well as Pot, Keizer, and de Bot (2018), second language acquisition promotes interaction and integration that, in turn, lead to fostering overall well-being and self-esteem. Additionally, seniors are conscious of the fact that language education has a positive effect on brain plasticity as it cannot only increase working memory capacity and attention, but the onset of dementia may be delayed as well (e.g., Bialystok, Craik, & Freedman, 2007; Cox, 2017; Goral, 2019; Mackey & Sachs, 2012; Wong et al., 2019). Thus, age-advanced learners' active participation during English classes seems to be mediated by their intrinsic motivation, which as the most self-determined form of motivation, is a paramount factor maintaining students' effort and engagement in the second language process of learning (Noels, Clément, & Pelletier, 2001).

In this respect, the strongest motive to learn English at a senior age is gaining the ability to communicate abroad in real-life situations (e.g., Niżegorodcew, 2016; Oxford, 2018). Interactions in a foreign language have a powerful role in establishing or maintaining relationships with seniors' friends and family, and those communicative behaviors may result in eliminating a potential feeling of isolation or age stereotyping about dependence on others (e.g., Escuder-Mollón, 2014; Świderska & Kapszewicz, 2015). Independent communication in English may become a source of self-realization, satisfaction and happiness that facilitate quality of life (Pfenninger & Polz, 2018; Wieczorkowska, 2017).

In order to become an effective English speaker, one needs to be willing to use the language verbally inside the classroom (e.g., MacIntyre et al., 1998). Students in the third age perceive learning as a social activity, and appear to attend a language course with a view of being a part of group (e.g., Grotek, 2018; Jaroszewska, 2013). My hands-on experience shows that older adults enjoy performing tasks in dyads, such as dialogues and role plays. What is significant from a methodological point of view is that meaning-focused exercises ought to be introduced from the very beginning of English learning because, as already mentioned, seniors' intention is to practice speaking skills which gets them used to natural reactions in various daily situations outside the classroom. Much prominence should also be given to learning "relatable vocabulary" that may be germane and useful in realistic contexts (Ramírez Gómez, 2016, p. 169). As learners in the third age simply wish to communicate in meaningful interactions in-class, form-focused tasks seem to be of much less importance to them (cf. Matusz-Rakowska, 2019).

At this point, it is reasonable to hypothesize that in-class WTC in English among seniors should be higher in meaning-focused activities as their main purpose is to prepare learners for natural language communication (Peng & Woodrow, 2010). Also, they may be more eager to speak English in pairs because dyadic work enhances a sense of security, particularly when a partner is

familiar, cooperative, and open to share opinions (e.g., Fushino, 2010; Riasati, 2018).

The Teacher Role in Shaping Senior Learners' In-class WTC in English

It is also assumed that senior students highlight the importance of a language teacher who should provide opportunities that promote communication. What appears to be seen in other studies is that the teacher immediacy plays an unquestionable role in a seniors' language classroom (cf. Pawlak et al., 2018; Pot et al., 2018). In this regard, both instrumental immediacy (i.e., the teacher's attitude towards his or her profession), and relational immediacy (i.e., the teacher's behaviors towards his or her students) seem to shape senior learners' engagement, as well as active involvement in English classes (cf. Q. Zhang & Oetzel, 2006). Also, the educator's personality features, and classroom management have a vast influence on older learners in a holistic manner (e.g., Derenowski, 2018; Grotek, 2018; Larrotta, 2019). Patience, empathy, and professionalism are considered to be of great value when it comes to a foreign language teacher. The educator needs to be capable of understanding older students' potential physical and mental limitations (cf. Jaroszewska, 2013; Oxford, 2018). Some scholars have remarked that older language learners tend to self-stereotype and undermine their skills, which may have a detrimental effect on their active engagement in-class (Singleton, 2018; Steuden, 2011). Thus, it is essential for the teacher to have a good rapport with his or her students translated as showing them positive emotions (e.g., respect and encouragement), and paying due attention to their language learning successes as it plays a key role in maintaining older students' self-esteem (cf. Kozerska, 2016; Q. Zhang & Oetzel, 2006).

Much in a similar vein, an ability to create and sustain a relaxed atmosphere constitutes the core of teaching a foreign language to seniors since these components of language instruction help learners become more secure and confident to experiment with English (e.g., Matusz & Rakowska, 2019; Ramírez Gómez, 2019). The positive environment is an effective facilitator that encourages cooperative learning and willingness to share linguistic knowledge during task performance. Likewise, the teacher support is surmised to build or strengthen social bonds between classmates and improve group cohesiveness that, as already discussed, is of unquestionable relevance to seniors (Derenowski, 2018; Grotek, 2018). What should also be noted is that a friendly classroom climate may exert a great influence on seniors' communicative behaviors in English since "having experienced a constant pleasant classroom environment, students

may be able to develop rewarding feelings about speaking English" (Peng & Woodrow, 2010, p. 857).

This paper is an attempt to identify seniors' in-class WTC both in meaning-focused and form-focused activities in order to gain a more comprehensive understanding of their in-class communicative behaviors, and to confirm that older adults have a preference for performing realistic activities based on meaningful communication. The goal of this article is also to investigate variables that may foster readiness to speak English inside a classroom setting, as well as to indicate which aspects of intrinsic motivation, classroom environment, and teacher immediacy are reported to be the most vital for the subjects.

Study

Research Aims and Questions

The primary objective of the current study was to scrutinize in-class WTC in English among senior learners, as well as to investigate the relationship between WTC in English, intrinsic motivation, classroom environment, and teacher immediacy. It also sought to determine whether the participants found meaning-focused or form-focused activities more relevant in the classroom context. Additionally, the present research was intended to explore the older adults' standpoints in terms of internal motives to learn English at a senior age, as well as to identify their perceptions of the relationships with class members (group cohesiveness), and the teacher (teacher immediacy and support). In particular, the present study aimed to address the following questions:

To what extent are the third agers willing to communicate in English both in meaning-focused and form-focused tasks inside classroom settings?

Which aspects of intrinsic motivation, classroom environment, and teacher immediacy are the most eminent among the seniors?

What is the relationship among the third agers' WTC in English, intrinsic motivation, classroom environment, as well as teacher immediacy?

Participants

The informants were 30 students (29 females and one male) of the Third Age University in Nowy Targ and Zakopane who had been regularly attending English courses for seniors (two didactic hours a week). As regards their age, one student declared to be between 50–55, four third agers were between 56–60,

eight respondents reported to be between 61–65, 11 participants between 66–70, and six subjects were between 71–75. When it comes to the place of residence, 90% declared living in a town, and 10% in a village. Likewise, 60% admitted having tertiary education while 40% reported having graduated from a secondary school. The participants were also asked about learning English throughout their life, and including only English courses at the third age university. The analysis showed that seven students had studied English for 1–3 years, seven informants for 3–5 years, six seniors for 5–7 years, five respondents for 7–10 years, two third agers for 10–15 years, and three learners for more than 15 years. In a general sense, the students represented the A1 and A2 level of proficiency. As far as the English courses for seniors were concerned, most of the informants (60%) declared 1–3 years of attendance. Interestingly, 90% of the subjects admitted knowing other foreign languages, mainly Russian (24 informants), and German (12 learners). The knowledge of French, Italian, and Latin was also mentioned.

The subjects were taught by myself and another teacher, and our teaching styles varied considerably. We used two different approaches to teaching English. I promoted learner-centeredness, offering the seniors many communicative opportunities that were principally relevant for encouraging active involvement inside the classroom. Likewise, I paid a lot of attention to giving as much English input as possible, and the language of instructions was mainly English. My students were exposed predominantly to meaningful exercises (such as role-plays and dialogues) even at lower levels of proficiency, and I placed great emphasis on giving my seniors much talking and reaction time. The second instructor explained tasks in Polish, and his approach was more teacher-centered. His learners also had some opportunities to talk, yet in a more controlled manner. Moreover, this teacher did not provide any room for his students to be absorbed in spontaneous interaction between each other. Grammar structures were introduced and practiced mostly by means of translations.

Instruments and Procedure

The instrument adapted to this study was a questionnaire which included demographic information: gender (male; female), age (between 50–55 years old; between 56–60 years old; 61–65 years old; between 66–70 years old; between 71–75 years old; 75 years old and older), place of residence (village; town up to 50,000 residents; town/city with more than 50,000 residents), and education (tertiary; secondary; primary). In addition, the participants were asked about the duration of learning English throughout their life, and during English courses for third agers. The subjects were also to report their knowledge of foreign languages other than English. The questionnaire comprised four scales

(WTC in English, Intrinsic Motivation, Classroom Environment, and Teacher Immediacy), and responses to their items were given on a six-point Likert scale ranging from 1—*I strongly disagree* to 6—*I strongly agree*.

In order to measure readiness to communicate in English in the classroom, an in-class WTC in English scale was used (Peng & Woodrow, 2010). The aim of this instrument was to investigate seniors' WTC in English both in meaning-focused and form-focused activities, as well as to confirm whether tasks based on meaningful communication would shape a higher level of WTC when compared to tasks based on forms. The whole 10-item instrument was utilized in the questionnaire. Sample items included: "I am willing to do a role play standing in front of the class in English (e.g., ordering food in a restaurant)," "I am willing to ask my group mates in English how to pronounce a word in English." One item was rewritten so that it could refer to the Polish context, and "Chinese" was replaced with "Polish," namely, "I am willing to translate a spoken utterance from Polish into English in my group."

Another instrument was intrinsic motivation (Noels et al., 2001). This 9-item scale was adapted to determine senior learners' intrinsic motivation to learn English, and to examine whether the subjects would be mainly encouraged and motivated by the ability to communicate in English in and outside the classroom. The tool originally referred to French, and thus this language was changed into English, as for instance in the following item: "For the pleasure that I experience on knowing more about English literature." The main question to all items was changed to "Why are you learning English in your senior age?" Six original items were used. Sample items were: "For the enjoyment I experience when I grasp a difficult construct on English," "For the satisfied feeling I get in finding out new things." Three item were excluded as they were unsuitable in the case of third agers, for example: "For the pleasure I experience when I surpass myself in English studies." In order to adapt the scale to specific seniors' motives to learn English, three new items were added: "For the pleasure I experience when I can use English abroad," "For the satisfaction I feel when I communicate in English during classes," "For the high I experience when I can use newly learnt vocabulary."

Another scale, Classroom Environment (Fraser, Fisher, & McRobbie, 1996) aimed to provide information about task orientation, group cohesiveness, and teacher support. In this study, task orientation was excluded as the main objective was to scrutinize how relationships between the older learners and their peers (group cohesiveness), as well as between the seniors and the teacher (teacher support) would influence in-class WTC. This instrument was also to indicate which statements subcategorized as group cohesion, and teacher support, would be reported to have the highest means, and to be of the greatest importance for the subjects. Four items measuring group cohesion were used, and sample items included: "I work well with other class members," "I help

other class members who are having trouble with their work." As regards teacher support, one item was eliminated, namely, "The teacher smiles at the class while talking," and two new items were constructed: "The teacher praises the students," and "The teacher creates a positive and supportive atmosphere during classes."

Teacher Immediacy Scale (Q. Zhang & Oetzel, 2006) was applied to estimate instructional immediacy, relational immediacy, and personal immediacy. As it was my intention to focus on a classroom setting, personal immediacy was excluded from the present study. This instrument was used to investigate the third agers' perceptions of the instructor's attitudes towards his or her teaching, and behaviors towards his or her students. Moreover, the scale was adapted to show the most crucial aspects of teacher immediacy in the case of senior learners. The examples of instructional immediacy were as follows: "The teacher is committed to teaching," "The teacher answers questions earnestly." Sample items of relational immediacy were: "The teacher treats students fairly and equally," "The teacher does not hurt students' self-respect."

The questionnaire was written in Polish, and all items were translated in Polish to eliminate the risk of being misunderstood by the respondents. As an initial step, it was given to one of the my colleagues who provided valuable feedback that helped to correct or paraphrase Polish translations in order to construct very clear statements. From a technical point of view, the survey was prepared to accommodate specific seniors' needs, that is, to reduce difficulties resulting from potential visual impairments. Therefore, the font size was 14 points, and in-between line space was 1.5 points (cf. Ramírez Gómez, 2016, 2019).

The study was conducted in January and February 2020. As far as the members of the Third Age University in Nowy Targ are concerned, the questionnaire was administered by Anna Borkowska who ensured the informants that all the data would be gathered and analyzed for research purposes only. The third age learners were also informed to ask questions in case they had any doubts or problems while filling out the questionnaire. When it comes to the third agers from Zakopane, the questionnaire was conducted by their teacher. The survey was completed during the seniors' regular class time, and it took the respondents approximately 15 minutes to fill out all the questions.

Once the questionnaires were collected and coded, Microsoft Excel was used to calculate the total means and standard deviations for all the items. The next step was the analysis of the scales. This was followed both by tallying Cronbach's alpha for each scale, and the Pearson correlation by means of appropriate formulas in Microsoft Excel.

Study Findings

The Analysis of Four Scales – The Internal Reliability, Means and Standard Deviations

As illustrated in Table 1, Cronbach's alpha for WTC in English, Intrinsic Motivation, and Classroom Environment were acceptable, and the internal reliability for Teacher Immediacy was good.

Table 1

The Means, Standard Deviations and Values of Cronbach's Alpha for WTC in English, Intrinsic Motivation, Classroom Environment and Teacher Immediacy

Scale	No. of items	M	SD	Cronbach's alpha
WTC in English	10	3.85	1.29	0.72
Intrinsic Motivation	9	4.57	0.76	0.76
Classroom Environment	9	5.49	0.63	0.74
Teacher Immediacy	11	5.78	0.43	0.85

The high mean was reported in Teacher Immediacy (M = 5.78), and the value of the standard deviation here was relatively low (SD = 0.43). The low standard deviation showed that the older learners' responses were rather homogenous and consistent. It seems reasonable to think that they found it enjoyable to spend their time in-class with the teacher since they accepted his or her teaching style and classroom management.

A relatively high mean was also declared in Classroom Environment (M = 5.49) which was intended to measure group cohesion and teacher support in the present study. The standard deviation was low amounting to 0.63. It transpires that the informants put an emphasis on interaction with peers and mutual help during English lessons. The third agers' process of learning strongly hinged upon teacher support.

As far as Intrinsic Motivation is concerned, the mean was 4.57, and the standard deviation was quite high (SD = 0.76). In essence, the students' answers were rather diverse, and each individual admitted to be motivated by different aspects of English learning. The most prominent motives will be analyzed in a further part of the article.

A relatively low mean (3.85) was found in WTC in English. Also, the value of standard deviation was rather high in this scale revealing the fact that the third agers' responses were very heterogeneous.

The Seniors' Classroom WTC in English

Table 2 indicates the means and the standard deviations for all individual items of the In-class WTC in English scale. As previously mentioned, the relatively low mean for all the scale was reported (M = 3.85). However, bearing in mind the fact that the instrument was subcategorized into meaning-focused and form-focused exercises, a more positive picture is brought to light.

Table 2

The Means and the Standard Deviations for in-class WTC in English (n = 30)

	No.	Item	M	SD
meaning-focused tasks	1.	I am willing to do a role play standing in front of the class in English (e.g. ordering food in a restaurant).	3.50	1.31
	2.	I am willing to give a short self-introduction without notes in English to the class.	4.10	1.11
	3.	I am willing to give a short speech in English to the class about my hometown with notes.	4.33	1.01
	4.	I am willing to translate a spoken utterance from Polish into English in my group.	4.93	0.73
	5.	I am willing to ask the teacher in English to repeat what he/she just said in English because I didn't understand.	3.87	1.48
	6.	I am willing to do a role play at my desk, with a peer (e.g. ordering food in a restaurant).	4.60	0.92
form-focused tasks	7.	I am willing to ask my peer sitting next to me in English the meaning of an English word.	3.67	1.64
	8.	I am willing to ask my group mates in English the meaning of word I do not know.	3.03	1.51
	9.	I am willing to ask my group mates in English how to pronounce a word in English.	3.00	1.51
	10.	I am willing to ask my peer sitting next to me in English how to say an English phrase to express the thoughts in English.	3.47	1.63
		Total	**3.85**	**1.29**

As presented in Table 3, WTC in meaning-focused activities was at a much higher level than in activities concentrated on form (Table 4).

Table 3

The Means and the Standard Deviations for Meaning-focused Exercises

Meaning-focused activities		
Item	M	SD
1	3.50	1.31
2	4.10	1.11
3	4.33	1.01
4	4.93	0.73
5	3.87	1.48
6	4.60	0.92
Total	**4.22**	**1.09**

Table 4

The Means and the Standard Deviations for Form-focused Exercises

Form-focused activities		
Item	M	SD
7	3.67	1.64
8	3.03	1.51
9	3.00	1.51
10	3.47	1.63
Total	**3.29**	**1.57**

The total mean in meaning-focused tasks was 4.22, and the standard deviation was reported to be 1.09. The highest mean was declared in item 4 concerning translation of a spoken utterance from Polish into English (Table 2). The next highest mean was obtained in item 6 "I am willing to do a role play at my desk, with a peer (e.g., ordering food in a restaurant)." It is worthwhile to note that the same role play performed in front of the class turned out to have the lowest mean (item 1, M = 3.50).

As far as form-focused tasks are concerned, the total mean was much lower (M = 3.29) than in meaning-focused activities. Also, as illustrated in Table 4, the value of the standard deviation was very high (SD = 1.57) which suggests a substantial difference between the subjects' responses. The highest mean in exercises based on grammar was declared in item seven "I am willing to ask my peer sitting next to me in English the meaning of an English word" (Table 2). The standard deviation was also the highest in this item (SD = 1.64).

The analysis presented in Table 2 revealed that the lowest means were reported in items 8 and 9 concerning asking groupmates in English about the pronunciation and meaning of an English word. It may be surmised that the

respondents were more likely to seek a desk partner's assistance regarding both the meaning of an English word and a phrase they needed to express (item 10).

The Most Prominent Aspects of Intrinsic Motivation, Classroom Environment and Teacher Immediacy among the Third Agers

It seems vital at this point to take a closer look at the respondents' motives to learn English at an advancing age. As shown in Table 5, the highest mean was obtained in item 4 "For the pleasure I experience when I can use English abroad." The seniors' answers were the most homogenous here (*SD* = 0.80).

Table 5

The Means and the Standard Deviations for Intrinsic Motivation (n = 30)

No.	Item	M	SD
1.	Because I enjoy the feeling of acquiring knowledge about the English community and their way of life.	3.50	1.34
2.	For the pleasure that I experience in knowing more about English literature.	3.47	1.50
3.	For the satisfied feeling I get in finding out new things.	4.97	0.84
4.	For the pleasure I experience when I can use English abroad.	5.23	0.80
5.	For the satisfaction I feel when I communicate in English during classes.	5.13	0.88
6.	For pleasure I get from hearing English spoken by English people/ foreigners.	4.63	1.25
7.	For the high I experience when I can use newly learnt vocabulary.	5.03	1.02
8.	For the enjoyment I experience when I grasp a difficult construct in English.	4.70	1.07
9.	For the satisfaction I feel when I am in the process of accomplishing difficult exercises in English.	4.50	1.23
	Total	**4.57**	**1.10**

Another noteworthy item was item 5 "For the satisfaction I feel when I communicate in English during classes" (M = 5.13). Apparently, the participants realized that using newly learnt vocabulary (item 7, M = 5.03) was at the heart of real-life communicative behaviors. What is also not to be neglected is that the subjects had a genuine interest in finding out new things (item 3, *M* = 4.97). It may be deduced that they were open to taking full advantage of English classes with regard to acquiring new knowledge.

When it comes to the Classroom Environment scale, as can be seen in Table 6, it was subcategorized into group cohesion and teacher support. The highest mean in the first category was reported in item 2 "I am friendly to members of this class."

Table 6

The Means and the Standard Deviations for Classroom Environment (n = 30)

	No.	Item	M	SD
group cohesiveness	1.	I work well with other class members.	5.30	0.64
	2.	I am friendly to members of this class.	5.50	0.62
	3.	I make friends among students in this class.	4.97	0.84
	4.	I help other class members who are having trouble with their work.	5.07	1.06
teacher support	5.	The teacher is patient in teaching.	5.83	0.37
	6.	The teacher provides a timely response to students' concerns.	5.70	0.53
	7.	The teacher praises the students.	5.60	0.61
	8.	The teacher creates a positive and supportive atmosphere during classes.	5.90	0.30
	9.	The teacher asks questions that solicit viewpoints or opinions.	5.53	0.63
		Total	**5.49**	**0.63**

One of the most significant items was statement 1 "I work well with other class members." As regards teacher support, creating a friendly atmosphere was perceived as being crucial (item 8, M = 5.90). The seniors' answers here were the most unanimous (SD = 0.30). It should also be noted that the students placed emphasis on the instructor's patience (item 5, M = 5.83). Closely tied to this is the issue of quick reactions to potential learners' concerns (item 6, M = 5.70). It also turned out that the informants gave priority to being praised during classes (item 7, M = 5.60).

The last scale, Teacher Immediacy, was also divided into two categories, namely, instructional and relational immediacy. Table 7 illustrates the means and standard deviations for all items.

Table 7

The Means and the Standard Deviations for Teacher Immediacy (n = 30)

	No.	Item	M	SD
instructional immediacy	1.	The teacher is committed to teaching.	5.83	0.37
	2.	The teacher is well-prepared in teaching.	5.90	0.30
	3.	The teacher is passionate about teaching.	5.80	0.40
	4.	The teacher answers questions earnestly.	5.80	0.40
	5.	The teacher is patient in teaching.	5.83	0.37
relational immediacy	6.	The teacher understands students.	5.73	0.44
	7.	The teacher treats students fairly and equally.	5.77	0.42
	8.	The teacher respects students.	5.67	0.54
	9.	The teacher does not hurt students' self-esteem.	5.80	0.40
	10.	The teacher encourages students.	5.70	0.53
	11.	The teacher provides timely response to students' concerns.	5.70	0.53
		Total	**5.78**	**0.43**

What needs to be noted here is that there were only slight discrepancies between the items. This essentially means that the older learners demonstrated explicit and consistent views about their educators. The highest mean (5.90) was obtained in item 2 "The teacher is well-prepared in teaching" in the first category. As mentioned earlier, patience was of great value, and the data revealed that commitment and passion to teaching played key roles (item 1 and 3). The respondents admitted that the teacher should answer questions earnestly (M = 5.80). Taking a rapport between the teacher and the learners into account, the strongest item was associated with students' self-esteem (item 9, M = 5.80), and the teacher's ability to be understanding (item 6, M = 5.73). One of the most eminent statements was also item 7 "The teacher treats students fairly and equally." To a large degree, a sense of fairness indicates the teacher's professionalism, empathy, and a positive approach to the students.

Correlations among Four Factors

As shown in Table 8, only positive corrections between In-WTC in English (WTC), Intrinsic Motivation (IM), Classroom Environment (CE), and Teacher Immediacy (TI) were revealed.

Table 8

Correlations among the Four Factors—Values of Pearson's r

	WTC	*IM*	*CE*	*TI*
WTC	1	0.63	0.55	0.27
IM	0.63	1	0.50	0.38
CE	0.55	0.50	1	0.71
TI	0.27	0.38	0.71	1

The strongest correlation was found between CE and TI (r = 0.71). Another positive and strong correlation was reported between WTC and IM (r = 0.63). Also, CE and WTC indicated a high-degree of positive correlation (r = 0.55).

Similarly, the data revealed a relatively strong correlation between CE and IM (r = 0.50) which may suggest that a classroom environment had a potent influence on IM. The moderate correlation coefficient was obtained between IM and TI (r = 0.38), and the weakest relationship was reported between WTC and TI (r = 0.27).

Discussion

The pilot study presented in this paper sheds some light on the seniors' in-class WTC in English. As shown by the results, the subjects' readiness to speak English in the classroom setting was relatively low, and their responses were very heterogeneous. A possible reason for this could be a discrepancy between their educators' teaching style, and the amount of student talking time provided. The data analysis also indicated that the third agers were more eager to communicate in meaning-focused exercises, which confirms the fact that they are primarily interested in improving communicative skills, and less so in working on grammar-based tasks (e.g., Gabryś-Barker, 2018; Jaroszewska, 2013; Singleton, 2018). The present finding is not in line with Peng and Woodrow's (2010) study. The scholars manifested that Chinese university students were more actively involved in form-focused activities as they are generally exam-oriented students. Additionally, from a cultural perspective, they tend to avoid spontaneous interaction because it may generate fear of losing face or a risk of humiliation (cf. Peng, 2014; Simpson, 2008; Wen & Clément, 2003).

The present study also depicts that translation played an eminent role in fostering in-class eagerness to speak English since translation of a spoken utterance from Polish into English was reported to have the highest mean in

meaning-focused items. One plausible explanation for this is that the third agers found translating an effective language learning technique. This might derive from the fact that the participants were accustomed to this technique as it was commonly used in a classical method when the seniors attended formal education (cf. Grotek, 2018; Ramírez Gómez, 2016). In didactic practice, when an older adult representing A1 or A2 level is asked a question in English, he or she tends to translate the question. They are also most likely to say the beginning of their answer in Polish out loud before actually responding in English. This observation is of great importance since it helps to understand seniors' language learning process in a broader dimension.

Noteworthy is also the fact that the third age learners' WTC was at a higher level in dyads than in whole-class tasks both in meaning-focused and form-focused exercises. Such a view is supported by previous studies (e.g., Fushino, 2010; Mystkowska-Wiertelak, 2016; Riasati, 2018) which suggest that working in pairs gives a sense of security, particularly when a partner is familiar, cooperative, and open to share opinions. The interlocutors' in-class behaviors have a significant impact on shaping WTC, and in the case of older learners, this form of communication provides space to build good relationships among peers who principally seek company during classes (cf. Niżegorodcew, 2016; Pawlak et al., 2018; Szarota, 2014). In a general sense, older students are prone to treat learning as a social activity, and working with a peer is beneficial both on a personal and at an educational level. As outlined by Matusz and Rakowska (2019), older adults experience a feeling of discomfort while speaking English. Therefore, it seems essential to offer them communicative opportunities to interact in pairs since older learners are typically eager to work with a partner they like and sit with at one desk (e.g., Grotek, 2018).

When it comes to intrinsic motivation, the third agers were mainly motivated by the fact the they could use English abroad. They also felt satisfied to communicate in English during classes. The results lent some support to the fact that authentic communication and real-life communicative exercises performed in-class play a pivotal role in English learning in the case of senior students (e.g., Piechurska-Kuciel & Szyszka, 2018; Niżegorodcew, 2018). It may be concluded at this juncture that the core motivation to learn English at a senior age is closely related to oral interaction in English. The participants seemed to be aware of the fact that before actual communication outside the classroom occurs, one needs to practice speaking in-class and have opportunities to use newly learnt vocabulary (cf. Oxford, 2018).

This research also indicated that the seniors found group cohesion fundamental, particularly with respect to a good cooperation with class members. This is inconsistent with a study by Pawlak et al. (2018) in which the third agers tended to have a difficulty in interacting with others. One reason for this discrepancy may be that much attention was placed on a friendly attitude

towards groupmates which may have resulted in positive views of peer cooperation inside the classroom. Furthermore, the role of the language instructor was of unquestionable relevance. The students appreciated encouragement and support manifested through praise, and by addressing their linguistic problems. As a matter of fact, the most paramount factor regarding teacher support was creating a relaxed atmosphere during English classes because it served as an anchor to develop and practice conversation skills (cf. Derenowski, 2018; Pot et al., 2018; Ramírez Gómez, 2016).

Similarly, the subjects underscored the significance of the teacher's professionalism and patience which, as stressed in this study, were declared to be the most substantial aspects of instructional teacher immediacy. This seems to support the standpoint held by Jaroszewska (2013) and Grotek (2018), who demonstrate that the most desirable characteristics of educators working with older adults are patience and professional commitment. As far as relational teacher immediacy is concerned, the teacher ought not to hurt the seniors' self-esteem. He or she should also be capable of treating the students fairly and understanding their needs. Fairness as such, however, was not considered to be an imperative in Derenowski's (2018) study as the teacher is an authority for seniors, and his or her judgment ought not to be questioned in-class.

It should be stated explicitly here that the awareness of potential mental limitations is of great value for the teacher who may flexibly adapt his or her verbal and non-verbal in-class behaviors as to facilitate older learners' process of learning (e.g., Grotek, 2018; Larrotta, 2019). Third agers experience a decline in general cognitive functioning which may result in the slowing down of mental processes and a struggle to acquire new skills (e.g., Pfenninger & Polz, 2018; Stuart-Hamilton, 2012). In consequence, it seems clear that they should be assured regularly about their ability to be a successful English speaker as they are likely to undermine their linguistic abilities and memory (e.g., Oxford, 2018; Singleton, 2018).

Rather unsurprisingly, the strongest positive correlation was found between the older adults' in-class WTC in English and intrinsic motivation. As already outlined, the major motive to learn English at a senior age was to improve communicative skills, and this may be the reason why a high-degree of positive correlation was reported between WTC and intrinsic motivation in the present study. Clearly, intrinsic motivation had a potent effect on WTC in the classroom because it involves learners' behaviors that are enjoyable, and they may challenge an individual's language competence (cf. Noels, 2001). In a similar manner, Hashimoto (2002) and Riasati (2018) emphasize that students' eagerness to speak increases as their motivation to learn a foreign language rises.

What can also be seen from the data analysis is a moderate uphill relationship between in-class WTC and classroom environment. These results are consistent with the idea that a good rapport between peers, as well as the teacher

and students is viewed to be a beneficial factor fostering WTC inside the classroom (e.g., Cao, 2011; Mystkowska-Wiertelak & Pawlak, 2017; Zarrinabadi, 2014). Familiarity with groupmates and peers' active engagement in task performance may boost learners' WTC since it reduces fear of speaking a second language (e.g., Cao & Philp, 2006; Kang, 2005). Interestingly, an individual's readiness to communicate may also be underpinned by groupmates' positive perceptions of interlocutors' participation. This effective cooperation leads to successful completion of an activity (J. Zhang et al., 2018). When it comes to the teacher, he or she plays a pivotal role in creating a safe classroom climate which pushes in-class WTC (e.g., Eddy-U, 2015; Riasati, 2012). As evidenced in the previous studies, educator support appears to reduce the distance and enhance close relationships between and with students. This is especially vital in the seniors' language classroom because this age group is susceptible to feelings of insecurity and a fear of losing face (e.g., Cao, 2011; Derenowski, 2018; Grotek, 2018; Riasati & Rahimi, 2018). More meaningful and trustworthy relationships established during a language course for senior learners have a great potential to increase the quality of life, and learning a second language as such may be recognized as a positive ageing strategy targeted towards seniors' linguistic accomplishments and positive emotions (cf. Konieczna-Woźniak, 2013; Oxford, 2018; Sigelman & Rider, 2015).

The final comment concerns teacher immediacy, and its weak positive correlation with in-class eagerness to speak in English. It may be hypothesized at this point that seniors were experienced enough to realize that learning starts with a learner, and a desire to speak English comes mainly from a sense of duty (cf. Pawlak et al., 2018; Piechurska-Kuciel, 2014; Piechurska-Kuciel & Szyszka, 2018). In the case of older learners, attending an English course basically means setting their heart on real-life communication which starts in-class, and is of practical relevance outside the classroom. Therefore, each communicative opportunity ought to be treated as a step towards achieving older adults' linguistic goals (cf. MacIntyre et al., 1998).

Limitations of the Study

The present pilot study was limited in terms of the relatively small sample size, as well as the location of the third age universities. Nowy Targ and Zakopane are towns in the south of Poland. Their residents frequently emigrate to English-speaking countries or they are likely to visit their friends and families abroad. Moreover, Zakopane as a ski resort and a popular destination among foreigners is typically visited by large numbers of English-speaking tourists.

Thus, senior citizens from Zakopane have a lot of communicative opportunities to speak English outside the classroom on a regular basis.

Taking these limitations into account, I aim to extend the scope of the research and to investigate older adults' in-class WTC in English in other third age universities in Poland both in towns and cities. Hopefully, such an approach will not only help to determine readiness to speak English in classroom settings among third agers, but it will also provide sufficient data to analyze and compare WTC between members of the third age university in towns and cities in Poland.

Conclusions and Implications

In spite of its limitations, this small-scale study has yielded vital insights into the nature of senior learners' classroom WTC, and substantial factors that might shape an individual's eagerness to speak in English. The older students' in-class WTC mostly hinged upon their intrinsic motivation that strongly correlated with their oral involvement. As also demonstrated throughout the present paper, a non-threatening and friendly atmosphere was deemed to have a great effect on readiness to speak English. Significantly, a language instructor's teaching style needs to be based on a supportive attitude towards third age learners. As an initial step, the teacher is required to build and maintain a stress-free environment that enhances active in-class engagement. Another remarkable factor is boosting student talking time by offering opportunities to communicate and providing room for dyadic exercises that additionally promote cooperative behaviors. What this basically means is combining learner-centered and communicative approaches. Equally important is a patient and emphatic teacher who is capable of understanding third agers' specific needs with regards to their slower pace of learning, as well as adjustment to potentially new communicative techniques. Teacher support, which may be viewed as praising and constant encouragement, is also of unquestionable value as it leads to developing a positive view about the student's own linguistic abilities. In effect, age-advanced learners are likely to become not only more willing to communicate in-class in a second language, but also develop pragmatic skills they will be able to use outside the classroom in authentic interactions.

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Anna Borkowska

Zur Beziehung zwischen Kommunikationsbereitschaft in Englisch bei den Senioren und intrinsischer Motivation, Klassenklima und Nähe des Lehrers. Eine Pilotstudie

Zusammenfassung

Das Ziel des vorliegenden Beitrags ist es, die Ergebnisse der Studie über den Willen zur Kommunikation in englischer Sprache bei den Senioren darzustellen sowie die Beziehung zwischen Kommunikationsbereitschaft und intrinsischer Motivation, Klassenklima und Nähe des Lehrers unter die Lupe zu nehmen. Das Hauptinstrument der Untersuchung war ein

Fragebogen zur Erhebung von biografischen Angaben und mit vier Skalen zur Messung von Bereitschaft, im Klassenraum in Englisch zu kommunizieren (Peng und Woodrow, 2010), der intrinsischen Motivation (Noels, Clément und Pelletier, 2001), Klassenlima (Fraser, Fisher und McRobbie, 1996) und Nähe des Lehrers (Zhang und Oetzel, 2006).

Die Analyse ergab, dass die Lernenden im dritten Alter bei sinnbasierten Kommunikationsaufgaben eine höhere Kommunikationsbereitschaft gezeigt hatten als bei grammatischen Übungen. Das Ergebnis deutet darauf hin, dass die kommunikative Interaktion während des Lernprozesses bei älteren Erwachsenen von großer Wichtigkeit ist. Dementsprechend waren die Probanden offener für Gespräche in Zweiergruppen als für eine direkte Kommunikation mit der Lehrkraft. Daher kann davon ausgegangen werden, dass die Partnerarbeit ihr Selbstbewusstsein und Selbstvertrauen bei der Kommunikation in der Fremdsprache gestärkt hat. Erwähnenswert ist auch, dass intrinsische Motivation einen erheblichen Einfluss auf die Kommunikationsbereitschaft im Sprachunterricht hatte. Die Tatsache ist auf die grundlegenden Motive für das Englischlernen im Seniorenalter zurückzuführen. Dabei handelt es sich in erster Linie um die Kommunikation im Ausland und im Klassenraum. Darüber hinaus betonten die Studienteilnehmer die fundamentale Rolle des Lehrers, die im Wesentlichen darin besteht, die Lernenden im Prozess des Spracherwerbs zu fördern und für ein gutes Klassenklima zu sorgen.

Schlüsselwörter: Kommunikationsbereitschaft, Senioren, Motivation, Nähe des Lehrers

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Improving Student Engagement and Motivation: Perspectives of Iranian EFL Learners

Abstract

One critical problem most educators have possibly experienced is that some students drop out of school probably due to loss of enough motivation. Research indicates student engagement could not only increase motivation but help to sustain it at high levels. This relationship between these two constructs has already been researched quantitatively in language education. However, little research seems to have been done on exploring the ways of increasing student engagement and motivation in relation to each other using a qualitative design. The present study thus aimed at investigating the ways to improve student engagement as well as motivation with a qualitative design. The participants were 30 male, intermediate EFL learners of the Iran Language Institute (ILI) in Gorgan, Iran. These participants, selected through convenience sampling, attended the semi-structured interview sessions voluntarily. The findings of the study led to a model of determinants of student engagement and language learning motivation. These determinants include teacher behavior, teacher personality, and student behavior for student engagement, and teacher, self, and parents for language learning motivation. It is expected the outcomes will be to the benefit of language teachers, language learners, and materials developers.

Keywords: qualitative study, student engagement, language learning motivation, learner perspective

Motivation has been a hot topic for research in second and foreign language learning as it is one important factor playing a major role in the students' success (Brown, 2014; Dörnyei, 2001; Gardner, 2007). Loss of motivation is said to be the reason why some students quit school (Menken, 2010; Parvaresh, 2008). Accordingly, investigation into the motivating strategies among EFL learners can have benefits for language teachers and learners. Moreover, student engagement has been proved to help improve and sustain students' motivation at high levels (Ghelichli et al., 2020). Student engagement and motivation to learn have earned research interest for their impacts on both student achievement and dropout rates (Greene & Miller, 1996; Niemiec & Ryan, 2009). Hence, need arises as to explore ways of promoting students' motivation and engagement and make them assume ownership of their own language learning.

Language learning motivation can be defined as how much effort an individual exerts on language learning since the individual wishes for and gains satisfaction through it (Gardner, 1985). Dörnyei (2005) contended that motivation provides the initial impetus to begin language learning and subsequently accounts for why one continues the tedious process of language learning. Dörnyei believed that motivation is connected to all other factors playing a role in second or foreign language learning. In this study, language learning motivation has been informed by self-determination theory (SDT; Ryan & Deci, 2000), as consisting of intrinsic and extrinsic motivation.

Student engagement, on the other hand, may be defined as "the student's psychological investment in and effort directed toward learning, understanding, or mastering the knowledge, skills, or crafts that academic work is intended to promote" (Newmann, 1992, p. 12). In general, it pertains to involvement in the activities and tasks students do in school (Mercer & Dörnyei, 2018). Reeve (2012) provided a more exact definition for engagement as it "refers to the extent of a student's active involvement in a learning activity" (p. 150), or a "person's enthusiastic participation in a task" (Reeve et al., 2004, p. 147).

Research studies have been conducted on student engagement and motivation together in the same study with quantitative designs employing survey questionnaires or experiments (see, e.g., Ghelichli et al., 2020; Kanellopoulou & Giannakoulopoulos, 2020; Karimi & Sotoodeh, 2019; Oga-Baldwin & Nakata, 2017; Reeve & Lee, 2014; Xiong et al., 2015). However, as O´Flaherty and Phillips (2015) argued, "[c]onstructs such as engagement are not always easily reduced to measurable items on survey instruments or a reflection of examination performance and so warrant further investigation" (p. 94). In other words, in order to gain deeper understanding of the constructs like motivation and student engagement, other designs and data collection instruments are also needed. Accordingly, the novelty of the present study is that it has used another instrument, that is, interviews, and another research design, that is, the qualitative one, to investigate this relationship by inquiring about students' opinions of

the ways in which student engagement and language learning motivation could be enhanced. Therefore, the significance of this study lies in the fact that it could be one of the first few studies investigating the constructs in question using a qualitative design from the students' perspectives in the domain of language education.

The Theoretical Framework

The present study was based on self-determination theory (SDT; Ryan & Deci, 2000). SDT has achieved growing recognition as a plausible explanation for human motivation (McClelland, 2013). Employing empirical approaches, Deci and Ryan (2000) described SDT as an attitude to the student character and motivation, which is composed of three basic, psychological needs: autonomy, competence, and relatedness. This theory was adopted as the theoretical ground because it includes both constructs of the study—student engagement and language learning motivation. Moreover, engagement can be seen in terms of SDT, assuming "students' active involvement in and reflection on their own learning" (Nichols & Dawson, 2012, p. 471). To conclude, as Reeve (2012, pp. 151–152) maintained, an empirical study on student engagement and motivation can be conducted based on the principal theoretical framework informed by SDT.

Motivation, according to SDT, is seen as a construct based on the various causes or aims that result in a behavior. The most fundamental division is between intrinsic and extrinsic motivation. Intrinsic motivation refers to "the doing of an activity for its inherent satisfactions rather than for some separable consequence" (Ryan & Deci, 2000, p. 56). Simply put, one is intrinsically motivated to do something because the action itself brings joy and satisfaction for its doer. In contrast, extrinsic motivation could be seen as "a construct that pertains whenever an activity is done in order to attain some separable outcome" (Ryan & Deci, 2000, p. 60). In other words, an individual does an activity not for its enjoyment but for its instrumental value. Moreover, Deci and Ryan (2000) defined another similar condition related to the two abovementioned terms, that is, *amotivation*. Amotivation is defined as "a state in which people lack the intention to behave, and thus lack motivation" (Deci & Ryan, 2000, p. 237). Based on SDT, Deci and Ryan (2000) argued, individuals may be considered to be amotivated "when they lack either a sense of efficacy or a sense of control with respect to a desired outcome" (p. 237).

Student engagement is also seen as a kind of motivation involving emotional and cognitive processes, which develop gradually (Nichols & Dawson, 2012). According to SDT, all students, regardless of their age, gender, socio-

economic status, nationality, or cultural background, possess inherent growth tendencies (e.g., intrinsic motivation, curiosity, psychological needs) that provide a motivational foundation for their high-quality classroom engagement (Deci & Ryan, 1985, 2000). The dimensions of student engagement, however, might include various categories and terminologies. Four most recent ones, on which the present study has focused, include *emotional*, *behavioral*, *cognitive*, and *agentic engagement* (Reeve, 2012).

Research Description

This study aimed to explore the possible ways of increasing student engagement and motivation. The research question of the study was thus as follows:

RQ: What are the ways of increasing student engagement and language learning motivation from the students' perspectives in the Iranian EFL context?

Methodology

Participants

The participants were 30 male intermediate language learners learning English at the Iran Language Institute (ILI), a language institute located in Gorgan, Iran. Following the researchers' invitation for the interviews, these participants, aged between 14 and 19 years old, attended the interviews voluntarily. Their classes met twice a week in the evening. These participants, all native Persian speakers, were selected as they were available to the researchers. It needs to be noted that the language learners of the ILI adults' branch are mostly high school students, taking English as a Foreign Language (EFL) courses as an extracurricular activity during their teenage years.

Data Collection Instrument and Research Procedure

The semi-structured interview sessions were held in the teachers' office of the aforementioned institute when the teachers were busy teaching in the classrooms. However, the interviewer, the first author, had organized the interview

sessions in such a way that no interview was scheduled during the teachers' tea break between classes. Each day ten participants came for the interviews, which were arranged on three non-consecutive days. The interviews were audio-recorded, taking around 15 minutes or so each. All the participants in the interviews had already signed the informed consent forms prior to conducting the interviews. By the end of the third day, the interviewer felt that the data were about to achieve saturation; that is to say, the interviewees seemed to not have any new ideas different from those of the previous participants. On the whole, 30 participants were interviewed, all of whom were interviewed by the first researcher. The names of the interviewees were anonymized in order to keep their confidentiality.

Data Analysis

When transcribing the interviews, the researchers did not use verbatim transcription because the focus of the study was not on the syntactic or linguistic analysis of the data, but rather it was on the topic of the discussion. Therefore, it was not essential to transcribe every interview in detail; instead, a tape analysis was carried out (Dörnyei, 2007). In this approach, according to Dörnyei (2007), while the researcher is listening to the recordings, they take notes and possibly mark those parts of the data that could provide more elaborate subsequent analysis. The interviews were conducted in the students' native language, that is, Persian, so the transcription was in Persian, too. The translation into English was done at the point of giving codes to what topics the interviewees meant.

In order to conduct the data analysis, MAXQDA software, Pro 2018, was used. Since the questions were asked to elicit information from the participants regarding the possible ways of motivating and encouraging students in their language learning, a thematic analysis method, a typical qualitative analysis technique used in mixed methods research (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2018), was employed to allow for themes to emerge from the data. The interview data were thus analyzed through open coding for generating initial codes that emerged from the data. These initial codes were then grouped to generate categories or themes using the process of axial coding. The analysis was done to achieve saturation of identified themes and subthemes (Creswell, 2012). In the axial coding phase, the codes were put together in the same category or theme based on their connection and relevance. In the last phase, selective coding, the categories were analyzed to see if there existed any possible links between them. Finally, the themes were associated together to obtain a tentative model for the study.

Validity of the Qualitative Data

Validity of the qualitative data could be determined through several strategies, two of which are at least recommended by Creswell (2007). Accordingly, the present researchers adopted two of the strategies as they are the most popular and cost-effective. The first technique was member-checking, a frequently used strategy in which the researcher takes accounts of the findings such as major themes back to main participants in the study and asks them whether the findings are an accurate reflection of their experiences (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2018, p. 173). The second strategy, as Creswell and Plano Clark (2018, p. 173) explained, was to ask others or peers to examine the data, that is, peer reviewing. In fact, the present researchers asked three faculty members who were familiar with qualitative research and the content area of the study to review the database and the qualitative results using their own criteria. Credibility of the findings was secured by member checking, inter-coder agreement, and the academic advisors and supervisor's auditing (Ary et al., 2010; Creswell, 2007).

Therefore, as for the first strategy, member checking, since the classes had been cancelled due to the COVID-19 pandemic, the interviewer (i.e., Yahya Ghelichli) had no way but using the phone to contact the participants. Thus, the interviewer obtained the participants' phone numbers from the staff of the ILI and called the interviewees. The interviewer asked them if he understood what the participants meant properly. Almost all the participants agreed that the interviewer grasped correctly what they said and what they wanted to convey. Second, the interviewer consulted some colleagues of his by asking them to examine the codes and categories or themes that the researchers came up with while analyzing the qualitative data. In so doing, the interviewer took a number of screenshots of the interview texts or transcriptions and emailed them to three of his colleagues. Except for a few minor modifications, the interviewer got his colleagues' approval. In fact, the cases over which there was disagreement were discussed and the concepts were clarified. Accordingly, the validity, or trustworthiness and credibility of the qualitative analysis of the data were checked through the ways recommended by Creswell (2007), and Creswell and Plano Clark (2018). Reliability plays a minor part in qualitative research because the researcher focuses on the value of their subjective interpretations (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2018).

Results and Discussion

Based on the outcomes of the study, it was observed that students enjoyed high levels of engagement because the different dimensions of their engagement were shown to be high. For example, most students said that they would like to engage in class activities, however different their purposes or reasons were. Further, when the students indicated interest to welcome challenge, it could mean that they would like to engage in activities that tax their mental capacity. In other words, the students were interested to be involved in tasks which required them to solve a problem. Accordingly, these are proofs of high behavioral and cognitive engagement.

As for the other two dimensions, emotional and agentic engagement, the students showed high levels of engagement when they agreed with the sample items of each dimension. For instance, regarding emotional engagement, and the question whether they were interested in language learning, one participant, Reza said, "I have always been interested in language learning, so my parents enrolled me in language classes of institutes." Likewise, another participant, Nader stated "I really enjoy my English classes, especially if I like the teacher."[1] In total, 27 out of 30 students expressed great interest in language learning. As for agentic engagement, the participants were asked whether they expressed their wants and desires in class. About 25 out of 30 respondents stated that they would express their desires and preferences in class. These can thus be viewed as evidence of students' high levels of agentic engagement.

Having conducted the analyses of qualitative data, the researchers also came up with several guidelines to increase student engagement and language learning motivation from the students' perspective. In the interviews, the participants were asked to tell the interviewer their opinions regarding reasons for amotivation and ways of motivating students and increasing student engagement by focusing on their class participation. Class participation is said to be the objective manifestation of both behavioral engagement and cognitive engagement (Fredricks & McColskey, 2012). The interviewees mentioned three influential components or determinants of increasing students' motivation: self, parents, and teacher. In addition, what the interviewees suggested about teachers' ways of encouraging students to participate in class activities could be categorized into three main themes: teacher behavior, teacher personality, and learner behavior. A schematic representation of the emerged model of the study for promoting students' motivation and engagement is depicted in Figure 1.

[1] The participants' responses are quoted in the original.

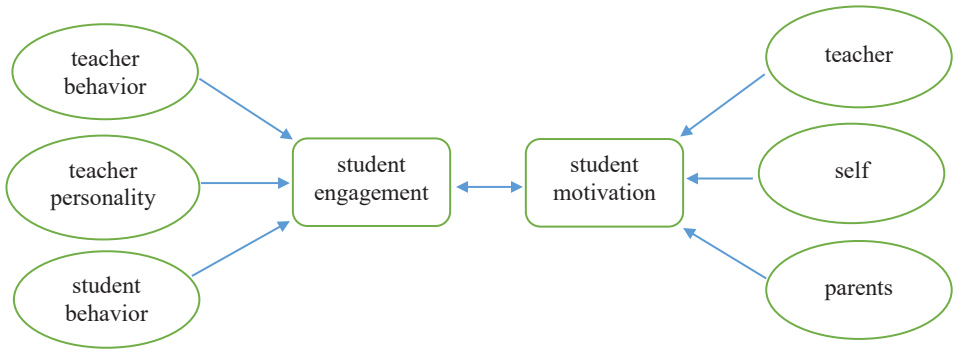

Figure. 1. The determinants of student engagement and motivation (Authors' own work).

Needless to say that these ideas were made by language learners from their own perspectives, so they may not be as comprehensive as it might be expected. A summary of the participants' suggestions is presented below.

How Students Can Motivate Themselves

The results of the interviews showed that students need to pursue their interests in order to stay motivated. About half of the interviewees, 14 out of 30 participants, believed that students should follow their interests such as listening to music, watching videos they like, etc. if they desire to be motivated. Alternatively, several interviewees believed that they should use the Internet to remain motivated: using YouTube and listening to podcasts. One participant, Rashid posited:

> I think we should pursue our hobbies like listening to our favorite singers or watching our favorite movies in the original language so that we can keep our motivation at higher levels or even increase this motivation. Of course, reading will help as well.

Others maintained that they need to have communications with their peers and native speakers. Another participant, Mehdi, expressed: "We need to listen to or watch native speakers speak. So I suggest using YouTube to watch such videos. Or we can download podcasts and listen to them later on." Finally, some others stated that students should think about their future, language benefits, good grades, and their future goals.

How Parents Can Motivate Their Children

The findings of the interviews with the participants showed that most participants agreed that parents should support their children. This support can be done financially or emotionally, for example, by showing satisfaction with what their children are doing in language learning. One participant, Masoud stated: "Sometimes I want to buy an English book or CD. My parents should give me the money to buy it." Other kinds of support include providing conditions, for example, sending the kids to language classes, giving rewards, or taking the kids on trips abroad. Another participant, Arsham said:

> I think if parents take their kids on trips to other countries, especially to an English speaking country, their children can become interested in language learning because their children can actually see what benefits knowing a second language may have.

Parents can also show their support through not being so strict and critical. Maziar expressed, "I don't like it when I fail and my parents put all the blame on me. I need their kindness and help in such a situation." Other interviewees were of the opinion that parents need to encourage their kids to read books or see movies in the original language, or to encourage them to get good grades. The last group believed that parents must talk with their kids about their future and about such topics as the uses, benefits, and significance of knowing a second or foreign language in the present century. This might seem rather unusual since many adults may think that teenagers do not tend to take their advice seriously. Hamid stated, "I believe that parents should talk to their kids about the advantages and importance of knowing a second language. Such advice, I think, will work in the long term."

How Teachers Can Motivate Students

Teacher's role is very prominent in motivating language learners. Dörnyei (2001) was of the view that teachers play a major part in doing so. However, they need to be equipped with the required skills in order to motivate language learners. As mentioned earlier, in the pilot study, the interview protocol was modified. For example, when the interviewees were asked how the students could be motivated, they talked about three main components: teachers, parents, and students themselves. But whose job is it really to motivate language learners? Dörnyei (2001) believed that "it is every teacher's [responsibility] who thinks of the *long-term* [emphasis original] development of his/her students" (p. 27). Therefore, this is discussed in more details.

One theme most students emphasized was that the teacher should use humor and fun in class. For instance, Ali said:

> I really enjoy the relaxed atmosphere the teacher creates in class. The teacher, for example, can use his sense of humor to make the class fun. In fact, if the class is fun and the atmosphere stress-free, I do want to come to class and learn.

Similarly, other participants maintained that the teacher should not be strict with them. For example, if students forget to do their assignments, he should not get angry with them. Instead, the teacher should understand the student and give him or her a second chance. Reza stated:

> Sometimes we're overloaded with school work and don't have enough time to do all homework for all sessions. If I feel that I would be blamed for not doing my homework, I may not be very interested to come to class in certain sessions.

When probed on this comment, Reza continued, "This harshness on the part of the teacher can in the long run result in my being uninterested in language learning." Other behaviors the students may not particularly like about their teacher include negative attitudes toward some students, the teacher's fearful threats, boring class, and weak class management.

Another theme that emerged from the interviews was related to the teacher's content knowledge. They believed that they are interested to attend the classes in which the teacher has broad enough knowledge about the language item or topic in question. Mehdi expressed, "When the teacher has a lot of knowledge about language grammar and vocabulary, I'm eager to attend his class because I think I'm not wasting my time." This extensive knowledge can turn the teacher into an academic authority in whom the students can put trust. And when the students trust their teacher, they could learn more and better (Larsen-Freeman & Anderson, 2013). This learning can in turn lead to an increase in the students' motivation. Simply put, the students must approve of and have trust in their teacher. Some other things the teacher can do to make students more interested and motivated include having eye contact with the students, calling them by their names, especially their first names, and moving about the classroom.

What most interviewees agreed upon teachers' way of motivating students was about the teacher's adoption of useful techniques in his methodology. For example, many believed that the teacher should have fun in class. Other suggestions included giving scores to students for their class activities, using L1 in teaching, especially in teaching grammar, using group work, employing games, and applying modern teaching methods. Ali posited, "Some grammar concepts

are difficult to understand in English, so I'd like the teacher to use Persian at times to explain the point in question." Some others maintained that the teacher should not ask too many questions. In fact, they felt that asking questions may concern them and prevent their participation. Some other students were of the opinion that the teacher should involve them in the activities done in class such as class discussions and decision making activities.

Some suggestions were made about the teacher's behavior and personality. For example, some students believed that the teacher should have a good rapport with the students and be committed to his or her profession. Dörnyei (2001, p. 31) also argued that the teacher behavior and his or her good relationship with the students can motivate them. Most of these kinds of suggestions indicated that the teacher should have a good temper and not be strict. Another series of suggestions were about what the teacher should do and talk about in class, including the teacher talking about students' future career, encouraging students by giving them rewards verbally and nonverbally, reminding the students of language benefits, and assigning homework to the students to do in or out of class. Regarding assignments, one interviewee, Mehdi, had an interesting idea. He stated:

> Teachers must give the students different types of homework to do in class and at home. I think if the homework is the same, there is the possibility that some students might be tempted to copy from each other, so there is no point in assigning homework to the students.

Some interviewees stated that if the teacher changes his or her teaching methodology for the better, some students may be motivated to study English harder. In other words, they were saying that students' motivation is connected to the teachers' style of teaching. In this regard, Amir expressed:

> The teacher's way of teaching becomes so unintelligible and boring at times. I mean we sometimes can't figure out what the teacher means. I believe the teacher must be able to change his teaching method when the students are puzzled so that he could attract the students' attention and help to solve their problems.

This is not surprising as Dörnyei (2001) also argued that effective teaching is crucial in motivating students. He reasoned that if the teaching methodology lacks clarity and students cannot understand what is being taught, learning motivation is unlikely to thrive.

The ways of motivating the language learners mentioned by the interviewees had already been emphasized by Dörnyei and Csizér (1998) as "ten commandments," for example, creating a pleasant, relaxed atmosphere in the

classroom, developing a good relationship with the learners, or making the language classes interesting. Clearly, it goes without saying that the present study could not cover everything about language learning motivation. In fact, it was not feasible to explore language learning motivation from all aspects. Thus, it focused on the roles of three players—teachers, parents, and learners—in motivating language learners. Others may have influences on the students' motivation, which were regarded as being beyond the scope of this study.

Why Some Students Lack Motivation (Amotivation)

The rationale for incorporating the concept of amotivation in the interview protocol was the notion that if reasons for the language learners' lack of interest and motivation are identified, they can be better helped to be motivated in language learning. Moreover, since amotivation is identified in SDT as another dimension of motivation (Ryan & Deci, 2000), this topic was also explored by the researchers in the interviews.

The reasons articulated by the participants for amotivation could be classified into three categories: *educational issues*, *learner issues*, and *family issues*. As for educational issues, most interviewees believed that students are not motivated because they think language learning is difficult. One participant, Shayan, stated, "I think because language learning is difficult, some students are not interested in it. Specifically, I myself have problem understanding some grammar points." Other reasons include boring classes, first poor teacher, lack of technology use and interesting materials in the classes, and teacher-centered classes.

Regarding learner issues, many interviewees stated that because some students are poor in learning, they are not interested in language learning. Another reason stated by many was that some students may not know about language uses and benefits. Several other interviewees expressed that some students might have had bad experiences in their early periods of language learning. Other participants in the interviews enumerated some other reasons such as being aimless, lazy, and shy.

As for family issues, most interviewees were of the view that parents' pressure in sending their children to language classes forcefully could be the main reason for students' amotivation. Alireza said, "Some parents send their kids to language classes by force. And since some kids are slow in language learning, they become frustrated and have no motivation to continue at all." Other participants believed that familial problems in not providing the proper conditions for the students' language learning can account for some students' amotivation.

How Student Engagement Can Be Increased

In order to inquire about the interviewees' opinions regarding the ways of promoting student engagement, they were asked what their opinions were about class participation. Class participation, as stated earlier, is viewed as an indicator of behavioral engagement, the most obvious form of student engagement since it is action-oriented (Reschly & Christenson, 2012). Furthermore, Skinner and Pitzer (2012) reasoned that students' actions and interactions with the academic tasks may be seen as indicators of student engagement as well. Moreover, class participation, according to Fredricks and McColskey (2012), is an indicator of both behavioral and cognitive engagement. To whatever dimension of student engagement they belong, these actions or behaviors boil down to be seen as student engagement on the whole.

As mentioned earlier (see Figure 1), three main themes related to student engagement emerged: *teacher behavior*, *teacher personality*, and *learner behavior*. Regarding teacher behavior, most students believed that in order to encourage students to participate in class activities teachers should consider scores for students' participation. One interviewee, Arad said:

> Teachers can encourage students to take part in class activities by explicitly announcing that any correct answer can have a point or score for the respondent. I feel such incentives can encourage students to participate more in class activities. Students are even satisfied with the teacher verbal compliments.

Other suggestions include selecting students' favorite topics, asking questions, assigning activities such as presentations to the students, reducing students' stress, valuing their participation, and not highlighting their mistakes. Another participant, Asghar stated, "Teachers should ask questions of different levels of difficulty so that even poor students can sometimes answer some questions."

As for teacher personality, interviewees believed that the teacher should be fair, cooperative, supportive, active, and energetic in class. One interviewee, Taghi argued:

> The teacher himself should teach energetically and enthusiastically so that the students are encouraged to listen to him attentively and participation is increased. When the teacher has passion for teaching, this can be felt by the students. Also, he should treat students in a fair way.

They also believed that the teacher should be approachable so that the students can develop a good rapport with their teacher. These two quali-

ties—being approachable and developing relationship—was also suggested by Dörnyei (2001) as attributes of an effective teacher. For instance, Saeed stated, "I sometimes have questions and need more explanations, but I'm afraid of the teacher." It implies that students like Saeed could raise their questions or ask for more elaborations in class if they had a better relationship with the teacher.

Still some other participants held that participation in class activities requires providing a few prerequisite conditions. For example, Pedram maintained:

> Class activities should be done under the teacher supervision. Besides, it's better to do these tasks in groups so that we can help each other. The teacher should also walk around the class while he's monitoring the students in case a group needs guidance.

On the other hand, given learner behavior, they also believed that learners should be sociable, and have enough knowledge about the topic, and be interested in class participation activities. One interviewee, Nader expressed:

> Some students are too shy to ask their questions or volunteer for an activity. I myself should know about the topic in question so that I can take part in the activity. At times, I prefer not to participate because I'm not sure about my answer. Other times, I don't like the topic.

Since class participation is seen as indicative of student engagement, the interviewees were questioned about how to increase such participation. They focused on the three notions of teacher behavior, teacher personality, and learner behavior, each of which was described in the above lines.

In summary, as the findings indicate, it can be inferred that the more engaged the students are, the more motivated they become. When students are engaged, they can enter into friendships and form peer groups with their classmates who are more engaged in school (Skinner & Pitzer, 2012). In addition, teachers' reactions to more engaged students are more supportive. Analyses of the data indicated that students' emotional engagement could be measured through their interest in language learning. Hence, when students show interest in language learning, it means they are taking pleasure from being in such environments, which will result in an increase in their sense of belonging. In general, when students become more engaged, their sense of belonging becomes stronger (Juvonen et al., 2012). And this stronger sense of belonging and ownership will help students to become more motivated to learn (Brooks et al., 2012). In short, the increase in the sense of belonging will lead to an increase in the students' motivational levels.

Based on the results of the present study, one thing teachers can do is assign problem solving activities to their students which help them reach that level of confidence to do the tasks on their own or in the company of others. When students achieve their desired outcomes, they become motivated through the regulation of their actions and behaviors (Bandura, 1999). Hence, if the students are provided with challenging tasks they would feel efficacious. When students feel more efficacious, according to Lam et al. (2012), they would be more engaged in school activities. Research has shown that there is a strong positive association between student engagement and self-efficacy (Lam et al., 2012). So one way of promoting student engagement is increasing students' self-efficacy. In other words, if students believe that they are capable of successfully accomplishing a task, they become more engaged. Therefore, teachers can adopt instructional practices that help students to master challenging tasks, which will increase students' self-efficacy. And this increase in self-efficacy, Lam et al. argued, will lead to an increase in student engagement in the instructional contexts in which such tasks are provided.

According to SDT, when students perceive that their school can meet their psychological needs for autonomy, competence, and relatedness, they become more engaged in school activities (Connell, 1990, as cited in Rumberger & Rotermund, 2012; Fredricks & McColsky, 2012). Hence, school authorities and/or teachers need to provide a school setting where such needs can be met. For example, if teachers create a caring and supportive environment, students' need for relatedness can be satisfied. The students' need for autonomy is met when they are given a choice. And their need for competence is met when their self-efficacy is promoted through making them believe achieving the desired ends is possible (Fredricks et al., 2004).

Another way of increasing student engagement is to involve students in learning tasks because such tasks can be inherently satisfying (Davis & McPartland, 2012). When students enjoy doing the task, for example, reading novels in their spare time or as a school task, this pleasure, as Davis and McPartland (2012) put, can result in more motivation. Accordingly, when instructional tasks bring pleasure for the students, the level of motivation would be promoted due to the enjoyment and satisfaction obtained from completing these activities.

One more thing mentioned by the interviewees to promote student engagement is the teachers' good rapport with the students. When students have a personal and respectful relationship with the teachers and administrators in a school they are likely to be more engaged (Davis & McPartland, 2012). However, teachers may not know students well unless the class size is small. Therefore, it is suggested that the class size be kept small enough for the teacher to know all the students in order to maintain a close relationship with individual students.

The relationship between language learning motivation and student engagement can also be reciprocal. That is to say, if students are motivated, they are more engaged in doing learning tasks (Guthrie et al., 2012). Similarly, Dörnyei (2001) was of the opinion that when students are involved in doing instructional tasks, they become more motivated. He contended that it is the teacher's job to provide the students with such tasks to increase students' involvement.

Teachers need to know that students may be less engaged if they are passively receiving knowledge, for example, when they are listening to the teacher lecturing (Yazzie-Mintz & McCormick, 2012). Thus, teachers should use instructional methods in which they can have students work and learn with peers. In fact, students should be active participants in their own learning. Moreover, the most tangible dimension of student engagement is behavioral engagement, in which attendance and homework completion can be observed (Fredericks & McColsky, 2012). However, emotional and cognitive engagements are not directly observable and need to be inferred from the students' behaviors.

Conclusion

The current study was conducted on the two constructs of student engagement and motivation by using interviews as an instrument for data collection. Further studies can employ other methods such as observation to delve more into the linkage of these constructs. In addition, the participants in this study comprised male intermediate EFL learners. Future studies can focus on language learners of other levels of language proficiency and/or of the opposite gender. To sum it up, as Dörnyei (2018) indicated, student engagement can be viewed as a novel, potential research avenue in the domain of language education.

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Die Förderung von Engagement und Motivation bei Studierenden: Perspektiven der iranischen EFL-Lernenden

Zusammenfassung

Das Ziel der vorliegenden Studie war es, die Methoden zur Förderung von Engagement und Motivation bei Studierenden aus der Perspektive von iranischen EFL-Lernenden zu untersuchen. Hierfür nahmen 30 EFL-Lernende an freiwilligen semistrukturierten Interviews teil. Daraus ergab sich ein Modell der Determinanten für Engagement der Studierenden und Sprachlernmotivation. Dazu gehören: das Lehrerverhalten, die Lehrerpersönlichkeit und das Lernerverhalten für das Engagement der Studierenden sowie der Lehrer, das Ich und die Eltern für die Sprachlernmotivation. Die Ergebnisse der Untersuchung können sowohl für Sprachlehrer und –lerner als auch für Autoren von Unterrichtsmaterialien nützlich sein. Abschließend wurden die pädagogischen Implikationen der Studie und Ansätze für weiterführende Forschung dargestellt.

Schlüsselwörter: qualitative Studie, Engagement der Studierenden, Sprachlernmotivation, Lernerperspektive

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Investigating the Roles of the Four Sources of Self-Efficacy Beliefs in an EFL Listening Context

Abstract

Research in the academic context has revealed the positive roles of self-efficacy in teaching and learning, showing that a thorough understanding of self-efficacy is essential. In this study, the relationships between the four principal sources and the formation of self-efficacy belief proposed by Bandura (1997) are examined in order to further this understanding. Based on this, several empirical studies have attempted to explore these relationships in various fields, but the relevant research appears to have produced insufficient empirical data in the field of language learning to support the theory. Therefore, this study aims to investigate how these sources affect basic self-efficacy (BSSE) and advanced skill self-efficacy (ASSE) classified according to the difficulty of listening tasks in English. As many as 107 Korean university students participated in the study and mediation analysis was employed to examine the relationships. The results show that all four sources act as mediators of BSSE, and all but physiological and emotional states serve as mediators of ASSE. The findings support Bandura's hypothesis and the pedagogical implications are discussed.

Keywords: four sources of self-efficacy, listening, self-efficacy, university students

Researchers have been interested in finding factors that could explain an individual's performance or achievements and noted that the self-efficacy beliefs held by an individual play a powerful role. Self-efficacy finds its framework in social cognitive theory and has been systematically described and established by Bandura (1986, 1997). Many subsequent studies in various contexts have examined the roles and effects of self-efficacy in several domains. There has been concerted effort and considerable progress in the explication of a comprehensive view of self-efficacy by incorporating other important domain specific variables, particularly in academic fields; student's academic interest (Kim, 2022), motivation (Kim, 2019; Prat-Sala & Redford,

2010), management of stress or anxiety (Macinytre, Noels, & Clement, 1997; Torres & Turner, 2016), self-regulation in learning (Kim, Wang, Bong, & Ahn, 2015; Pajares, 2009; Wang & Bai, 2017), academic achievements (Bai, Chao, & Wang, 2019; Bong & Skaalvik, 2003; Kim & Cha, 2017; Kim et al., 2015; Pajares & Urdan, 2006; Todaka, 2017.), etc. Most of the related studies suggest that self-efficacy is a powerful construct in motivational, affective, and behavioristic areas. What has been commonly indicated is that the more self-efficacy individuals have, the more likely they are to be active agents participating in their learning processes, thus those beliefs of self-efficacy that have been reinforced through learning experiences and information tend to produce positive outcomes (e.g., Bai et al., 2019; Kim et al., 2015, etc.). The formation of self-efficacy is, therefore, an urgent and important issue for students.

Given that the positive effects of self-efficacy on academic achievement are documented, it is necessary to enumerate and explore variables that are closely related to the development of self-efficacy beliefs. Bandura (1986, 1997) hypothesized that the four sources—enactive mastery experience (EME), vicarious experience (VE), verbal persuasion (VP), and physiological and emotional states (PES)—influence the level of self-efficacy. Although this hypothesis should be concretely supported by empirical data based on various samples so as to provide the ground for pedagogical implications, many studies still provide superficial information on these relationships, and there are not many subsequent studies (Usher & Pajares, 2008). It seems especially true in the field of language learning. Only a handful of recent studies have focused on the relationship between these four variables and self-efficacy, which is context-specific, and it still seems insufficient to verify the widely accepted assumptions and to elucidate their relationship. For this reason, this study aims to investigate the mediating roles of these four principal sources of information on self-efficacy beliefs in the context of listening and provide pedagogical insight. An important link between these four sources and the learning of English listening would establish a point of interaction that can be acted upon by instructors and learners themselves. This would essentially allow for the fine tuning of the learner's self-efficacy beliefs and by extension the maximization of academic performance in context-specific tasks.

Literature Review

Self-Efficacy Beliefs

According to social cognitive theory, human beings are not passively responsive beings, but rather active agents capable of affecting and changing their environments through self-organizing, self-regulating, and self-reflecting (Bandura, 2006a), allowing for the foundations of self-efficacy. Perceived self-efficacy in its definition is seen as "beliefs in one's capabilities to organize and execute the courses of action required to produce given attainments" (Bandura, 1997, p. 3). This definition is often taken as the explanation of the individuals' beliefs playing a pivotal role in their academic endeavors.

Individuals' efficacy reflects their beliefs regarding what or how well they are capable of doing or performing a specific task, rather than reflecting their actual, objective outcomes or performance (Bong & Skaalvik, 2003). According to Bandura (2006), individuals may have little motivation to take action without the belief that they can achieve the desired effects, or outcome expectations, indicating that self-efficacy is a major construct that underlies behavior. In other words, the self-efficacy an individual exhibits leads to particular patterns of behavior (Bandura 1997, 2006a; Bong & Skaalvik, 2003; Pajares, 2009; Stevens, Olivarez, Lan, & Tallent-Runnels, 2004; Wang & Pape, 2007). For example, those with higher self-efficacy tend to try harder when faced with complex or demanding tasks, whereas those with lower self-efficacy are more likely to quit (Bandura, 2006). This indicates that the level of self-efficacy likely affects the choices they make such as the amount of effort to put in and the length of their persistence in times of trouble (Pajares, 2009). It follows logically that such behavioristic patterns of self-efficacy influence learning outcomes (Graham, 2006; Vuong, Brown-Welty, & Tracz, 2010), making it a powerful predictor of students' performance.

Four Sources of Self-Efficacy and Related Studies

Bandura (1997) hypothesized that self-efficacy beliefs are constructed from four main sources of information—that is, EME, VE, VP, and PES. Each of these conveys information about an individual's capabilities and has their own set of efficacy indicators. He details the four sources as follows:

> EME is considered the most powerful source of information because success is the most direct and convincing evidence of an individuals' beliefs. Individuals can more strongly enhance self-efficacy beliefs gained through

experiencing achievements compared to those from cognitive self-knowledge structures that already exist. It should be noted that some difficulties in a task cause individuals to exert constant and sustained effort which, if successful, leads to a stronger EME. Individuals can learn how to deal with various tasks despite difficulties and gain the opportunities to learn from potential failures to achieve success.

An individual's sense of efficacy is partly affected by observing achievements made by others around them (e.g., teachers, classmates, or friends, etc.), which is called VE. It affects efficacy beliefs by allowing one to assess their own ability in relation to modeled attainments. it is seen as particularly persuasive, when the models' competence is similar to their own. In other words, by viewing and visualizing the attainments of others with similar abilities as their own, the observers are likely to perceive themselves as being able do it too.

VP is another source that further reinforces self-efficacy beliefs. Positive feedback of their performances or encouragement issued by their significant others has an impact on them maintaining and sustaining their efficacy beliefs. More specifically, positive verbal comments or evaluations can increase the mobilization of the individuals' effort and the duration that effort is sustained. If realistic and persuasive encouragement leads people to sustain their effort and strive for success, then self-affirming beliefs boost self-efficacy and skill development.

The somatic information produced by PES influences the self-judgment of one's capabilities. Often individuals perceive physiological activations or responses resulting from stress or difficult situations "as signs of vulnerability to dysfunction" (p. 106). Notably, the stress responses coming from unsuccessful control may generate additional stress through predictive self-arousal. Because a strong stimuli response can undermine performance, people tend to expect success more when feeling unaffected by a stimulus such as tension and visceral agitation. It should be noted that the effect of this on efficacy beliefs lies in how individuals interpret this arousal. For example, it has markedly different effects depending on whether the individual interprets the situation and their response as a challenge or a threat.

Individuals develop beliefs in personal efficacy which they constitute by weighing and integrating information obtained from these sources. The weights and integration assigned to these modes of efficacy information appear differently depending on their functional areas (Bandura, 1997), which is why self-efficacy beliefs are considered task-, domain- or context-specific (Bong & Skaavlik, 2003; Wang, Kim, Bai, & Hu, 2014).

Except for a few recent studies (e.g., Shehzad, Lashari, Lashari, & Hasan, 2020; Wang & Pape, 2007; Zhang & Ardasheva, 2019; Zuo & Wang, 2016, etc.), little research in language learning has an interest in the relationships between these four sources of information and self-efficacy beliefs, and the properties that come from such relationships. In a qualitative approach, Zuo and Wang (2016) explored the properties of the English self-efficacy beliefs of five Chinese doctoral students in the United States. They found several emerging factors that influence these participants' self-efficacy, which mostly correspond to the four main sources described by Bandura. For example, the main themes they found are the participants' past experience, social influence and persuasions from their peers and teachers, and PES. In addition, they also found other factors—such as self-awareness of English competence, task difficulty, and interest in English learning—as strong indicators of self-efficacy. Similar emerging themes were found in a study by Wang and Pape (2007) which examined self-efficacy and its factors—that is, English proficiency and task difficulty as perceived by the participants, VP, interest, and attitude toward English learning, the English speaking community, and social and cultural context—in three Chinese secondary students studying English in the same context. These two studies reveal some characteristics of these factors and suggest that there can be differences in the formation of self-efficacy depending on the individual's cultural background.

In the Hong Kong context, which can be seen as a collective and interdependent society, Bai et al. (2019) examined the relationship between self-efficacy, achievements in English, and VP—one of the four major sources—in 1,092 secondary school students learning English. They hypothesized that relatedness to important others such as parents, peers, and teachers may have a strong influence on their self-efficacy and English achievements. This study confirmed that VP gained from those kinds of people is a factor that influences the formation of self-efficacy despite its weak strength, indicating that having positive feedback and encouragement around assists them in becoming confident in English learning. Based on multiple regression analysis, Bai and his colleagues suggested that social support such as VP may work better as a facilitator which promotes students' self-efficacy beliefs, rather than working as a factor that directly affects English learning achievements.

In addition, Zhang and Ardasheva's (2019) study reveals how the relationship between these four sources and self-efficacy is dependent on domain and context, adding further support to Bandura's theory. They collected data from 263 students studying in six universities in China. The participants were required to make an English public speech at least once in the course. Their background can be characterized by three aspects; the existence of English public speech course experience (223 students were identified to

have taken the related course at least once, but the rest have never done so), gender (203 females vs. 60 males), and academic majors (173 students belonged to liberal arts vs. 90 belonged to sciences). According to the results, three major sources, except PES, were identified to have predictor values for overall self-efficacy beliefs in English public speaking. The most powerful source was EME, which is in keeping with other studies (e.g., Britner & Pajares, 2006; Shehzad et al., 2020, etc.) followed by VP, and VE. This study reveals that these four sources exhibited predictor values with different magnitudes according to the three different aspects, namely, course experience, gender, and majors. This implies that instructors need to have a better understanding of how these variables work in students' self-efficacy formation in their teaching context. Their study sheds some light on the nature of the theoretically established relationship, although more information is still required.

Reflecting on these findings, the four principal sources may have relationships that are similar but uniquely different depending on the task or domain. Grounded in Bandura's theory, the current study aims to further expand the scope of knowledge by exploring how self-efficacy, depending on task difficulty, is differently shaped by these four sources of information in Korean university students participating in an English listening course. More specifically, this study is interested in examining the individual mediating effect of each source on listening self-efficacy. The research questions are as follows;

RQ 1: Do the four sources play mediating roles in the development of BSSE (basic skill self-efficacy)?

RQ 2: Do the four sources play mediating roles in the development of ASSE (advanced skill self-efficacy)?

Methods

Participants

The participants in this study are Korean university students who were learning English as a foreign language (EFL), and the majority of them were first-year students studying at a local university, an approximate two-hour drive from Seoul. At the time of data collection, they were taking a 15-week course aimed at developing skills for TOEIC listening comprehension (LC), one of the compulsory modules in liberal arts. The participants were aged

18 to 24 (M = 19.2, $S.D.$ = 1.6) and had various majors. The purpose of this study was stated to the three classes taught by the author of this study, and many of the students voluntarily participated in the study. The information about the factors that would be mainly examined in this study was not specifically mentioned on purpose so as not to unduly influence the data. For the study, the data from 107 students who participated in both data collections were used.[1]

Instruments

Four sources of self-efficacy beliefs. A few tools exist to measure the amount of information from the four sources in other areas—the mathematics self-efficacy index (e.g., Lent, Lopez, & Bieschke, 1991; Matsui, Matsui, & Ohnishi, 1990, etc.) or the academic self-efficacy scale (Hampton & Mason, 2003), etc. Due to the context-specific nature of self-efficacy, it may be inadequate to employ these tools in the field of language learning as such scales may have little relevance in this area. This is supported by Bandura (2006b), claiming that the scale needs to be adjusted according to the area of interest for accurate measurement. Considering that language learning has little to do with mathematics or science education, 21 items for the four sources of self-efficacy beliefs in English listening were constructed based on the literature (e.g., Bandura, 1994, 1997; Bong & Skaalvik, 2003; Usher & Pajares, 2008; Wang & Pape, 2007; Wang et al., 2014, etc.). As shown in Table 1, the category of EME has seven items, followed by five for each VE and VP, and four for PES.

To ensure validity or whether these items were properly structured in terms of relevance, phrasing, and classification, a fellow researcher in the related field was consulted and the items were modified based on consensus. The reliability of each source was calculated using Cronbach's α which shows internal consistencies of the items of each category. The resulting coefficients are as follows; the seven items under EME (α = .87), the five each items under VE (α = .91) and under VP (α = .84), and the four items under PES (α = .81). They are high and all exceed an acceptance level, indicating that each set of items can be used as a tool to examine the respective sources.

[1] This study used part of a larger data set, some of which had been analyzed in another article (Kim, 2022).

Table 1

The items that belong to the four sources of information

	Enactive Mastery Experience (EME)
1	I have been doing well with the listening tasks given to me in the listening class.
2	I understand the listening text better now compared to at the beginning.
3	I worked hard to get good results in vocabulary quizzes for listening.
4	I am satisfied with the results of my vocabulary quizzes.
5	After overcoming difficulties and setbacks, I feel more confident in my listening ability.
6	Although there were times that I did not understand much, with perseverance I was eventually able to understand it.
7	I had difficulty listening to English, but I like the sense of accomplishment that comes from facing challenges and understanding.
	Vicarious experience (VE)
1	I feel that my classmates are like me. If they can do the listening tasks, I think I can do it, too.
2	I feel that I could concentrate more when I see my classmates focusing on the listening activities.
3	When I see my classmates able to correctly repeat whole sentences in class, I feel more confident to do it, too.
4	When I see my classmates find it easy to get a lot of information from the listening texts after going over them a few times, I feel I can do this, too.
5	When my classmates get good scores in vocabulary quizzes for listening by trying hard, I also tried hard to do so.
	Verbal persuasion (VP)
1	I work harder when my classmates tell me that I am good at listening.
2	I feel encouraged and work harder when the teacher tells our class that we are doing well.
3	I take it personally when the teacher tells us that our listening is improving.
4	I think the teacher is sincere when the teacher tells our class that we are working hard and improving.
5	My close friends (my significant others) praise my effort to improve my listening ability.
	Physiological and emotional states (PES)
1	I am upset if I don't understand the content, but I try to listen harder each time.
2	I feel nervous because the teacher might call my name in class, but this tension makes me more focused on listening activities.
3	The listening activity is fun, so I work harder.
4	If I can't hear what I'm listening to, I get nervous and listen harder.

Self-efficacy beliefs in listening. This study employed a ten-item questionnaire (α = .89) to measure self-efficacy beliefs in listening which was also used in a study by Kim (2022) since it is part of a larger project. Originally, the seven listening self-efficacy items were from an English Self-Efficacy Questionnaire constructed by Wang et al. (2014) and were adapted[2] with three items added to gauge self-efficacy that can possibly be improved through listening activities during class.

The scale has a two-factor structure; basic skill self-efficacy (BSSE) and advanced skill self-efficacy (ASSE) in listening. Items one through six belong to BSSE, and the remaining four items belong to ASSE (see Appendix 1), with Cronbach's alpha coefficients of .88 and .78, respectively; above an appropriate level.

The participants responded to the questionnaires, answering from one (strongly disagree) to six (strongly agree) and the descriptive statistics can be found in Table 2. Out of 495, the total score in TOEIC LC, the average score taken in the first week was 217.34. As this score shows, the English proficiency of the participants in this study is considered from beginner to low-intermediate. The mean score of the second test which was taken in the 12th week, was 259.35, showing their improvement in listening skills. A paired sample *t*-test revealed a significant difference between the two scores, $t(1, 106) = -10.03$, $p < .001$. The mean value of ASSE (*Mean* = 2.69) was about one point lower than that of BSSE (*Mean* = 3.68). They both showed improvement in the post-test—by approximately .32 and .51 for BSSE and ASSE, respectively.

Table 2

The descriptive statistics of the variables

Data collection / Variables	*n*	Pre-test Mean	Pre-test *S.D.*	Post-test Mean	Post-test *S.D.*
Listening scores	107	217.34	50.96	259.35	65.82
BSSE	107	3.68	.75	4.00	.81
ASSE	107	2.69	.78	3.20	.87
EME	107			3.95	.82
VE	107			4.01	1.01
VP	107			4.16	.91
PES	107			3.89	.93

Notes. BSSE = Basic skill self-efficacy, ASSE = Advanced skill self-efficacy, EME = enactive mastery experience, VE = vicarious experience, VP = verbal persuasion, PES = physiological and emotional states.

[2] Originally, there were eight items that belong to Listening self-efficacy in the study by Wang et al. (2014), but one of them—*Can you understand English TV programs made in China?*—was deliberately eliminated due to redundancy.

Data Analysis

This study examined the mediating effects of the four major sources for self-efficacy formation, using the four-step procedure for testing mediation by Baron and Kenny (1986). First, the effect of the independent variable on the criterion variable is examined (*c* in Figure 1). Second, the effect of the independent variable on the mediating variable is tested (*a*). Third, the jointed effects of the independent variable and mediating variable on the criterion variable are tested (*b*). Fourth, the beta values for the previous three models (*a, b, c*) should be significant and the beta value for the first step should be bigger than the one for the third step ($c > c'$). In order to calculate indirect effect coefficient,[3] a Sobel (1982) test was employed.

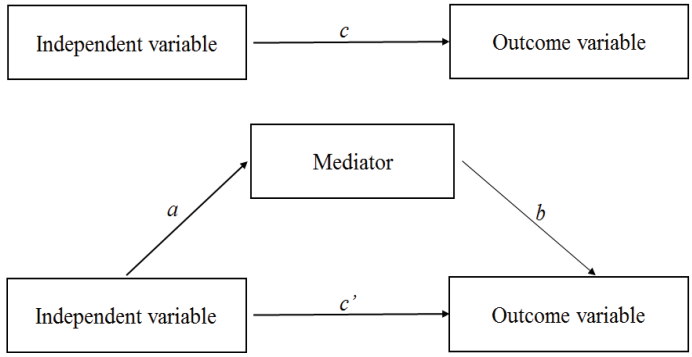


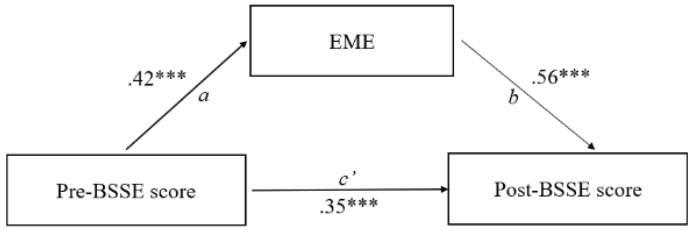
Figure 1. A causal chain in a mediation model adapted from Baron and Kenny (1986).

Results

This study aimed to explore the mediation effects of Bandura's (1997) four major sources of self-efficacy—EME, VE, VP, and PES—on BSSE and ASSE. RQ1 investigates the mediating effects of the principal sources on BSSE development and the results show that all four sources are serving as partial mediators for self-efficacy development in basic listening skills (see Figure 2). First with EME, a simple regression with the pre-BSSE score as an independent

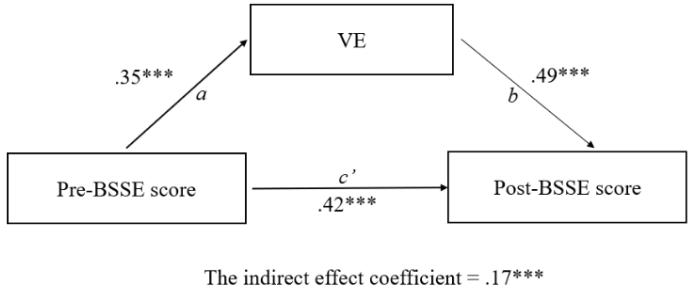
[3] According to the usual Cohen (1988) standards, .1 could be regarded to be small, .3 to be medium, .5 to be a large effect size. Kenny (2018), however, maintains that these values need to be squared since an indirect effect comes from two effects; namely, .01 for small, .09 for medium, .25 for a large effect size. This study follows his recommendation for recognizing the size of the effect of indirect effect coefficients.

variable and the post-BSSE score as a dependent variable is revealed to be significant (see Table 3); $F(1, 105) = 55.67$, $p < .001$, explaining 35% of the total variance ($\beta = .59$). Then, another simple regression is conducted to see if the pre-BSSE score predicts EME, and this model is found to be significant; $F(1, 105) = 23.06$, $p < .001$, explaining 18% of the total variance ($\beta = .42$). When a multiple regression is computed to see the joint effects of the BSSE pre-score and EME on the post-BSSE score, this model is also shown to be significant (see Table 4); $F(2, 104) = 79.46$, $p < .001$, explaining 60% of the total variance. Lastly, the condition that the standardized beta value ($\beta = .59$) in the first model is greater than that ($\beta = .35$) of the third model ($c > c'$ in Figure 1)—is satisfied. This indicates that EME works as a partial mediating variable in the development of BSSE. In addition, the Sobel test indicates that the indirect mediating effect coefficient of EME on BSSE development is .24, which can be considered a strong effect size ($z = 4.17$, $p < .001$). Figure 2 shows the causal chains including EME as a mediator in the development of BSSE.



Note. The numbers indicate standardized coefficient (beta)
*p < .05; **p < .01; ***p < .001

Figure 2. A causal chain including enactive mastery experience (EME) as a mediator on the development of Basic skill self-efficacy (BSSE).



Note. The numbers indicate standardized coefficient (beta)
*p < .05; **p < .01; ***p < .001

Figure 3. A causal chain including vicarious experience (VE) as a mediator on the development of BSSE.

Table 3

The simple regressions for the effect of Pre-BSSE, EME, VE, VP, and PES

	Dependent variable	Post-BSSE score				EME				VE				VP				PES			
	Standardized Coefficients	*β*	*t*	*p*	R^2	*β*	*t*	*p*	R^2	*β*	*t*	*p*	R^2	*β*	*t*	*p*	R^2	*β*	*t*	*p*	R^2
Independent variable	(Constant)		4.90	.00			6.30	.00			5.03	.00			7.39	.00			6.28	.00	
	Pre-BSSE score	.59	7.46	.00	.35	.42	4.80	.00	.18	.35	3.77	.00	.12	.22	2.28	.02	.05	.25	2.67	.01	.06

Notes. BSSE = Basic skill self-efficacy, ASSE = Advanced skill self-efficacy, EME = enactive mastery experience, VE = vicarious experience, VP = verbal persuasion, PES = physiological and emotional states.

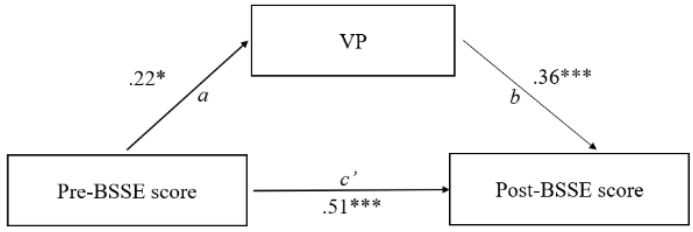
Table 4

The multiple regressions for the effects of Pre-BSSE and each source on Post-BSSE

	Dependent variable	Post-BSSE				Post-BSSE				Post-BSSE				Post-BSSE			
	Standardized Coefficients	*β*	*t*	*p*	R^2		*β*	*t*	*p*	R^2		*β*	*t*	*p*	R^2		*β*	*t*	*p*	R^2
Independent variables	(Constant)		1.49	.14		(Constant)		2.69	.01		(Constant)		1.87	.06		(Constant)		1.83	.07	
	Pre-BSSE score	.35	5.15	.00	.60	Pre-BSSE score	.42	6.04	.00	.56	Pre-BSSE score	.51	6.98	.00	.47	Pre-BSSE score	.47	6.95	.00	.56
	EME	.56	8.23	.00		VE	.49	7.01	.00		VP	.36	4.99	.00		PES	.47	6.98	.00	

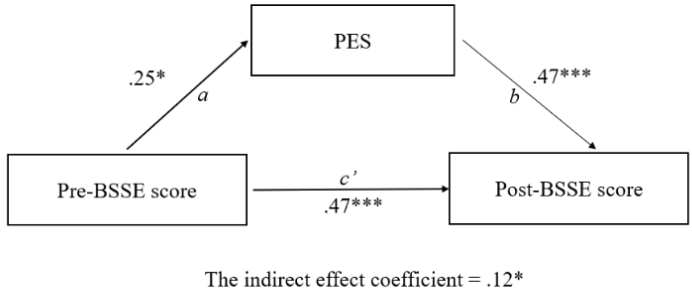
Notes. BSSE = Basic skill self-efficacy, ASSE = Advanced skill self-efficacy, EME = enactive mastery experience, VE = vicarious experience, VP = verbal persuasion, PES = physiological and emotional states.

As for VE, it is found to be a partial mediator in the development of BSSE (Figure 3). The result of a simple regression indicates that the predicting power of the pre-BSSE score on VE is significant (see Table 3); $F(1, 105) = 14.19$, $p < .0001$, explaining 12% of the total variance ($\beta = .35$). When a multiple regression was conducted to examine if the joined independent variables (the pre-BSSE score and VE) predict the post-BSSE score, this model was also found to be significant (see Table 4); $F(2, 104) = 65.16$, $p < .001$, explaining 56% of the total variance. In addition, the fourth step was satisfied ($\beta = .59 > \beta = .42$). The Sobel test resulted in .17 for the indirect mediating effect coefficient of VE on BSSE development with a much greater than moderate effect size ($z = 3.32$, $p < .001$).



Note. The numbers indicate standardized coefficient (beta)
*p < .05; **p < .01; ***p < .001

Figure 4. A causal chain including verbal persuasion (VP) as a mediator on the development of BSSE.



Note. The numbers indicate standardized coefficient (beta)
*p < .05; **p < .01; ***p < .001

Figure 5. A causal chain including Physiological and emotion states (PES) as a mediator on the development of BSSE.

Similarly, VP is found to serve as a partial mediator in the development of BSSE (Figure 4). The result of a simple regression indicates that the predicting effect of the pre-BSSE score on VP is significant (see Table 3); $F(1, 105) = 5.22$,

$p < .05$, explaining 5% of the total variance ($\beta = .22$). A multiple regression with the joined independent variables of the pre-BSSE score and VP, and the post-BSSE score as a dependent variable results in having a significant (see Table 4); $F(2, 104) = 46.59$, $p < .001$, explanatory power of 47% of the total variance. In addition, the fourth step was satisfied ($\beta = .59 > \beta = .51$). The Sobel test results in .08 for the indirect mediating effect coefficient of VP on BSSE development with a slightly less than the moderate effect size ($z = 2.07$, $p < .05$).

PES is shown to have a partial mediating effect in BSSE formation (Figure 5). The result of a simple regression with the pre-BSSE score as a predicting variable and VP as a dependent variable was significant (see Table 3); $F(1, 105) = 7.11$, $p < .01$, explaining 6% of the total variance ($\beta = .25$). A multiple regression that examines the effect of the joined independent variables (the pre-BSSE score and PES) on the post-BSSE score as a dependent variable are also significant (see Table 4); $F(2, 104) = 64.86$, $p < .001$, explaining 56% of the total variance. In addition, the fourth step was satisfied ($\beta = .59 > \beta = .47$). The indirect mediating effect coefficient of PES on BSSE development is .12, with a slightly greater than moderate effect size ($z = 2.49$, $p < .01$).

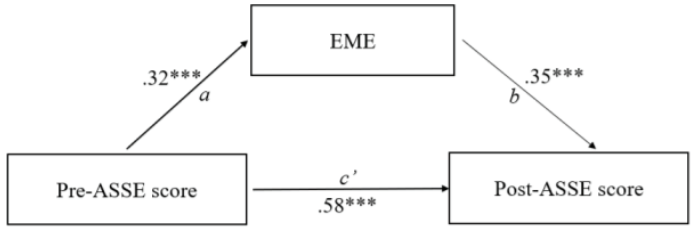
To sum up, the mediation analyses resulted in revealing that all the principal sources serve as mediators on the formation of the participants' BSSE with EME having the strongest effect size followed by VE, PES, and VP.

Concerning RQ2, three major sources were found to have mediating effects—EME, VE, and VP, except PES—on ASSE development. First for EME (Figure 6), a simple regression was used to examine if the pre-ASSE score predicts the post-ASSE score (see Table 5); $F(1, 105) = 100.20$, $p < .001$, explaining 49% of the total variance ($\beta = .70$). Then, it was tested to see if the pre-ASSE score predicts EME. This model was found to be significant; $F(1, 105) = 12.39$, $p < .001$, explaining 11% of the total variance ($\beta = .32$). When a multiple regression was computed to see if the joined independent variables, such as the pre-ASSE score and EME, predict the ASSE post-score. This model was also found to be significant (see Table 6); $F(2, 104) = 78.14$, $p < .001$, explaining 60% of the total variance. Lastly, the fourth step was satisfied ($\beta = .70 > \beta = .58$). This indicates that EME works as a partial mediating variable in the development ASSE. The indirect mediating effect coefficient of EME on ASSE development is .11 ($z = 4.61$, $p < .001$), which can be considered as a moderate effect size. Its causal chains are shown in Figure 6.

VE is also found to be a partial mediator in the development of ASSE (Figure 7). The result of a simple regression indicates that the predicting effect of the pre-ASSE score on VE is significant (see Table 5); $F(1, 105) = 14.81$, $p < .001$, explaining 12% of the total variance ($\beta = .35$). When a multiple regression is conducted to examine if the joined independent variables, the pre-ASSE score and VE predict the post-ASSE score, this model was also found

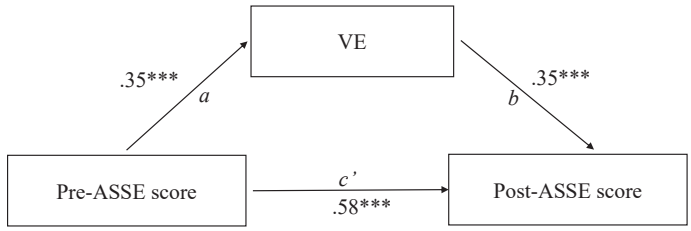
to be significant (see Table 6); $F(2, 104) = 76.58$, $p < .001$, explaining 60% of the total variance. In addition, the fourth step was satisfied ($\beta = .70 > \beta = .58$). The indirect mediating effect coefficient of VE on ASSE development is .12 with a slightly more than moderate effect size ($z = 3.11$, $p < .001$).

As for VP, it is also found to play a partial mediating role in the development of ASSE (Figure 8). A simple regression to examine the predicting effect of the pre-ASSE score for VE is shown to be significant (see Table 5); $F(1, 105) = 5.35$, $p < .05$, explaining 5% of the total variance ($\beta = .22$). When a multiple regression was conducted to test if the joined independent variables, the pre-ASSE score and VP predict the post-ASSE score, this model is also found to be significant (see Table 5); $F(2, 104) = 71.50$, $p < .001$, explaining 58% of the total variance. In addition, the fourth step was satisfied ($\beta = .70 > \beta = .63$). The indirect mediating effect coefficient of VP on ASSE development is .07 (in Figure 4) with a slightly lower than moderate effect size ($z = 2.09$, $p < .05$).



Note. The numbers indicate standardized coefficient (beta)
*p < .05; **p < .01; ***p < .001

Figure 6. A causal chain including EME as a mediator on the development of ASSE.



Note. The numbers indicate standardized coefficient (beta)
*p < .05; **p < .01; ***p < .001

Figure 7. A causal chain including VE as a mediator on the development of ASSE.

Table 5

The simple regressions for the effect of Pre-ASSE, EME, VE, VP, and PES

	Dependent variable	Post-ASSE score				EME				VE				VP				PES			
	Standardized Coefficients	*β*	*t*	*p*	R^2	*β*	*t*	*p*	R^2	*β*	*t*	*p*	R^2	*β*	*t*	*p*	R^2	*β*	*t*	*p*	R^2
Independent variable	(Constant)		5.15	.00		11.29	.00				8.48	.00			11.17	.00			10.24	.00	
	Pre-ASSE score	.70	10.01	.00	.49	.32	3.52	.00	.11	.35	3.85	.00	.12	.22	2.34	.02	.05	.20	2.06	.04	.04

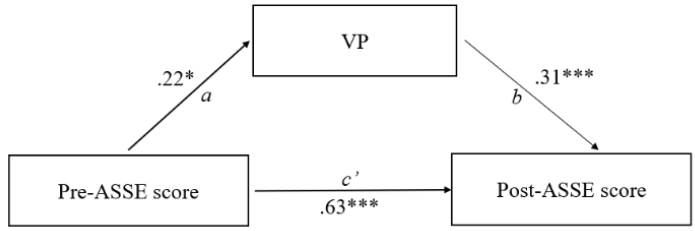
Notes. BSSE = Basic skill self-efficacy, ASSE = Advanced skill self-efficacy, EME = enactive mastery experience, VE = vicarious experience, VP = verbal persuasion, PES = physiological and emotional states.

Table 6

The multiple regressions for the effects of Pre-ASSE and each source on Post-ASSE

	Dependent variable	Post-ASSE				Post-ASSE				Post-ASSE				Post-ASSE			
	Standardized Coefficients	*β*	*t*	*p*	R^2		*β*	*t*	*p*	R^2		*β*	*t*	*p*	R^2		*β*	*t*	*p*	R^2
Independent variables	(Constant)		-.10	.92		(Constant)		1.10	.28		(Constant)		.33	.74		(Constant)		-.08	.94	
	Pre-ASSE score	.58	8.91	.00	.60	Pre-ASSE score	.58	8.64	.00	.60	Pre-ASSE score	.63	9.65	.00	.58	Pre-ASSE score	.63	10.17	.00	.62
	EME	.35	5.40	.00		VE	.35	5.25	.00		VP	.31	4.73	.00		PES	.37	6.08	.00	

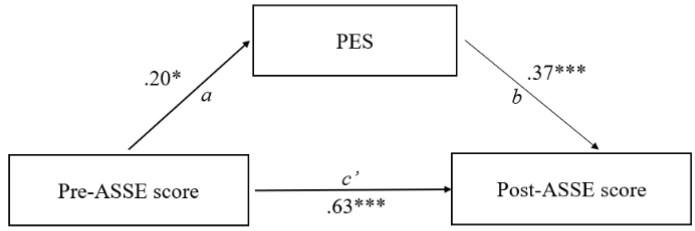
Notes. BSSE = Basic skill self-efficacy, ASSE = Advanced skill self-efficacy, EME = enactive mastery experience, VE = vicarious experience, VP = verbal persuasion, PES = physiological and emotional states.



The indirect effect coefficient = .07*

Note. The numbers indicate standardized coefficient (beta)
*p < .05; **p < .01; ***p < .001

Figure 8. A causal chain including VP as a mediator on the development of ASSE.



The indirect effect coefficient = .07

Note. The numbers indicate standardized coefficient (beta)
*p < .05; **p < .01; ***p < .001

Figure 9. A causal chain including PES as a mediator on the development of ASSE.

Among the four main sources, it was found that only PES did not play a mediating role in this study (Figure 9). A simple regression to test the predicting effect of the pre-ASSE score of PES is shown to remain at a nearly significant level (see Table 5); $F(1, 105) = 4.24$, $p < .05$, explaining 4% of the total variance ($\beta = .20$). A multiple regression conducted to examine the joined independent variables, the pre-ASSE score and PES on the post-ASSE score resulted in being significant (see Table 6); $F(2, 104) = 85.76$, $p = .0001$, explaining 62% of the total variance. In addition, the fourth step was satisfied ($\beta = .70 > \beta = .63$). However, the indirect effect coefficient (.07) of PES on ASSE development was found to be insignificant ($z = 1.95$, $p = .05$).

Unlike the relationships with BSSE, ASSE had significant causal relationships with only three sources—VE, EME, and VP in order of magnitude of indirect mediating effect.

Discussion

The present study aimed to investigate whether there exist mediating effects on the development of English listening self-efficacy beliefs according to the level of difficulty through the four major sources based on Bandura's (1997) assumptions that are widely accepted in academic fields.

With the first question, the relationship between the four sources and BSSE was explored. As the results show, all four sources were found to play a role in the mediation of the formation of BSSE. In particular, students' EME had the strongest mediating role in students' BSSE—with a strong effect size (the indirect effect size coefficient = .24), followed by VE, PES, and VP. These results are generally in line with several studies (e.g., Zuo & Wang, 2016; Wang & Pape, 2007). The most influential mediating role in the development of individuals' self-efficacy lies in the success and EME of the tasks they performed. This finding supports the findings of many previous studies (Bandura, 1994, 1997; Shehzad et al., 2020; Usher & Pajares, 2008; Zhang & Ardasheva, 2019). Although not as strong as the first source, VE was also shown to have more than a medium effect size (the indirect effect size coefficient = .17). It can be interpreted that the participants in this study thought that they could do the same by observing that other classmates are actively engaged in and performing given tasks successfully. This eventually appeared to have influenced the formation of their BSSE. Notably, PES were found to be the third-largest mediating variable in the formation of BSSE, with a larger effect size (.12) than VP (.08). In other words, in relation to BSSE, it is plausible that the positive messages delivered by one's own somatic information, or positively translated somatic information, are more effective than the encouragement received through feedback and comments from teachers or peers.

Concerning the second question, the relationship between ASSE and the four sources was examined. The results suggest that three sources except PES plays a mediating role in the development of self-efficacy in advanced listening skills through learning and in class practice, which is consistent with the findings by Zhang and Ardasheva (2019). Comparing with their relationships with BSSE, the three sources served as mediators in the development of self-efficacy with an effect size that exceeds or is close to medium, which is smaller than those of BSSE.

The findings of the current study further support the importance of students' EME for self-efficacy building. Its mediating effect on ASSE is smaller than in that of BSSE, which can be categorized as medium-sized (.11) and large-sized (.24) respectively. Such differences in the effect size can be attributed to the participants' proficiency in English. The participants may have gained more EME by performing relatively easy and basic tasks than by advanced and challenging

tasks. According to Bandura (1997), a sense of control over given activities is a crucial element that EME offers. For example, after completing a series of academic tasks given to individuals, they evaluate and interpret the results by themselves, and judge their capabilities according to the interpretation. If they believe that they have been successful or gained more control compared to their own pre-existing knowledge structures, they are likely to bolster their confidence in their capability of doing the related tasks well in the future. In the opposite case, confidence decreases. Such confidence gained from this experience of mastery leads individuals to make choices to have higher levels of persistence and willingness to move on even when faced with challenges and adversities (Bandura, 1997; Mills, Pajares, & Herron, 2006; Usher & Pajares, 2008). Importantly, a strong EME that serves as concrete evidence of one's capacity provides the energy needed to restructure one's own efficacy beliefs and affects the changes in efficacy beliefs in the functioning area (Bandura, 2006). EME of the participants with low proficiency in English in the current study appeared to become a strong vehicle for changing their efficacy beliefs by showing a relatively large mediating effect on the students' listening self-efficacy which supports the findings of the related empirical studies (e.g., Shehzad et al., 2020; Zhang & Ardasheva, 2019, etc.) although some difference in effect sizes is found in the development of self-efficacy according to task difficulty.

It is interesting to note that VE is found to have the strongest mediating effect on the development of ASSE, despite an effect size almost equal to EME (.12 and .11, respectively). It seems that social modeling plays a crucial role in improving students' self-efficacy, especially when students perform difficult listening tasks. Usher and Pajares (2008) claim that social models have a great influence on self-efficacy particularly when students are not well aware of their capabilities because their experience with new or challenging tasks is limited. When students judge their capacities, they often compare them with the people they know, that is, peers. When they see their peers succeed in new tasks, they tend to form the belief that they are also capable of dealing with those challenges well. In other words, when faced with a demanding task and feeling uncertain about their own capabilities to perform it, individuals may have the idea that they can also achieve similar success to the related tasks by observing peers' success, which likely works as an influential mediator in the formation of their efficacy beliefs. It is worth noting that the effect of VE becomes greater if it comes from people with similar abilities to themselves (Usher & Pajares, 2008). Given that the participants of the current study are those with similar abilities—low proficiency in English, VE may have had more influence on self-efficacy beliefs.

The crucial role of VP has also been reported to be significant in several studies (e.g., Bai et al., 2019; Lam & Chan, 2017, etc.). Through positive feedback and encouragement, students can recognize their strengths and build confidence

in their competence (Bandura, 1997). This study also found that VP retained the almost similar medium-sized mediating effects in both relationships with BSSE and ASSE (.08 and .07, respectively). In other words, comments or positive feedback from teachers or peers constantly and indirectly influences the development of self-efficacy beliefs in listening to English regardless of a task level. Particularly, from the view that VP is most closely related to social and cultural contexts, Bai et al. (2019) hypothesized that VP would affect students' self-efficacy and English achievements because their participants, Hong Kong secondary students, are nurtured and educated in a collective and interdependent social environment. They found that VP, which is one of the socio-cultural factors, is positively related to self-efficacy although the relationship is weaker than that with academic English performances. It was interpreted that VP may play a role in facilitating self-efficacy development, rather than being a factor that directly affects students' English learning achievement. Similarly, Lam and Chan (2017) found a positive relationship between VP from parents and teachers and self-efficacy beliefs in Chinese students in Hong Kong. However, considering that these results were obtained from secondary students who are relatively more socially supported by parents and teachers than university students, the results of the current study allow for a deeper understanding of the functions of VP on self-efficacy in university students in a similar cultural context.

While the other three sources served as mediators for ASSE, the fourth, PES, did not play a mediating role. This indicates the last source failed to contribute to the development of self-efficacy due to uncontrollable somatic or emotional responses that they should handle. It is worth noting that this source of PES actually functioned as a mediator of the relationship with BSSE—the third largest in terms of the effect size, even larger than VP. When performing relatively easy tasks, negative arousals are likely to be managed, showing that they influenced the formation of self-efficacy. In other words, when students interpret that they are capable of controlling such somatic information that comes from tension, agitation, or stress, this source may have a mediating effect in forming self-efficacy beliefs. What matters is not the degree of emotional and physical reactions, but how individuals perceive and interpret these reactions (Bandura, 1997). On the other hand, when negative thoughts or responses arise, probably caused by incompetence, efforts to overcome such aversive arousals likely fail to mediate self-efficacy as shown in the relationship with ASSE. By evoking appalling and uncontrollable thoughts that individuals encounter with stress reactions, they are likely to experience high mental hardship that causes the very dysfunction they dread (Bandura, 1997). In addition, "stress reactions to inefficacious control generate further stress through anticipatory self-arousal" (p. 106). This denotes that when students encounter tasks that they feel they cannot handle successfully with their current English proficiency, they reflect on their past experiences, predictable negative emotions or somatic reactions

resulting from unsatisfactory outcomes which may lead to more stress and tension, hindering students from building further self-efficacy beliefs. Importantly, however, Bandura (1997) argues that such an impasse can be overcome by EME. Treatments through EME eliminate the emotional reactions arising from the subjective threats individuals feel, and promote a sense of efficacy as well as performance improvements in the corresponding area.

Conclusion

This study examined whether four sources influence the development of English listening self-efficacy of students taking a 15-week English mandatory course in a university, and the results indicate that the four sources actually play mediating roles, which supports the self-efficacy theory (Bandura, 1997). It also uncovered the potentially vulnerable link to self-efficacy development among them—PES, particularly, when students deal with advanced tasks that can be found too arduous for students at their level.

This indicates a need for teachers to look more carefully at students' PES, particularly when students engage in tasks considered challenging for their current capabilities. As mentioned above, the treatment that removes or controls aversive arousals from physical and emotional responses can be obtained from an individual's EME, while at the same time improving their self-efficacy beliefs. For a more effective English listening class, it is a teacher's responsibility to prepare for stepwise tasks in advance so that students can experience gradual success which offers authentic evidence that can persuade and convince them of progressive improvement in their listening skills.

According to Graham (2011), skills in listening are not easily acquired and low self-efficacy can be aggravated depending on the way listening is taught. With this in mind, she emphasizes the importance and effectiveness of listening strategy instruction. For example, teachers can (1) inform students of useful effective listening strategies and how to use them, (2) guide them explicitly through modeling—between a teacher and students or between students and students, and (3) provide positive and constructive feedback that encourages and persuades students as well as the practical use of the strategies. This can possibly lead students to the development of both efficacy and listening skills.

This study has a few limitations to report. In order to measure the four sources of self-efficacy, a scale suitable for the specific domain and function is required (Bandura, 2006b; Usher & Pajares, 2008). The questionnaire constructed for the purposes of this study still needs to go through a more rigorous examination of construct validity in future studies despite having

thoroughly reviewed the literature related to the four sources of self-efficacy and reported the relatively high level of reliability of the scale. In addition, it is of note that these findings are obtained from a sample population with low proficiency in English. Thus, in order to have a comprehensive view and to understand the dynamics of the relationships, it requires follow-up research with other sample groups with different proficiency levels. Similarly, the self-efficacy beliefs that an individual holds are task-specific and may appear differently in different contexts. Since the relationships uncovered in this study belong to the listening context in second language learning, further steps are needed to explore the effects of the four major sources on self-efficacy development in other language learning domains in subsequent studies to fill the existing gaps in the literatThe current study reveals and supports the crucial roles of the four sources of self-efficacy. It is desirable to use self-efficacy as an educational tool to improve students' academic performances (Zhang & Ardasheva, 2019). Undoubtedly, teachers entering listening classes will need to have a sufficient understanding of the four sources and influential variables that affect the formation of self-efficacy. Taking it a little further, they need to consider how to apply these variables effectively for the benefit of their students.

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Hyang-Il Kim

Zur Rolle von vier Quellen der Selbstwirksamkeit beim Hörverstehen im EFL-Unterricht

Zusammenfassung

Die akademische Forschung hat die positive Rolle der Selbstwirksamkeit im Lehr- und Lernprozess hervorgehoben und bestätigt, dass ein gründliches Verständnis davon unerlässlich ist. Um es zu fördern, wird in der vorliegenden Studie das Verhältnis zwischen den von Bandura (1997) vorgeschlagenen vier Hauptquellen und der Entwicklung von Selbstwirksamkeit untersucht. Auf Grundlage empirischer Untersuchungen ist das Verhältnis in vielerlei Hinsicht erforscht worden. Allerdings scheint es, dass die Ergebnisse nur unzureichende empirische Daten zum Fremdsprachenerwerb ergeben, um die Hypothese zu begründen. Deswegen wird in dem Beitrag untersucht, wie sich die Quellen auf die nach Schwierigkeitsgrad der Hörverstehensübungen im Englischunterricht klassifizierte, auf grundlegende (BSSE) und fortgeschrittene (ASSE) Fähigkeiten bezogene Selbstwirksamkeit auswirken. An der Untersuchung haben insgesamt 107 koreanische Studierende teilgenommen. Die Probe wurde mittels Mediationsanalyse ausgewertet. Die Ergebnisse zeigen, dass alle vier Quellen als Mediatoren von BSSE und alle bis auf physiologische und emotionale Zustände als Mediatoren von ASSE fungieren. In Anlehnung daran wird Banduras Hypothese bestätigt und die pädagogischen Implikationen erörtert.

Schlüsselwörter: vier Quellen der Selbstwirksamkeit, Hörverstehen, Selbstwirksamkeit, Studierend

Appendix 1

Self-efficacy in Listening (Adopted from the study by Kim, 2022)

Factor 1:	Advanced Skill Self-Efficacy (ASSE)
	2. Can you understand English TV programs (e.g., dramas which were produced in the U.S.A, the U.K. or Korea, etc.)?
	5. Can you understand English movies without subtitles?
	4. If your English instructor gives you an English dialogue between two or three people, can you understand it?
	3. Can you understand radio programs in English speaking countries?
	6. Can you understand English songs?
	1. Can you understand stories told in English?
Factor 2:	Basic Skill Self-Efficacy (BSSE)
	8. Can you concentrate on the content to which you listen?
	10. Can you do well the tasks and assignments you have to do to improve your listening skills?
	7. Can you understand numbers spoken in English?
	9. Can you get the important information of conversations told in the class?

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Effects of Adjunct Model of Instruction on EAP Learners' Reading Comprehension Skill

Abstract

With the quick transition to online teaching during the COVID-19 pandemic, it is vital to take the recent development in language teaching methodology into consideration, especially the pedagogical utility of new models of English for Academic purposes (EAP). Accordingly, the main objective of the present study was to investigate the efficacy of the adjunct model in improving the overall reading comprehension skills of Iranian architecture students in online EAP courses. To this end, from the population of students studying architecture at the Isfahan University of Art, three intact classes, each with 35 sophomore students were selected. While the first class was taught by a language teacher (the Language-driven Group) and the second class received instruction from a content teacher (the Content-driven Group), the third class was taught by applying the adjunct model involving both content and language teachers. At the end of the semester, a reading comprehension test was administrated to all students. The analysis of the data through running a one-way ANOVA and post hoc analysis revealed that the students in the adjunct class outperformed their peers in the other two classes on the reading comprehension test.

Keywords: Adjunct Model, EAP Classes, Online Courses, Reading Comprehension

COVID-19 has resulted in a dramatic change in education, with the distinctive rise of e-learning. In Iran, like in other parts of the globe, universities offer an online module for their students including learners of English for Academic Purposes (EAP). EAP courses focus on teaching English specifically to facilitate learners academic achievements through the medium of English (Flowerdew & Peacock, 2001). It is reasonable to view EAP as an eclectic and pragmatic discipline in which a wide range of linguistics,

applied linguistics, and educational topics are integrated into coursework (Hamp-Lyons, 2001).

Some linguists (Brinton & Snow, 1988; Richards & Rodgers, 2001) postulated the adjunct model as two coordinated courses: a content/subject course and a language course. In this model, the content/subject instructors stress academic topics and the language teachers emphasize language skills such as reading and writing (Brinton & Snow, 1988). The model can compensate for the lack of collaboration between content and language teachers and provide an explicit reflexive relationship between content, language, and learning (Barwell, 2013; Tan, 2011). Integration of a foreign language as a tool in the learning of a non-language subject in which both language and the subject have a joint role could facilitate the reading comprehension skill.

The ability to read English efficiently in EAP courses is a critical skill. Reading comprehension involves abilities to recognize words, process sentences to build comprehension, engage a range of strategic processes, interpret meaning in relation to schematic knowledge, evaluate texts, and process texts over an extended period of time (Grabe, 2009). Successful reading comprehension is an interaction among various variables, including background knowledge, lexical repertoire, knowledge of syntax, and metacognitive awareness (Chuang, Joshi, & Dixon, 2012).

The need analysis as a major stage of EAP (Kumaravadivelu, 2012; Tomlinson, 2011) can reveal students' various needs. For instance, the reading comprehension of Iranian undergraduate students is widely echoed through their need assessment (Tahriran & Sadri, 2013; Zarifi & Asadpour, 2017). In order to satisfy EAP learners' needs, instructors mostly read the texts aloud and translate them into Persian in a hasty manner (Zarifi & Asadpour, 2017) and this is due to their poor pedagogic content knowledge that ultimately hinders comprehensibility of texts.

Despite an ever-growing EAP as a branch of EFL in Iran, there is confusion with respect to the actual implementation of EAP courses. Many Iranian EAP instructors implement the course as presupposed by the curriculum developers who have no consideration and concern for collaboration between ELT and subject-matter departments. In the absence of this collaboration, the whole process places a considerable burden on the teachers involved in EAP classes because they should possess the necessary educational and professional background. Haphazard instructions by unqualified teachers who are in favor of uniform choices of materials based on unverified assumptions might ultimately lead to dissatisfaction amongst the learners (Tavakoli & Tavakol, 2018). Moreover, EAP learners often experience difficulties in the skill of reading comprehension.

Although implementing an adjunct model of instruction requires a willing interaction among teachers and it may be difficult to arrange, the rise of on-

line learning during the COVID-19 pandemic paves the way for a cooperative atmosphere in which professionals experience togetherness. In sum, the study might offer some insights into online collaborative teamwork of EFL teachers and content instructors for EAP courses. It also contributes to employing the adjunct model to enable EAP architecture students to access academic knowledge while they are acquiring English proficiency. In fact, the integration of language and content help students develop the reading strategies needed to comprehend academic texts.

Literature Review

EAP Courses

Hutchinson and Waters (1987) consider English for Specific Purposes (ESP) as a generic name encompassing many other types of English teaching that can be broken down into three types: (a) English for Science and Technology (EST), (b) English for Business and Economics (EBE), and (c) English for Social Studies (ESS) which is further divided into two subcategories: English for Academic Purposes (EAP) and English for Occupational Purposes (EOP). Accordingly, EAP is a subcategory of ESP and its major aim is equipping students with English in their professional and academic lives (Gillet, 2016).

According to Diane (2009), EAP must be tailored to the needs of the learners, which means EAP courses should begin with an analysis of the students' linguistic background, what they already know and what they desire to know. Various scholars (Diane, 2009; Dudley-Evans & St. John, 1998; Robinson, 1991) recommend the following procedures for EAP courses: (a) recognizing what learners' needs are, (b) developing or adapting materials tailored to the student's needs, and (c) acquiring knowledgeable instructors teaching according to their learners' needs.

EAP is an indispensable part of some university curricula designed for all disciplines and majors. EAP courses are usually restricted to only one or two of the four skills (Wette, 2018), specifically acquainting learners with academic readings and technical vocabularies have been highlighted. EAP instructors direct their learners' attention to the text structure, reading skills like skimming and scanning, deducing meanings of words and structures, distinguishing between major and minor ideas, and the functions of discourse markers and cohesive ties (Sharndama, Samaila, & Tsojon, 2014).

In the early 1960s, EAP courses started in Iran as a result of a collaboration between Iranian universities and western academic centers (Cowan, 1974).

Since then, a large number of university students have enrolled in EAP as a compulsory course, and many course books published by SAMT, one of the most popular publications. Despite a prolific number of EAP books, there is a consensus among EAP researchers (Atai, 2002; Shahmirzadi, 2018 Tayebipour, 2005) that no significant improvement has been observed in EAP classes.

The lack of salient improvement can be attributed to the textbooks following rigid structures, focusing on reading comprehension skills, micro-linguistic aspects of reading skills. Iranian EAP practitioners can hardly find any published documents on the current patterns of methodological preferences. Hence, poorly designed materials lead to little or no cooperation between ELT and subject matter instructors (Atai, Babaii, & Tahekhani, 2017).

Having unsystematic plans, lack of authenticity, and too much emphasis on translation rather than communication are some other challenges. It is worth mentioning that most Iranian EAP learners are taught only by one general language teacher who does not have the chance to cooperate and consult with major specialists. In other words, there is no situation that two or more professionals jointly deliver substantive instruction (Khales Haghighi & Abdolahi, 2014).

L2 Reading Comprehension

Reading is an important skill for language learners, specifically EAP students. It is the process of "constructing meaning by coordinating a number of complex processes including word reading, word and world knowledge, and fluency" (Klinger, Vaughn, & Boardman, 2007, p. 2). According to Bos and Vaugh (2009), L2 readers activate their background knowledge in three ways: (a) the first approach belongs to what is textually explicit. Hence, comprehension is facilitated by some explicit information presented in the text and readers do not need to deeply rely on their background knowledge; (b) the second one refers to textually implicit texts. In this reading type, readers partially make use of their background knowledge to find out the information of the text, and (c) the last type refers to scripturally implicit texts. The high levels of complexity in this type make learners deeply activate their background knowledge.

Academic reading demands the readers' considerable and deep engagement with the text and author. In other words, learners need to be critical readers to find out what the text is about, what the author's message is, and realize which part of the text is useful for reflecting upon the text (Martiarini, 2018). Therefore, an EAP reading curriculum should account for multiple purposes, including searching information, comprehending general ideas, learning new information, and synthesizing and evaluating information.

The complicated nature of academic readings is highlighted by various researchers (Lei, Rhinehart, Howard, & Cho, 2010; Perin, 2013). The challenges

that learners may have are related to vocabulary knowledge, choosing an appropriate reading approach, becoming aware of the main aim of the author, and determining the global idea of the text. They have to learn not only a foreign language but also develop their scientific knowledge. To cope efficiently with these challenges, an adjunct model of instruction can be employed.

Adjunct Model of Instruction and Its Rationale

The rationale for EAP courses is content-based instruction (CBI) which is traced to Mohan's (1986) *Language and Content*. Mohan believes that language should not be taught in isolation from the content. In the light of CBI's theories, Brinton, Snow, and Wesche (2003) proposed three models of CBI as follows: (a) *theme-based instruction* whose goal is L2 competence within specific topic areas. In this model, each theme is elaborated over several weeks to provide adequate input, and learners are assessed primarily by their L2 skills; (b) *sheltered instruction* whose aim is mastery of content and students are evaluated on content mastery; (c) *adjunct instruction* is primarily based on an interplay between content and language and collaborative teamwork of two separate instructors. In other words, there is collaboration combined with the content and language integrated learning (CLIL) approach (Carrio Pastor, 2009).

The theoretical assumption underlying the adjunct model of instruction is CLIL which is commonly described as an additional language which is used for learning and teaching of both language and content (Coyle, Hood, & Marsh, 2010). CLIL should be distinguished from other forms of bilingual education, such as immersion education or content-based instruction (Kampen, Admiraal, & Berry, 2018). Dalton-Puffer (2011) mentions the distinguished features of CLIL as follows: CLIL refers to using a foreign language that is not regularly used outside the classroom; learners receive CLIL teaching when they have already acquired their mother tongue; CLIL teachers are mostly subject specialists who are not competent at the target language; and CLIL subjects are usually timetabled within the institutions' curriculums.

Experimental Studies

The collaboration between subject experts and language specialists might be challenging because of established boundaries or "jurisdiction" (Abbott, 1999) existing among the members of a professional society. In other words, collaboration across disciplines is hard work and demands interdisciplinary programs that are difficult to sustain over long periods (Wilkinson, 2018). However, regarding the adjunct model, some researchers have proven its efficacy by its implementation for teaching biology in the Middle East (Flowerdew, 1993) and history and sociology at George Fox University (Iancu, 1997). In the same vein, many researchers (Coyle, 2005; Marsh, 2008; Morton, 2019; Wolff, 2009) believe that an academic subject should be taught as a single subject with close cooperation between content teachers and language teachers. In their view, both content and language teachers should have equal importance and allow different aspects of a subject to be focused on.

In an experimental study conducted by Cario Pastor and Perry (2010), an adjunct model of instruction was implemented at the Universidad Politecnica de Valencia. Their main purpose was to facilitate the teaching of pilot domain-specific materials to students of industrial engineering. Through an online forum, content and language teachers collaboratively worked to teach the materials. In doing so, content teachers proposed vocabularies and content questions while the language teachers designed groups for writing activities, listening and oral tasks, and some grammar exercises. They concluded that the integration stimulated interpersonal communication, motivated students, and took into accounts the needs of students.

Khales Haghghi and Abdollahi (2014) recruited 52 students from Ilam University, Iran, aged from 20 to 28 years old, majoring in business management. They employed a quasi-experimental, pre-test–post-test design and compared students' achievements in two experimental and a control group. The experimental groups were taught by two types of adjunct model of teaching: team teaching and station teaching. The students of the first group were taught by a couple of teachers delivering instruction to the learners simultaneously. The students of the second group were also taught by two teachers; however, they received instructions at three different stages or stations. Their findings revealed that both experimental groups outperformed their peers in the control group regarding the reading comprehension skill.

Vosoughi, Ghahremani Ghajar, and Navarchi's study (2019) mentioned that although Iranian ELT practitioners believed in collaborative practice, they found it so burdensome to create such a situation due to some reasons related to mismatching psychological characteristics of content and language instructors as well as some flawed educational arrangements in the country.

Conversely, Mehrabi, and Boshrabadi (2016) posit that scaffolding Iranian law students through team teaching has a considerable impact on their reading comprehension.

Although a large and growing body of literature has been published on the efficacy of the adjunct model of instruction on EAP learners' improvement, there have been few controlled studies that accentuate the significance of co-operation, collaboration, and team-teaching simultaneously in the age of online learning during the pandemic. Moreover, many studies (Huang, 2006; Phakiti, 2006; Pritchard & Nasr, 2004) reveal difficulties of reading comprehension, but too little attention has been paid to the possible impacts of the adjunct model on EAP learners' reading comprehension. This lack is the main objective of the present study which aims to investigate how the application of the adjunct model can improve Iranian architecture students' reading comprehension skill. Thus the study sought to answer the following question:

What is the effect of the adjunct model of instruction on Iranian EAP learners' reading comprehension skill?

Method

Research Design and Context

Since it was not possible to randomize individuals or groups to treatment and control groups, the quasi-experimental, nonequivalent control group post-test only design was utilized. To be more precise, the researchers attempted to measure the effects of the adjunct model of instruction on reading comprehension of online EAP learners majoring in architecture in the experimental group and compared that measure with two non-equivalent/comparison groups that did not receive the treatment by a post-test implementation.

The COVID-19 pandemic has affected Iran like other parts of the globe and led to the closure of face-to-face courses. Therefore, the study was conducted within the context of virtual synchronized online settings through which the instructors and students could interact in a specific virtual space at a set time. Active discussion, immediate feedback, and personal interactions with peers and instructors were some of the advantages of online synchronous learning.

Participants

In winter 2020, when the pandemic made all classes held in an online module, from the population of sophomore undergraduate students studying architectural engineering at Isfahan University of Art (IUA), three intact classes were assigned to two control groups and an experimental group. Their age ranged from 18 to 24. To equalize the samples, the first class was taken as a reference and the additional subjects in other classes were randomly excluded so that the number of participants in each class was considered to be the same and equal to 35.

The three classes reflected homogenous groups in terms of their proficiency in English as the department offered the EAP course to those pupils who could pass the general English exam with scores ranging from 16–20 in the first semester. However, to ensure homogeneity of the participants' language proficiency level, Oxford Quick Placement Test (OQPT, 2001) was assigned. Based on their scores, five participants were discarded from the study because their scores were sharply (–2 SDs) lower than other students' scores. Also, the participants passed the same basic courses, such as History and Theory of Architecture, Descriptive Geometry, Land development, and Structural Engineering in their first semesters. This meant they learned almost the same content knowledge while attending their EAP classes.

Furthermore, the involvement of three university professors paved the way for an adjunct model of instruction. The researchers who were university lecturers in TEFL (Teaching English as a Foreign Language) and an associate professor in architectural engineering were assigned co-teaching roles.

Instruments

The OQPT (version 1) was used to measure the proficiency level of the students. The test, designed by the Oxford University Press, is comprised of 60 questions in vocabulary, grammar, reading, and cloze test. Geranpayeh (2006) pretested the test on 6,000 participants and validated it in 60 countries. According to Allen (2004), the OQPT has been calibrated against the proficiency levels based on the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEF), the Cambridge TESOL Examinations, and other international tests such as TOEFL. Moreover, according to various researchers (Allen, 2004; Jabbari, 2014; Tahriri & Yamini, 2010), the cut-off points considered for proficiency levels are reliable indicators. The scoring criteria are as follows:

Table 1

Scoring Criteria for Proficiency Levels

Proficiency levels	Cut-off points
Beginner	0–29
Breakthrough	30–39
Elementary	40–49
Lower-Intermediate	50–59
Upper-Intermediate	60–69
Advanced	70–79
Very Advanced	80–100

The main teaching resource was *the English for Students of Architecture*, volume two, written by Rastegarpour (2012). The book has been designed for the Iranian architecture students who have to take the specialized English course in the second or third semester. It consists of 15 lessons with specialized content in the field of architecture, including: the purpose of architecture, cultural origins of architecture, architectural planning, the art of building, form in architecture, architectural methods, materials, energy and building, natural elements, concepts in architecture, types of concepts, building economics, Islamic architecture, and Muslim architectures. At the end of each text, standard exercises were provided to consolidate the learning of the essential concepts related to the same text.

Since the pandemic has forced in-person teaching to shut over the globe, many universities and institutions mandated the teachers to shift to virtual classrooms. Among the available software, Adobe Connect was the virtual platform used in this study. It enabled the instructors to interactively work together and provide an immersive experience to their students.

At the end of the semester, the researchers developed a Reading Comprehension Test (RCT) with five reading passages and ten questions for each passage ($N = 50$). While the first eight questions were in multiple-choice format, the last two questions required the participants to make an overall evaluation of the text and to complete diagrams with matching items. Designing questions were facilitated by using the comprehension framework proposed by Day and Park (2005).

Accordingly, the questions assessed six types of comprehension: (a) *literal comprehension*: involving understanding explicit information presented in the reading, such as vocabularies, dates, and facts; (b) *reorganization*: comprehending the text beyond literal understanding; (c) *inference*: requiring learners to identify meanings that are not explicitly stated; (d) *prediction*: involving students using both their understanding of the passage and their own knowledge of the topic, (e) *evaluation*: requiring the learners to give

a comprehensive opinion about various aspects of the text, and (f) *personal response*: requiring readers to respond with relying on their own feelings for the text and subject.

The validity of the test was measured based on two EFL associate professors' opinions. Its reliability was also checked through a pilot study on 100 sophomore students of engineering studying at the IAU. The reliability of the test was .86 (α = .86), which can be considered satisfactory.

Data Collection Procedure

First, following obtaining an ethical approval from the head of two faculties, architecture and foreign languages, and the university's vice-chancellor, a Letter of Information and Consent Form (see Appendix A) was emailed to three associate professors of architecture. They were requested to approve of collaborating with two English instructors. One of the professors showed a tendency and was chosen as the co-teacher in the study. Then, in order to make sampling fairly homogenous, the researchers selected those sophomore students who passed their general English with a score range of 16–20. Also, the OQPT was run at the outset of the study to ensure the level of homogeneity. Next, 105 homogeneous students were divided into three groups:

- The Adjunct Group (experimental group) received an adjunct model of instruction through a collaboration among the language teachers and a subject-matter instructor.
- The Language-driven Group (control group) was taught by the language instructors whose priority was language teaching.
- The Content-driven Group (control group) was taught by a subject-matter specialist whose priority was content teaching.

All the three groups were required to take sixteen 90-minute sessions of an online EAP course. Two main administrative problems that could impede the experiment were the timetabling and lack of consistency needed for successful cooperation. However, to tackle these problems, two instructors who were Ph.D. holders of TEFL (Teaching English for Foreign Languages) and a subject-matter professor who was a full-time faculty member of the Architecture Department of the Isfahan University of Art arranged a pre-teaching discussion to achieve two goals: (a) designing a curriculum and lesson plan that specified the lessons' objectives, classroom activities, and the role of each instructor, and (b) designing a collaborative teaching strategy through which each lesson was taught in a balanced way. Tale 2 and 3 summarize the syllabi employed in the study.

Table 2

Language-driven Syllabus

Goal	Understanding key ideas and details
Objectives	Students will be able to: • skim and scan texts for main ideas; • summarizing and paraphrasing texts; • using contextual clues to facilitate comprehension; • demonstrating comprehension of texts; • understanding vocabulary items, including general, semi-technical, and technical terms embedded in the texts; • understanding grammatical structures embedded in the texts, including tenses, modal verbs, tag questions, clauses, reflexive pronouns, reported speech, and quantifiers).
Strategies	*Reading comprehension* The bottom-up approach • recognizing words and decoding meanings; • recognizing structures of phrases and sentences. The top-down approach • activating background knowledge; • stimulating making predictions about new information. *General words and technical terms* • giving definition or synonyms; • asking students for the definitions; • discussing the underlying meaning of the words; • drawing or displaying the picture of the words; • looking up the word in an online dictionary. *Grammar Structures* • raising students' consciousness about the structure; • combination of explicit and implicit teaching.

The subject-matter instructor had the duty to provide a rigorous comprehensive explanation about the lesson topics, including architectural design, architectural environmental design, interior architecture, and landscape architecture in Persian.

Table 3

Content-driven Syllabus

Goal	Assisting students in being critical of knowledge itself
Objectives	Students will be able to: • master the subject matter; • increase self-interest and familiarity with the content areas; • follow the lesson content with more confidence and enhance their background knowledge about the topic.
Strategies	Reading comprehension • teaching the subject matter in simplified English tailored to students' levels; • using students' L1 to cope with comprehension difficulties; • using English not to talk about the language itself but to accelerate students' understanding of the subject matter; • evaluating students on their content mastery rather than L2.

The most outstanding feature which made the Adjunct Group different from the other groups was team-teaching. Through collaborative work, the language and content teachers took the initiative to prepare the students for particular target goals. The English teachers handled the skills associated with the common core aspects of the language. By contrast, the subject teacher focused mainly on the technicalities of the course by clarifying the content which was unfamiliar to the language teacher. At the end of the treatment, which was a full semester, all groups participated in a Reading Comprehension Test (RCT) as their final exam.

Data analysis Procedure

The research question in this study asked whether the adjunct model of instruction that fosters cooperation, collaboration, and teamwork between language and content teachers was effective for improving the reading comprehension skill of the Iranian architectural engineering students. To answer the question, the scores on the final exam served as the data in this study. The related data analysis was carried out by the SPSS software. First, to provide descriptions of the population, descriptive analysis was used. Then, Levene's Test was used to test the assumption of homogeneity of variance. Next, in order to determine whether there are any statistically significant differences between the means of the three groups, the one-way ANOVA was administered. Since the differences among groups were significant, a post hoc test was run to locate those specific differences. The one-way ANOVA which compared the means of reading comprehension test scores indicated that the groups were significantly different from each other. Post hoc tests and pairwise multiple comparisons also determined the learners in the experimental group who received the adjunct model of instruction significantly outperformed their peers in the other two classes.

Results

Table 4 provides simple summaries about the data collected on the post-test. It shows that the students in the adjunct class outperformed the other two groups taught by the independent teachers. In fact, the average performance profile of students in the adjunct group was remarkably higher than their peers.

Table 4

Descriptive Statistics

Groups	*N*	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval for Mean		Minimum	Maximum
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound		
Content-driven	35	14.1143	1.64086	.27736	13.5506	14.6779	10.00	18.00
Language-driven	35	15.6000	1.26491	.21381	15.1655	16.0345	13.00	18.00
Adjunct	35	17.4286	1.57715	.26659	16.8868	17.9703	15.00	20.00
Total	105	15.7143	2.01778	.19691	15.3238	16.1048	10.00	20.00

As Table 4 shows, the mean of the Content-driven Group (M = 14.11, SD = .27) and Language-driven Group (M = 15.6, SD = .21) were close to each other. However, the total differences in mean scores of three groups indicate that the highest level of performance is observed in the Adjunct Group (M = 17.42, SD = .26). In order to determine whether there were statistically significant differences among the means of post-test, the one-way ANOVA was run. Before it, the homogeneity assumption needed for the one-way ANOVA was assessed through Levene's test. Table 5 presents the results.

Table 5

Levene's Test

	Levene's Statistic		df1	df2	Sig.
Mark	Based on Mean	1.196	2	102	.307
	Based on Median	.569	2	102	.568
	Based on Median and with adjusted Df	.569	2	100.701	.568
	Based on trimmed mean	1.201	2	102	.305

According to the results of the Levene's test, the groups were homogenous in terms of variances ($p > .05$). Hence, there is no violation of the assumption needed for running the one-way ANOVA.

Table 6

The One-Way Analysis of Variance (ANOVA)

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	*F*	Sig.
Between Groups	192.914	2	96.457	42.681	.000
Within Groups	230.514	102	2.260		
Total	423.429	104			

As can be seen in Table 6, there exists a significant difference among three groups. In fact, the *F* value is remarkably higher than the critical *F* value and we can safely conclude that the adjunct method was more effective. To ensure the credibility of the results, a post hoc analysis was applied. Table 7 illustrates the multiple comparisons of pairs of means. It is seen that pairwise comparisons of means statistically substantiated the meaningful variation existing between the Adjunct, Content-driven, and Language driven groups.

Table 7

Multiple Comparison of Measure for Control and Experimental Groups

(I) Class	(J) Class	Mean Difference (I–J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Content-driven	Language-driven	–1.48571*	.35936	.000	–2.1985	–.7729
	Adjunct	–3.31429*	.35936	.000	–4.0271	–2.6015
Language-driven	Content-driven	1.48571*	.35936	.000	.7729	2.1985
	Adjunct	–1.82857*	.35936	.000	–2.5414	–1.1158
Adjunct	Content-driven	3.31429*	.35936	.000	2.6015	4.0271
	Language-driven	1.82857*	.35936	.000	1.1158	2.5414

The findings presented in Table 7 revealed that the differences in the learners' reading comprehension skills were significant among three groups ($p < .05$). As we can see in Table 7, there is a significant difference between the Language and Content, Language and Adjunct, as well as Adjunct and Content groups. It can be concluded that both of the Language and Adjunct groups have made greater improvements in the participants' post-test scores. Diagram 1 depicts the average performance profile of group differences by illustrating the superior performance of students receiving instruction through teamwork and collaboration.

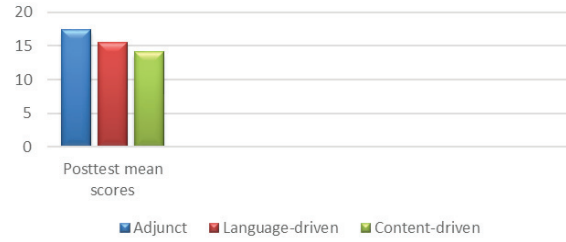

Figure 1. Mean analysis of post-test scores of three groups.

The line graph depicts the mean scores of two groups, the content-driven and language-driven, are lower than the mean scores of the Adjunct group that received the blended model of instruction. In other words, the Adjunct group performed better in terms of the reading comprehension skill.

Discussion

Through analyzing the data obtained from the reading comprehension test administrated as the final exam and comparing outcomes of the control and experimental groups, it was found that the adjunct model was pedagogically considered a superior way of teaching EAP courses because it produced certain meritorious features.

The finding of this study is consistent with the results of the study done by Cario Pastor and Perry (2010). They used an adjunct model of instruction at the Universidad Politecnica de Valencia and concluded that the collaboration between the content and language teachers enhanced interpersonal communication, encouraged students, and took into accounts the needs of the learners. It also accords with the earlier observations of Flowerdew (1993), Iancu (1997), Coyle (2005), Marsh (2009), Morton (2009), and Wolff (2009) who all believe that an academic subject should be taught as a single subject with close cooperation between content teachers and language teachers. In their view, both content and language teachers should have equal importance and allow different aspects of a subject to be focused on. It also further supports the idea of Mehrabi and Boshrabdi (2016) who insist on scaffolding Iranian EAP learners through team teaching to improve their reading comprehension.

The results of this study are also in accordance with Khales Haghghi and Abdollahi's (2014) research that was conducted on 52 students by employing a quasi-experimental, pre-test–post-test design. The experimental groups were taught by two types of adjunct model of teaching: team teaching and station teaching. Their findings revealed that both experimental groups outperformed their peers in the control group in terms of the reading comprehension skill.

However, the study does not support the findings of Vosoughi, Ghahremani Ghajar, and Navarchi's research (2019) that demonstrated that collaborative instruction is so complicated due to some reasons related to mismatching psychological characteristics of content and language instructors as well as some flawed educational arrangements in the country.

Conclusion

Evidently, the paper has tried to prove the efficacy of the adjunct model of instruction in EAP learners' reading comprehension skill. The main conclusions from our study can be summarized as follows:

- The reading comprehension skill of L2 learners who receive content-driven instruction cannot significantly improve in comparison with the reading skill of those learners who are provided with the language-driven and adjunct model of instruction.
- Language-driven instruction that mainly uses English for teaching the language itself with the secondary emphasis on the content could lead to better results in terms of reading comprehension in comparison with content-driven instruction.
- The adjunct model of instruction as a dual-focused educational approach in which English is used for teaching and learning the content and language can considerably enhance EAP learners' reading comprehension skill.

The finding could enhance our understanding of the unique nature of English for Academic Purposes (EAP) courses which require a somewhat different pedagogical approach compared with traditional approaches used for general English courses. Various EAP classes taught either the language teacher or the content teacher perform poorly on the final exam which is mainly composed of reading comprehension questions.

It seems that the pedagogical efficacy of collaboration and teamwork between language and content teachers in EAP courses may bring the linguistic input closer to the required needs of the EAP learners. In other words, the complimentary role of language and content teaches provides extra motivation because the subject concepts are described along with language skills.

The pedagogical implications from this research are hoped to be practical to the practitioners involved in EAP, in particular to those dealing with the teaching of the reading comprehension skill. Theoreticians may also find the results useful to implement further research. More specifically, the findings of this research can contribute to a better curricula planning for EAP courses.

Finally, some limitations need to be considered. First, due to the strict policies and rigid timetable of the university, we were not allowed to administer a pretest prior to the treatment. In addition, the study lacked the multiple qualitative instruments for data collection. For instance, an online attitude survey could reflect more about the participants' opinions on the adjunct model of instruction. Such studies should elicit opinions of instructors as well as the participants.

Based on the mentioned limitations, further investigation is needed to assess the efficacy of team teaching through online platforms, particularly during the COVID-19 outbreak when L2 learners need more scaffolding strategies. It is suggested that future studies be undertaken to examine the impacts of a collaborative form of teaching that is a content and language integration on other skills, such as writing and speaking. Furthermore, this study was limited to the students of architectural engineering; future researchers can replicate the current study in other universities and students of other majors. Finally, a further study based on a pre-test–post-test design is highly suggested.

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Mahzad Karimi, Elahe Ghorbanchian

Zum Einfluss des förderorientierten Unterrichts auf Leseverständnisfähigkeiten der EAP-Lernenden

Zusammenfassung

Angesichts eines raschen Übergangs zum Online-Unterricht während der COVID-19-Pandemie scheint es angebracht, die neueste Entwicklung in die Methodik des Sprachunterrichts

miteinzubeziehen, insbesondere den pädagogischen Nutzen der neuen Modelle von English für akademische Zwecke (EAP). Dementsprechend bestand das Hauptziel der vorliegenden Studie darin, die Wirksamkeit des im Unterricht eingesetzten Fördermodells hinsichtlich der Verbesserung von allgemeinen Leseverständnisfähigkeiten iranischer Architekturstudenten in Online-EAP-Kursen zu untersuchen. Als Probanden wurden die Architekturstudenten der Isfahan University of Art – drei komplette Gruppen mit jeweils 35 Studierenden im zweiten Studienjahr – ausgewählt. Die erste Gruppe wurde von einem Sprachlehrer (sprachorientierte Gruppe), die zweite von einem Fachlehrer (fachorientierte Gruppe) und die dritte nach dem Fördermodell, an dem sowohl Fach- als auch Sprachlehrer beteiligt waren, unterrichtet. Am Ende des Semesters wurde ein Leseverständnistest für alle Studierenden durchgeführt. Die Analyse der Ergebnisse mittels einer einseitigen ANOVA sowie die Post-hoc-Analyse zeigten, dass die Studenten der nach dem Fördermodell unterrichteten Gruppe bei dem Test besser abgeschnitten hatten als die der anderen beiden Gruppen.

Schlüsselwörter: Fördermodell, EAP-Unterricht, Online-Unterricht, Leseverständnis

Appendix A

Letter of Information

Dear Professor…
Our names are Mahzad Karimi and Elahe Ghorbanchian. We are English instructors, working at the *Foreign Language Department*. We are currently conducting research on the impact of the adjunct model of instruction on Iranian EAP learners' reading comprehension. We would like to invite you to participate in the study because your mastery of architectural subjects will be required. We truly believe that an online team-teaching during the COVID-19 pandemic when there are no in-person classes could assist engineering students to learn English.

If you agree to participate in this research study:

1. You may be contacted to patriciate in a debriefing session remotely through a telephone or virtual communication. It will take approximately 90 minutes to design a collaborative curriculum.

2. This semester will be scheduled in 90-minute sessions held in 16 weeks. The time and length of the instruction can be negotiated. However, ideally, each session should be split in half, half-time spent on teaching architectural subjects and the other half on teaching language-related topics, such as grammar and vocabularies.

Risks & Benefits

There are no known or anticipated risks or discomfort associated with participating in this study. You may benefit from the results of the study in terms of how engineering students can develop their L2 knowledge as well as the contents embedded in their course books.

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The Effects of Mobile-mediated Explicit and Implicit Feedback on EFL Learners' Use of English Prepositions

Abstract

Making mistakes is a natural part of learning process requiring correction; accordingly, corrective feedback is indispensable. On this ground, the present study compared the effects of mobile-mediated explicit and implicit corrective feedback on Iranian EFL learners' use of English prepositions of manner and movement. To this end, the participants including 60 learners were randomly assigned to three groups of 20 individuals on WhatsApp application. These three groups included two experimental and one control groups. The treatment groups sat for a pre-test, received instruction on the errors under study, and practiced correcting them in response to the corrective feedback condition. Next, participants took immediate post-test and delayed post-test. The statistical analysis revealed that although the control group was more proficient than its experimental counterparts on the pre-test, their performance did not improve on immediate and delayed post-tests. However, both of the experimental groups significantly improved on immediate post-test and retained their gains on the delayed post-test. The pedagogical implication is provided for both teachers and learners.

Keywords: mobile-mediated corrective feedback, explicit corrective feedback, implicit corrective feedback, prepositions

Mobile-assisted language learning (MALL) has drastically drawn both theoretical and empirical attention over the past few decades. This spread is testified around the globe as a result of progress in the amalgamation of technologies into educational curricula and syllabi. Integration of technologies into educational contexts has brought about changes in classrooms; the digital transformation and usage in the classrooms is one example. According to O'Bannon and Thomas (2014), the principle of "Bring Your Own Device" has been promoted by the popularity of mobile phones in classrooms. It is worth noting that some scholars have found that MALL has positive effects on learning processes (Kim et al., 2013). Furthermore, some scholars have argued for/against the efficiency of MALL (Baleghizadeh & Oladrostam, 2011; Darani & Golestan, 2017; Lu, 2008; Stockwell, 2011; Zhang et al., 2011).

Written corrective feedback (WCF) is considered an essential component of EFL/ESL writing classrooms all across the world and it is even assumed to be an indispensable part of writing classes by most L2 writing teachers and SLA researchers alike. Besides, according to Rassaei (2019), although the importance of corrective feedback (CF) for L2 development is well documented in SLA research as evidenced by several of meta-analyses (Li, 2010; Miller, 2003; Yousefi & Nassaji, 2019), the affordances that technology-based L2 instruction and in particular MALL create concerning CF are not well understood. More specifically, as mobile technology provides ubiquitous opportunities for language learning, the effectiveness of teachers' CF provided during mobile-mediated audio and video communication is less understood and merits further attention.

Even though Truscott (1996) argued in his article against the effectiveness of WCF, in a series of debates and dialogues, many articles attempted to argue for the effectiveness of WCF (e.g., Bitchener & Knoch, 2008a; Bitchener & Knoch, 2009a, b; Bitchener, Young & Cameron, 2005; Chandler, 2003; Ellis et al., 2008; Ferris, 2002; Sheen, 2007), claiming that WCF indeed assists EFL learners to promote grammatical accuracy. CF can be explicit or implicit (Zhao & Ellis, 2020, p. 2). Implicit corrective feedback (ICF) does not lead to realizing correction by learners. On the contrary, explicit corrective feedback (ECF) leads to realizing so. According to Zhao and Ellis (2020) cognitive theories differ in terms of their support for ECF and ICF. The vivid rationale that cognitive theory presents is Long's (1996) Interaction Theory. Long argues that the negotiation of meaning occurs while communication provides opportunity to fill the void of learners' interlanguage once problems arise through pushing them to modify their utterance. On the flip side, Noticing Hypothesis (Shmidt, 2001) claims that learners learn once they consciously pay heed to the input; as such, ECF is more effective because it boosts the probability of noticing and correction. Although most researchers are unanimous regarding the efficiency of CF on language acquisition (Nassaji, 2015), there are differences in the value that these theories

lay on ECF and ICF and the kind of learning that yields. Hence, as Karim and Endley (2019) argued, it seems that researchers have obtained mixed results in their findings and it is still not obviously clear-cut which type of WCF is more beneficial and efficient in improving EFL learners' grammatical accuracy. Moreover, according to Liu and Brown (2015), methodological limitations of 'one-session-long treatment' need to be taken into consideration because such short-term treatments question pedagogical validity. Similarly, with respect to this problem, Storch (2010) also asserts that "learning requires extensive and sustained meaningful exposure and practice" (p. 42). Additionally, regarding the length of the studies, Bitchener and Storch (2016) also noted that in order to find answers to questions such as why learners fail to benefit from WCF and more importantly why they cannot promote their accuracy over time, further studies containing more longitudinal investigations will be needed.

It is worth noting that prepositions of time and place were largely subject of the previous volumes on WCF (e.g., Beşkardeşler & Kocaman, 2019; Jusa & Kuang, 2016; Karim & Endley, 2019) and the other such prepositions as movement and manner through mobile-assisted CF have not been undertaken to the best of the authors' knowledge. Therefore, this quasi-experimental study was designed to address the aforementioned limitations of previous studies by involving multiple feedback sessions on multiple pieces of writing by scrutinizing the effects of ECF (by providing the correct form above the underlined error), and ICF (by simply underlying the observed error). Next, it examined which of these two types of WCF promoted long-term retention of the target structures and also their learning effects on subsequent writings over time.

Literature Review

Mobile-assisted Language Learning

MALL has become an attractive area of inquiry from the outset of the 21st century. The common employment of mobiles in educational contexts is upheld by such movements as "Bring Your Own Device," a large supply of mobiles among learners, and the prevalent satisfactoriness of mobile in filling the void between social and educational functioning of persons (O'Bannon & Thomas, 2014). Mobile learning is an evolutionary movement in technology in its expansive conceptualization providing opportunities, experiences, and emphasizing on supplying mobiles (McQuiggan et al., 2015). MALL is defined by using various technologies such as mobile phones, tablets, and similar computerized advancements (Hsu, 2016). Moreover, teachers do not deliver CF individually in

the classroom setting because of time constraints; the whole class is addressed to when providing CF (Li, 2010). Sheen (2008) found that learners were unable to process teacher feedback in classroom settings, which undermines the effectiveness of CF because learners nowadays are more engaged in mobile phones; as such, their learning processes occur on mobile applications. This might be eventuated in emaciation of classroom CF and the learners' proclivity to receive CF via mobile. Mobile devices provide convenience due to transformation without time and space constraints. Additionally, learners can flexibly communicate with each other with the arrival of new apps which provide them with opportunities to establish communication via voice, text, and video chats. Actually, these are the personal perspectives turning this technology striking in educational sites and allowing the users to transform language education. Hence, the benefits of mobile use are widely known in various aspects of language education involving learners' perceptions (e.g., Hsu, 2013; Kohnke, 2020), assessment purposes (e.g., Garcıa Laborda et al., 2014; Tarighat & Khodabakhsh, 2016), learning strategies (Qian, Owen, & Bax, 2018), and feedback (Ko, 2019). Furthermore, some recent studies have addressed the effectiveness of MALL in language education (e.g., Braine, 2001; Ebrahimpour, 2016; Ghorbani & Ebadi; 2020; Xodabandeh, 2017; Xu & Peng, 2017). However, these studies have not addressed CF in the form of MALL.

Written Corrective Feedback

Although the effect of CF on L1 is not dubious, researchers have concerted its effectiveness in foreign/second language betterment (Nassaji, 2008). In this vein, a substantial body of studies confirmed the effectiveness of CF on interlanguage development (Han, 2002; Ishoda, 2004; Iwashita, 2003; Leeman, 2003; Li, 2010; Lyster, Saito, & Sato, 2013; Mackey & Goo, 2007; McDonough & Mackey, 2006). According to Nelson and Schunn (2009), CF has two features; cognitive and affective. Nelson and Schunn (2009) stated that although cognitive and affective feedback were amalgamated, most studies have worked on the cognitive aspect, which is called cognitive feedback. Cognitive feedback comprises an evaluative perspective (verification, identification of problem, and statement of summary), an informative perspective (the source or site of the problem, explanation, hint, solution), and a metacognitive perspective (utilizing strategies, progress toward a desired goal) (Nelson & Schunn, 2009; Shute, 2008). Nelson and Schunn (2009) added that performance and understanding are intensely influenced via cognitive feedback. Corrective feedback is necessarily an instructional strategy contributing language learners to improve their written channels (Ferris, 2010). Corrective feedback, according to Nassaji (2018, p. 3), "refers to utterances that indicate to the learner implicitly or more explic-

itly that his or her output has an error in some way. Thus, it is a kind of negative evidence." Vigil and Oller (1976) classified CF into cognitive and affective. Ellis (2009) identified seven types of WCF such as direct, indirect, metalinguistic, focused and unfocused, electronic, and reformulation. One crucial issue which has drawn L2 researchers' attention over the last three decades is WCF and according to Ellis (1991), CF is regarded as a cardinal educational instrument in communicative approaches. Hence, the objective of providing learners with CF is to help them correct their mistakes and boost their accuracy as well as fluency. Researchers attempted to establish the efficiency of WCF in different aspects of foreign language learning. Schmidt (2001) proposed a noticing hypothesis as an indispensable model to include the efficiency of CF in oral and written language production. He further underscored the importance of noticing different linguistic forms in the process of learning. Gass and Lewis (2007) maintain that learners notice the gap between correct and incorrect form upon CF provision. Positive and negative evidence provision through various forms is imputed to CF efficacy (Swain & Suzuki, 2008).

The majority of studies on WCF examined assessing learner revisions through feedback and provided accounts that its impact on learners' grammatical accuracy in terms of original errors was both significant and positive (Ashwell, 2000; Ferris, 2006; Ferris & Roberts, 2001; Truscott & Hsu, 2008). Albeit positive effects of feedback on revisions have been indicated, these studies have been critiqued because learners' ability is not assured through succeeding in revisions on initial drafts as it does not betoken accurate production of target structures in new writings (Truscott, 1996). Hence, some studies have investigated the effects of text revision to enunciate if learning can occur through WCF (Bitchener, 2008; Bitchener & Knoch, 2009a, 2009b, 2010; Ellis et al., 2008; Farrokhi & Sattarpour, 2012; Frear & Chiu, 2015; Stenfanou & Revesz, 2015).

For example, although Sheen (2007) found that direct feedback and metalinguistic feedback did not significantly differ in the immediate post-test, metalinguistic feedback was favorable to direct feedback in the delayed post-test. Bitchener (2008) assessed the acquisition of English articles by immediate and delayed post-tests through different WCF. The results revealed that performance on delayed post-test by direct corrective feedback (DCF) plus written and oral metalinguistic explanation group and the DCF only group were better than control group's performance. Van Beuningen, de Jong, and Kuiken (2012) scrutinized 268 learners of high and low language proficiency in Dutch as L2 on revision and new writing tasks through direct and indirect unfocused WCF. These learners were divided into four groups exposing to DCF, indirect corrective feedback (ICF), self-correction, and practice. They have then been administered pre-test, post-test, and delayed post-test. The study indicated that

linguistic accuracy during revision and new writing improved through WCF on the delayed post-test.

The concentration of the majority of research scrutiny has moved from which sorts of corrective feedback are efficacious to probing what elements intercede their impact on their L2 learning because of the variability in research results. The most cardinal parameter which is in the limelight of the current study is the type of feedback focusing on prepositions of movement and manner as target structures.

The Effect of WCF on Prepositions

The effectiveness of WCF is mediated by some elements albeit its effects are demonstrated to be positive. For example, Bitchener, Young, and Cameron (2005) investigated the impact of DCF on prepositions, simple past tense, and definite articles among fifty-three learners who were assigned to DCF plus oral conference group, DCF only group, and the control group who were asked to write four compositions. The results revealed that the first group outperformed the last two ones on the simple past tense and definite article but there were no significant differences in prepositions.

In another study, Al Ajmi (2014) studied the impact of WCF provision on ten uses of English prepositions among Arab learners. The two groups whom the researcher randomly assigned were divided into experimental and control groups. They were administered pre-test, post-test, and delayed post-test and the last two tests showed the outperformance of the experimental group via running statistical analysis. The questionnaire analysis also indicated the profits of WCF. In a similar study, Beşkardeşler and Kocaman (2019) probed into studying the impact of WCF on the accuracy of prepositions of place and time among EFL students in L2 writing via administering pre-test, post-test, and delayed post-test to compare the effects of direct (un)focused WCF. The direct correction was dedicated to the focused WCF group which aimed at treating target structure only, while the unfocused WCF group was directly corrected on all of their errors plus the target structure errors. The intervention group outperformed the control one on the post-test and delayed post-test plus no significant difference was found between the two experimental groups in the short and long term which led to concluding the usefulness of (un)focused WCF. In order to discover if the efficaciousness of WCF differs on a specific number of prepositions, the present study focuses on different prepositions (i.e., prepositions of movement and manner). Albeit the above studies have demonstrated to be efficient on some specific type of prepositions, no study has been undertaken to assess preposition of movement and manner through WCF to the best of the researchers' knowledge.

The following questions guided this study:

1. Does mobile-mediated explicit corrective feedback influence Iranian EFL learners' use of prepositions?
2. Does mobile-mediated implicit corrective feedback influence Iranian EFL learners' use of prepositions?

Methodology

Participants

The participants were selected through a non-random convenience sampling method. Ninety participants constituted the original pool but 60 ones were sifted on the basis of Oxford Placement Test (OPT). The proficiency level of the participants of the current study was ascertained via administering OPT. Hence, 60 pre-intermediate Iranian students aged 17–20, studying English as a foreign language at a Language Institute were recruited as participants in this study. They were randomly assigned to three different chat rooms on WhatsApp application to receive explicit corrective feedback, implicit corrective feedback, and no CF provision.

Instruments

Oxford Placement Test

To check the homogeneity of the participants, OPT was utilized. It is a flexible test of English language proficiency developed by Oxford University Press and Cambridge ESOL that gives teachers a reliable and time-saving tool to learn about student's level of English (Hill & Taylor, 2004). It is easy to administer and ideal for placement testing and examination screening. The test has two parallel versions and takes approximately 30 minutes to administer.

All the questions of the test are in multiple-choice format; answers are recorded directly on the answer sheet, and the answer sheets can be quickly marked using the overlays provided. The test assesses the knowledge of English structure, and is considered as a global measure of ability in a language or other content areas. The test has high reliability ($\alpha = .91$) based on Cronbach's alpha (Berthold, 2011, p. 674) and high construct validity (Motallebzadeh & Nematizadeh, 2011; Wistner, Sakai, & Abe, 2009).

Writing Task

In the current study, picture prompts were employed to elicit the target structures. The participants were requested to describe the picture prompts representing a scene and to revise the descriptions over two weeks. They were asked to write a minimum of 20 sentences for each writing task in 30 minutes. Besides, a sample sentence was given to them as a model. On Day 2, having received the CF on their writings, participants revised the descriptions. The same procedure was continued in Week 2. Each student was asked to produce two new sentences in Weeks 3 and 4 in order to investigate the delayed effects of CF on their writing practices.

Accuracy Measure (Scoring Procedure)

Grammatical accuracy was the scoring target of every text. The texts were measured on a quantitative variable as conducted in the previous studies on the effectiveness of WCF (e.g., Bitchener et al., 2005). The percentage of incorrect use for each specific preposition was defined as a criterion of accuracy calculation. For instance, an error rate of 30% would indicate six inaccurate uses of a specific preposition from ten obligatory occasions. The intra-rater and inter-rater reliability level of the marks were also identified. In order to ascertain the intra-rater reliability, 50% of the texts were double marked by one of the researchers of the current study two months after the first marks were given and all the data were analyzed. Pearson correlation coefficients for the scores at two times for the four writing tasks were: 0.95 (Writing 1), 0.94 (Writing 2), 0.96 (Writing 3), and 0.93 (Writing 4). The Pearson correlation coefficients for the scores at two times for the two revision tasks were: 0.94 (Revision 1) and 0.95 (Revision 2). To check the inter-rater reliability, two EFL teachers scored 20% of the writings individually. Pearson correlation coefficients for the two scores in the four writing tasks were: 0.95 (Writing 1), 0.94 (Writing 2), 0.93 (Writing 3), and 0.94 (Writing 4). The Pearson correlation coefficients for the two scores in the two revision tasks were: 0.97 (Revision 1) and 0.98 (Revision 2).

Target Structure

The target structures of the current study were prepositions of manner and movement. Bitchener et al. (2005) studied and categorized some linguistic structures but prepositions were more problematic than other types of prepositions because of their similarity leading learners to confusion, for example, ‘up’ and

'over' and the interlanguage interference between Persian and English languages, which gives rise to Prator's split as the sixth level of difficulty (as cited in Brown, 2007), for example, با split into 'by' and 'with.' Further studies need to be carried out on the use of more than two structures to measure learners' retention to ensure the reliability of findings. Therefore, this study utilized prepositions of manner and movement which, to the best of our knowledge, have not been analyzed through written CF yet.

Procedure

The errors related to the abovementioned linguistic features in students' writings were corrected by one of the researchers. This syntactic structure was selected because as Nassaji and Swain (2010) pointed out, English prepositions are syntactic features that are less stressed in input than that of output. This means that students can better notice prepositions in their output rather than their input. In other words, learners find it relatively problematic to choose and use the appropriate preposition while producing language. However, they realize how important syntactic features are when they have to use them in the language production stage (output). By reading a text or even by listening to something in English, they do not encounter such a challenge. Additionally, EFL learners from different proficiency levels are always concerned about their accurate usage of prepositions in their oral and written productions lest they use prepositions incorrectly (Rassaei, 2019).

The researchers selected 90 learners based on convenience sampling as a population and administered OPT to guarantee their homogeneity; hence, 60 participants were sifted as a sample of the study. The sample was randomly assigned to two experimental and one control groups on WhatsApp application. Having been assigned to three groups of 20 individuals, they were given a pre-test writing task. Experimental groups received different WCF via WhatsApp as follows: Group A received explicit corrective feedback on their errors. ECF is explicitly reminding the student what the problem is through such techniques as an error code, a rule reminder, or a brief explanation (Bitchener, 2012) but only the last technique was utilized as well as the correct form provision. Group B received implicit corrective feedback. For group B, incorrect prepositions were simply underlined to make the student aware of an unspecified error via an underlined or highlighted text portion or a check-mark in the margin (Bitchener, 2012, p. 116). Group C, the control group, completed the writing tasks without any type of CF delivery.

Two treatment options including ECF and ICF were formed and each of the participants was assigned to one of the two error correction methods, randomly. Consider the following instances for ECF and ICF:

ECF
S: This movie is inspired from a book.
T: The preposition follows 'inspire' is 'by.' It does not take 'from.'
ICF
S: This movie is inspired from a book.
The teacher underlined the preposition produced wrongly.

The present study was carried out in five sessions of thirty minutes. Considering the interval between the sessions, the treatment procedure lasted about four weeks. Writing topics were given during the sessions for the three groups, taking learners' English level and linguistic competence into consideration. The participants produced new sentences in each session. They were given new picture prompts each session to ensure they can write accurately.

Group A received ECF on their errors, that is, incorrect prepositions were underlined with a red color and the correct forms were written in their place. Group B received ICF on their errors; phrases containing incorrect prepositions were underlined to indicate an error had been committed but no further information was supplied, and the last group received no treatment. Then, an immediate post-test was administered to the three groups. Eventually, both the control group and its experimental counterparts took a delayed post-test after two weeks of the immediate post-test.

Results

To examine the effects of ECF and ICF on prepositions of manner and movement, one-way ANOVA is run to see the gain scores. Descriptive statistics for pre-test, immediate post-test, and delayed post-test regarding the two CF conditions and control group displayed total mean and standard deviation (SD) of 34.16 and 19.68 on pretest, 66.16 and 13.75 on immediate post-test, 66.66 and 13.58 on delayed post-test, respectively. Before testing the research questions, the researchers performed tests of normality to ratify their homogeneity.

Table 1

Test of Normality on Three Test

Group		Kolmogorov-Smirnov			Shapiro-Wilk		
		Statistic	df	Sig.	Statistic	df	Sig.
Pretest	Explicit CF	.151	20	.20	.960	20	.542
	Implicit CF	.184	20	.07	.925	20	.123
	Control	.115	20	.20	.969	20	.730
Post-test	Explicit CF	.116	20	.20	.943	20	.278
	Implicit CF	.138	20	.20	.932	20	.169
	Control	.126	20	.20	.968	20	.703
Delayed	Explicit CF	.117	20	.20	.950	20	.361
Post-test	Implicit CF	.150	20	.20	.922	20	.110
	Control	.133	20	.20	.965	20	.650

As table 1 shows, the data are normally distributed on three tests ($P > .05$). Therefore, the proper test to compare each group on the tests is One-way ANOVA.

Table 2

One-way ANOVA for Accuracy Gains on Three Tests

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	Sig.
Pre-test				
Between Groups	16735.8			
Within Groups	6122.5	2	8367.9	
Total	22858.3	57	107.412	.00
		5	9	
Post-test				
Between Groups	2010.8	2	1005.4	
Within Groups	9157.5	57	160.6	.03
Total	11168.3	5	9	
Delayed post-test		2	1065.4	
Between Groups	2130.8	5	7	.02
Within Groups	8752.5	5	9	
Total	10883.3			

One-way ANOVA tests were carried out individually for each condition to find out which feedback type was more effective on each test. The table evinces that both CF condition groups were statistically more significant on immediate post-test and delayed post-test than pretest. To determine where the significant differences in accuracy gains lay between groups, post-hoc multiple comparisons were conducted using Scheffe.

Table 3

ANOVA: Comparing Error Rates of Writings on Immediate Post-test and Delayed Post-test

Groups		Mean Difference	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Explicit	Implicit	1.000	4.008	.96	–9.07	11.07
	Control	12.750	4.008	.00	2.67	22.82
Implicit	Explicit	–1.000	4.00	.96	–11.07	9.07
	Control	11.750	4.008	.01	1.67	21.82
Control	Explicit	–12.750	4.008	.00	–22.82	–2.67
	Implicit	–11.750	4.008	.01	–21.82	–1.67
Explicit	Implicit	–.750	3.918	.09	–10.59	9.09
	Control	12.250	3.918	.01	2.40	22.09
Implicit	Explicit	.750	3.918	.9	–10.59	9.09
	Control	13.00	3.918	.01	2.40	22.09
Control	Explicit	–12.250	3.918	.01	–22.09	–2.40
	Implicit	–13.000	3.918	.00	–22.84	–3.15

Post-hoc pairwise comparison using Scheffe tests revealed there is a statistically significant difference between the experimental and control groups. To put it differently, ECF and ICF groups outperformed on immediate post-test and delayed post-test concerning control group. However, the control group did not show progress from pretest through immediate post-test to delayed post-test. In addition, the differences in mean error rate scores corroborate this point. Post-hoc pairwise comparison of the mean error rate scores using Scheffe also demonstrates that the two experimental groups were successful in error reduction.

Discussion

This experimental study attempted to investigate the impact of explicit and implicit corrective feedback provided by WhatsApp application on Iranian EFL learners' use of prepositions of manner and movement.

ECF and ICF had a statistically significant effect on Iranian EFL learners' use of prepositions, $P < .05$. The result of this research question is in congruity with Beşkardeşler and Kocaman's (2019) study. They examined the effect of WCF on prepositions of time and place which evinced that the two experimental groups outperformed the control group. Likewise, Bitchener, Young, and Cameron (2005) studied the effect of different types of CF on ESL student writing. They emphasized on direct CF, explicit WCF only which led to the outperformance of experimental groups. The control group of the current study

were more proficient than its experimental counterparts on the pre-test but the experimental groups significantly improved on the immediate post-tests and the delayed post-tests; however, the control group did not improve on these tests, namely, their scores on the immediate post-tests and the delayed post-tests were almost unchanged in comparison to the pre-test.

Technology inherently motivates the learners (Stockwell, 2013) which we believe the use of MALL contributed to improve the target structure of the present research as teaching via technologies will enhance learner motivation. As the participants took part in this study eagerly through getting them apprised of the purpose and procedure of the study as well as their rights to voluntary participation and confidentiality, this perspective of the motivational capacity of new technologies might led to a better outcome. Furthermore, it can be said that MALL explicit and implicit focus on these two target structures were effective and led to the participants' significant gains which are incongruent with Corlet, Sharples, Bull, and Chan's (2005) study which found MALL to be ineffective in foreign/second language learning. This study also indicates the void between MALL and the work being performed on CF on language writing. In addition to MALL contribution to the learners' gains, the students in Iran are mostly acquainted with traditional assessment and are less allowed to voice their thoughts, to comment on their peers' assignments, and evaluate their learning and these are the teachers' responsibility; as such, the experimental groups significantly improved in learning the target structures that delivered on the part of the teachers. Some other studies also represent concerns towards MALL contending face-to-face mode of teaching leads to a better outcome than MALL classrooms (e.g., Lindblom-Ylanne & Pihlajamaki, 2003; Braine, 2001).

Both ECF and ICF were effective in promoting prepositions of manner and movement on subsequent writing tasks in case they are repeated because feedback repetition eventuates in recalling the mistakes they made. Interestingly, both CF conditions maintained the accuracy and error reduction after two weeks of immediate post-test. The error reduction was noticed as each session moved forward which is not following Truscott and Hsu's (2008) and Liu's (2008) findings because CF was delivered only one time, unlike the present study which provided CF multiple times. It can be repeatedly argued that CF provision is efficacious if it occurs in multiple sessions. Additionally, no variation between the two CF is observed, that is, both experimental groups were successful in the use of prepositions of manner and movement on pre-test and immediate post-test.

Conclusions

The current study was an attempt to compare the effect of mobile-mediated ECF and ICF on Iranian EFL learners' use of manner and movement prepositions through a quasi-experimental study. Data analysis revealed that the two experimental groups outperformed the control group on the target structures. Furthermore, although the control group's gain scores were higher than its experimental counterparts', they have not progressed on immediate post-test and delayed post-test; however, the experimental groups showed significant improvement on immediate post-test and retained their progress on delayed post-test as well.

The results of the study imply that as ECF and ICF were beneficial tools that resulted in betterment, teachers can give the learners opportunities to revise and edit their earlier drafts to gain the final correct draft which according to Loewen (2004) can lead to automatization from control. Finally, it is suggested that language teachers employ mobile apps for CF provision and other language activities.

The study has some limitations which should be acknowledged. A comparatively small sample was included in this study. Moreover, it was restricted to ECF and ICF. Further research is required to replicate this study using a larger sample with moderating role of gender, cognitive and perceptual style. Additionally, future researchers can take other proficiency levels into account. Another study can be carried out comparing ECF and ICF in MALL and face-to-face mode. Another limitation would be the lack of self-reported data from participants (questionnaire/interviews) to know their experiences and perceptions regarding the use of mobile phones to receive feedback, and the extent to which they were more motivated because of this.

Conflict of interest statement

On behalf of all authors, the corresponding author declares that there is no conflict of interest.

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Zum Einfluss des mobil vermittelten, expliziten und impliziten Feedbacks auf die Verwendung englischer Präpositionen durch EFL-Lernende

Zusammenfassung

Fehler zu machen ist ein natürlicher Bestandteil des Lernprozesses. Dementsprechend ist es erforderlich, ein korrigierendes Feedback zu geben. In diesem Zusammenhang wurde in der vorliegenden Studie der Einfluss des mobil vermittelten, expliziten und impliziten korrigierenden Feedbacks auf die Verwendung englischer modaler und lokaler Präpositionen durch iranische EFL-Lernende analysiert. Zu diesem Zweck wurden insgesamt 60 Probanden nach dem Zufallsprinzip in drei WhatsApp-Gruppen zu je 20 Personen eingeteilt – zwei Versuchs- und eine Kontrollgruppe. Die Probandengruppen nahmen an einem Prätest teil, erhielten Anweisungen zu den untersuchten Fehlern und korrigierten sie in Anlehnung an korrigierendes Feedback. Anschließend wurde ein Post- und ein Follow-up-Test durchgeführt. Die statistische Analyse ergab, dass obwohl die Probanden in der Kontrollgruppe im Prätest besser als die in den Versuchsgruppen abgeschnitten hatten, konnten sie ihre Leistungen im Post- und im Follow-up-Test nicht verbessern. Die Teilnehmer der beiden Versuchsgruppen verbesserten hingegen ihre Ergebnisse im Posttest und konnten die erzielten Fortschritte im Follow-up-Test beibehalten. Abschließend wurden die pädagogischen Implikationen sowohl für Lehrkräfte als auch für Lernende abgeleitet.

Schlüsselwörter: mobil vermitteltes korrigierendes Feedback, explizites korrigierendes Feedback, implizites korrigierendes Feedback, Präpositionen

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Mentoring as Professional Development for Mentors

Abstract

The present paper concerns the topic of mentoring in the context of pre-service teacher education. Mentoring refers here to assistance or guidance provided by a school-based teacher who agrees to mentor a student teacher during her or his practicum. More specifically, the paper examines if mentoring can be recognized as a form of professional development for mentor teachers. While a great deal of literature has looked at the benefits student teachers gain from mentoring, an ongoing line of research has acknowledged that teachers in their roles as mentors also can benefit professionally from the experience of mentoring. However, the bulk of this research comes from the Anglo-Saxon context and it cannot be assumed that the experiences of British, American or Australian teachers are shared by teachers in Poland. The aim of the present study then was to identify the ways in which Polish teachers of English who have undertaken the role of a mentor develop professionally through mentoring. The instrument used was a web-based questionnaire. The main findings show that mentor teachers gain professionally primarily through the process of mentoring—being a mentor enhances their capacity for self-reflection and positively impacts their leadership skills, confidence as a teacher, willingness to self-develop, as well as their enthusiasm and commitment to teaching. On the other hand, mentors do not feel they learn directly from student teachers, although, in general, they recognize cooperation with student teachers as an inspirational and positive experience.

Keywords: teachers of English, mentoring, professional development for mentors, student teaching

Introduction: Terms Explained

Mentoring is "one-to-one support of a novice or less experienced practitioner (mentee) by a more experienced practitioner (mentor), designed primarily to assist the development of the mentee's expertise and to facilitate their

induction into the culture of the profession […]" (Hobson, Ashby, Malderez & Tomlinson, 2009, p. 207). A different definition presents mentoring as "an intentional pairing of an inexperienced person with an experienced partner to guide and nurture his or her development" (Pitton, 2006, p. 1, cited in Beutel & Spooner-Lane, 2009, p. 351). In the context of pre-service teacher education, mentoring refers to assistance provided to a student completing the student teaching portion of their education program by a more experienced teacher in her or his classroom. Teachers in their roles as mentors have been labelled a number of terms across the research literature. Le Cornu (2015, p. 3, cited in McDonough, 2018, p. 99) identified the following: supervising teachers, mentor teachers, associate teachers, co-operating teachers and school-based teacher educators, with the first two being most commonly used in recent research. Although the distinction between mentor and supervisor is not always acknowledged and some studies use these terms interchangeably, the current literature offers a more nuanced definition of both concepts. While supervision bases mostly on technical procedures, such as explaining, providing feedback, and generally modelling one's protégés according to certain standards, mentoring is a much deeper process that involves interpersonal and psychosocial development of the mentee and is intended to foster the formation of her or his identity as a professional teacher (Walkington, 2005, p. 63). Although both mentoring and supervision can be hierarchical in nature, mentoring implies greater collegiality between the classroom teacher and student teacher, which means their relationship is more likely to be based on dialogue and reciprocity (Ambrosetti, 2014, p. 31, Carruthers, 1993, cited in Walkington, 2005, p. 56). As the current research literature has consistently presented the intended role of a school-based teacher as a guide (mentor) rather than a technician (supervisor) and the terms mentoring and mentor have become more pervasive, for the purpose of the present paper this terminology is adopted.[1]

[1] Mentor, mentor teacher, and mentoring teacher are used throughout this paper to denote a classroom-based teacher who has undertaken the role of a mentor. University student completing the student teaching portion of her or his education program is referred to as mentee and student teacher. Student teaching is also termed practicum. The term pupils is used to denote learners in school settings.

Literature Review

Mentoring as Professional Development for Mentees and Mentors

The benefits that student teachers derive from effective mentoring are varied and many, and have been exhaustively described in a spate of publications. It has been reported that mentoring and mentors: provide student teachers with emotional and psychological support (Hobson et al., 2009), exert an important effect on mentees' beliefs and their future practices (Evertson & Smithey, 2000), promote student teachers' teaching competence (Yuan, 2016), play a key role in the socialization of early-career teachers (Hobson et al., 2009; Yuan, 2016) and generally support the initial preparation, induction and early professional development of beginning teachers (Hobson et al., 2009; Lindgren, 2006; Marable & Raimondi, 2007).

While a great deal of literature has looked at the benefits student teachers derive from mentoring, an ongoing line of research has acknowledged that undertaking the role of a mentor brings numerous benefits for the mentor herself or himself. That student teachers can be used as a resource is presented, for example, in a study by Jaspers, Meijer, Prins, and Wubbels (2014, p. 112), where mentor teachers refer to mentees as a colleague, an additional value, and describe their presence as "having two more hands, eyes and ears in the class." The study reports that having student teacher in the classroom allows for the possibility of working with pupils in smaller groups and give teachers freedom to undertake other work in the school. Other possible benefits of working with mentees include: removing the isolation many teachers feel and creating a more collaborative environment (Gilles & Wilson, 2004, p. 91) and preventing teachers from feeling bored (Jaspers et al., 2014, p. 110).

However, the process of mentoring is said to have a much deeper impact on mentors—it has been demonstrated that mentoring is a powerful and cost-effective learning opportunity that promotes growth in both mentees and mentors. As reflected in the following citation by Lopez-Real and Kwan (2005, p. 16):

> […] there is no doubt that the major focus of mentoring is on the mentee. After all, the verb is a transitive one and implies that one is mentoring somebody […] that somebody is the student teacher and the whole emphasis of mentoring is on helping the student teacher become a competent professional. Nevertheless, there is some evidence in the literature that suggests the mentors themselves can also gain professionally from the process of mentoring.

This sentiment is echoed by Walkington (2005, p. 54) and worded as follows:

> […] each mentoring relationship with a pre-service teacher is unique and has learning opportunities for both parties. It is not a one-way transfer of skills and knowledge from expert to novice, but an opportunity for challenging those things that create personal philosophies and modes of operation.

The experience of mentoring provides teachers with benefits, rewards, and opportunities that help them develop their own teaching potential (Gilles & Wilson, 2004, p. 91). The following sections of the paper discuss different ways in which mentoring can enhance professional development of mentoring teachers. The paper is organized as follows: first, it is described how teachers in their roles as mentors benefit from the very process of mentoring, then it is presented what mentors can learn directly from mentees.

Learning from the Mentoring Process

It is recognized in the literature that mentoring is an opportunity for mentors to enhance their capacity for critical reflection and self-reflection (Ambrosetti, 2014; Jaspers et al., 2014; Gilles & Wilson, 2004; Smith & Nadelson, 2016; Lopez-Real & Kwan, 2005). The development of reflective abilities comes about via two avenues, as discussed by Lopez-Real and Kwan (2005, pp. 22–23). First, because mentors see themselves to be in the position of a role model, they decide to verify their teaching practices, attitudes or beliefs in order to set a good example for student teachers, which is likely to involve them in meaningful reflection. As put by one of the respondents in a study by Lopez-Real and Kwan (2005, p. 19):

> It makes you reflect on your own teaching when you know someone is trying to learn from what you are doing. So you put a lot of effort into the structure and what you are doing because you want it to be good. You don't want to give someone a bad example of how to teach.

Second, mentors who observe student teachers' lessons and provide them with post-lesson feedback tend to analyze the differences between their own and student teachers' performance, which, again, is likely to trigger reflection. As reported by Lopez-Real and Kwan (2005), mentors who get involved in reflective thinking during the practicum, are likely to continue practicing reflection after the mentee had finished their student teaching.

Apart from the development of reflective skills, other documented benefits that mentors derive from mentoring are a renewed enthusiasm for teaching

(Ambrosetti 2014; Hobson et al., 2009), increased confidence in their own teaching (Hobson et al., 2009) and the development of communication skills and leadership roles (Hudson, 2013a; Hudson, 2013b). As discussed in Jaspers et al. (2014, p. 110), mentors reported that mentoring "kept them fresh and sharp and prevented them from teaching too automatically and routinely and from getting bored." Gilles and Wilson (2004, p. 91) point out that through contacts with student teachers mentors often get reenergized in their profession. Mentoring teachers in a study by Jaspers et al. (2014, p. 110) have also reported that mentoring made them more confident in their own teaching because they realized they could help student teachers more than they had expected.

Learning from Student Teachers

That mentors can actually learn from mentees may seem somewhat ironic. After all, student teachers are explicitly in a learning situation and teachers in their roles as mentors epitomize wisdom and experience (Lopez-Real & Kwan, 2005, p. 20). Nonetheless, the studies adduced in this section give evidence that interaction with student teachers can be instructive and inspirational even for teachers with many years of experience.

Mentoring may be an opportunity for teachers to get inspired by student teachers' innovative ideas and points of view (Hobson et al., 2009; Jaspers et al., 2014; Rajuan, Beijaard & Verloop, 2007; Ulvik & Langørgen, 2012; Gilles & Wilson, 2004; Lopez-Real & Kwan, 2005; Hudson, 2013b). Student teachers may offer a fresh perspective because they view the classroom from an outsider's perspective that allows them to challenge what is considered 'the truth' in the classroom culture (Ulvik & Langørgen, 2012, p. 48). They are not tied to old habits, they view matters from a different angle and may offer new perspectives, for example, alternative practices, creative lesson ideas, new methods, teaching styles and strategies. Even expert veteran teachers are likely to gain new insights and benefit from innovative ideas that student teachers may have to offer. This practice is illustrated in the following comment by a mentor in a study by Hudson (2013b, p. 778): "The preservice teacher brings back all those great ideas, brings a little bit more creativity back into my teaching, and that made me think about maybe I need to do a bit more of that in my teaching."

A further contribution student teachers can make follows from their status as university students. Due to their current engagement with tertiary education, students are more updated as to current trends in teacher education, political trends in education, recent literature and recently recommended teaching methods (Lindgren, 2006; Hudson, 2013a; Gilles & Wilson, 2004). Teachers undertaking the role of a mentor can embrace this opportunity to get knowledge

about the latest educational theories, or to re-inform their teaching routine with theoretical, "bookish" knowledge that students are likely to have.

Ulvik and Langørgen (2012, p. 52) point out that because of their young age, student teachers are likely to be highly skilled in information and communication technology and know more about youth culture than older teachers. Student teachers' digital competence could be a valuable resource especially for teachers who are less IT-skilled and an opportunity to liven up traditional class instruction with some creative ICT usage. A further contribution student teachers can make, because of their familiarity with youth culture, is facilitating communication between the teacher and pupils and perhaps even acting as a mediator between the two parties. In this way, mentoring could serve as an opportunity for mentors to try to understand her or his pupils better.

Summing up, the research overview presented in this part of the paper discusses different benefits that teachers can derive from being a mentor. It has been pointed out that mentors can develop professionally by (1) benefitting from the process of mentoring and by (2) learning directly from student teachers. The former includes the development of reflective skills, as well as a boost in enthusiasm, confidence, communication and leadership skills. The latter involves getting inspired by new ideas, learning about current trends in education, improving one's digital competence and getting to know one's pupils better. Apart from this, mentors can make mentoring work to their advantage by treating student teachers as a resource. For instance, having student teacher in the classroom gives teachers a possibility to work with individual pupils or to undertake other work outside of the classroom.

The Study

The Aim of the Study and Research Question

The aim of the study presented in this paper is to identify the ways in which teachers of English who have undertaken the role of a mentor develop professionally through mentoring. The secondary aim is to examine if teachers make mentoring work to their advantage by using student teachers' help and treating them as a resource. In this study, we are interested in the Polish context because although the literature on mentoring among Polish teachers of foreign languages is vast (for English, e.g., Siek-Piskozub & Jankowska, 2015; for French, e.g., Grabowska, 2019; for German, e.g., Mihułka, 2016; for

Russian, e.g., Karolczuk, 2013), there are no studies (at least to the best of my knowledge) that deal specifically with this aspect of mentoring experience. The research cited in the theoretical part of this paper comes primarily from the Anglo-Saxon context, where mentoring has a long tradition, and where some teachers are given a possibility to attend mentor training programs (a course or a series of workshops designed to prepare teachers for the role as mentors). It cannot be assumed then that the experiences of British, American or Australian teachers are shared by teachers in Poland. The present study aims to answer the following research question: in what ways (if any) mentors develop professionally through mentoring?

Participants

Respondents selected for the study are teachers of English. As argued by Werbińska (2005), teachers of English tend to work more than teachers of other foreign languages because they have more opportunities for additional earnings. This is the result of the role of English as a lingua franca and its privileged position on the job market. It is teachers of English then that were selected for the present study because it is interesting to examine if this group of respondents is able to use mentoring as a learning opportunity, despite all the other responsibilities and roles they need to embrace as teachers, learners, and users of English.

The questionnaire was filled out by 36 teachers of English who have mentored at least one student teacher in the course of the last six years. Thirty-five respondents were female and one was male. Of these, 21 currently work in a primary school, 13 in a secondary school (*liceum*) and eight in a technical secondary school (*technikum*) – the sum exceeds the number of respondents because some of them work in more than one place. As far as work experience is concerned, two thirds of the respondents have between ten to 19 years of teaching experience, while the most numerous group of respondents (41.7%) have the teaching experience between 15 to 19 years. The detailed breakdown of the responses is provided in Table 1.

Table 1

Respondents' Teaching Experience

Years of experience	0–4	5–9	10–14	15–19	20–24	25–29	30–34	35–39	>40
Number of respondents	0	2	9	15	6	3	1	0	0

The respondents were asked about the number of student teachers they mentored in the last six years. More specifically, this question was divided into three parts:

How many student teachers did you have in your classroom in the last six years?
– who were only observing?
– who were only teaching?
– who were both observing and teaching?

The responses are summarized in the following Tables 2–4.

Table 2

The Number of Respondents Who Mentored Student Teachers Who Were Both Observing and Teaching

Number of student teachers	0	1–2	3–4	5–6	7–8	9–10	> 10
Number of respondents	0	28	6	0	2	0	0

Table 3

The Number of Respondents Who Mentored Student Teachers Who Were Only Observing

Number of student teachers	0	1–2	3–4	5–6	7–8	9–10	> 10
Number of respondents	12	13	6	1	2	0	2

Table 4

The Number of Respondents Who Mentored Student Teachers Who Were Only Teaching

Number of student teachers	0	1–2	3–4	5–6	7–8	9–10	> 10
Number of respondents	28	7	1	0	0	0	0

As can be seen from Table 2, all the respondents mentored at least one student teacher whose practicum included both elements: student teacher observed the lessons and carried out lessons on her or his own. Apart from this, as presented in Tables 3 and 4, most teachers also have experience mentoring student teachers whose practicum included only observation or only teaching component.

Asked if they feel successful in their role of mentor, 20 respondents (55.6%) gave a positive answer, while 15 teachers (41.7%) had no opinion. Only one respondent (2.8%) indicated that she felt unsuccessful in her role as a mentor.

The Instrument

The instrument used for collecting data was a web-based questionnaire consisting of three parts followed by demographics questions (see Appendix). The three parts of the questionnaire include statements to which participants

were asked to respond using a 5-point Likert scale (1—I strongly disagree, 2—I somewhat disagree, 3—I have no opinion, 4—I somewhat agree, 5—I strongly agree).

The first part of the questionnaire, entitled "Learning from the mentoring process," includes ten statements that ask respondents if being a mentor increased their reflective skills, enthusiasm for teaching, confidence as a teacher, commitment to teaching, motivation to improve their English, willingness to self-develop, communication skills and leadership skills. The second part of the questionnaire, entitled "Learning from student teachers," encompasses seven statements that ask teachers if mentees inspired them with new ideas or teaching methods and, more generally, if cooperation with student teacher was instructive and inspirational for them. The statements also inquire whether respondents managed to learn something from student teachers and whether the presence of student teacher contributed to better relations between the teacher and pupils.

The third part of the questionnaire, entitled "Student teacher as a resource," includes five statements that ask respondents if mentees shared teaching materials with them and if the presence of student teacher allowed for the possibility to work with individual pupils or to undertake other tasks in the school. The last two statements are of a more general nature and inquire if respondents feel that cooperation with student teacher was a positive experience and if it constituted a welcome diversion from the classroom routine. The statements in this part of the questionnaire were intended to examine whether respondents used student teachers as a resource—as described in the theoretical part of this paper, student teachers are perceived by some teachers as "an additional value" (Jaspers et al., 2014, p. 112) that relieves teachers from some duties and prevents them from feeling isolated and bored. The three parts of the questionnaire are followed by demographics questions that inquire about respondents' sex, teaching experience, the number of student teachers they mentored in the course of the last six years, the type(s) of school they currently work in and about whether they feel successful as mentor teachers. Additionally, as all of the questions in the main part of the questionnaire are close-ended, three open-ended, non-obligatory questions were added. These questions ask teachers if there are any other mentoring-related experiences they want to share and encourage them to leave any comment related to mentoring or the questionnaire they feel like. The language of the questionnaire is English, with the exception of the last question that inquires about the type of school respondents work in. As Polish, British, and American educational systems differ considerably and there is no clear one-to-one correspondence of the names of different school types, this question was worded in Polish for the sake of simplicity.

Procedures

The questionnaire was distributed through a social networking service, namely Facebook, by being placed on the pages of three groups created for and run by in-service teachers of English. These groups serve as a forum for teachers to share ideas, ask and answer questions and, generally, talk about all teaching-related topics. They were chosen for the purpose of this study because they provide access to many teachers of English of different backgrounds from across Poland, some of whom may have experience as mentors. The questionnaire was accompanied by a short note which spelled out the criteria that teachers taking part in the study need to meet. These included:

1. being a teacher of English;
2. having at least one student teacher for practicum in the course of the last six years;
3. the practicum included both elements: student teacher observed the lessons and conducted solo teaching.

As far as criterion (2) is concerned, it was decided not to collect responses from those teachers who served as mentors more than six years ago because it can be argued that the memories after such a long period of time are less likely to be accurate. Teachers who had experience mentoring more than one student teacher were asked to think about the most recent one when answering the questions. The respondents were briefly informed about the aim of the study and assured of their anonymity.

Results and Discussion

The results are discussed separately for the three parts of the questionnaire. The statistics for each of these groups of questions are presented in Tables 5–7. The original 5-point Likert scale, with "I strongly disagree" and "I strongly agree" at the extremes, has been collated into three categories and presented as percentages. Cronbach's alpha calculated for the whole questionnaire (the three groups of questions) amounts to 0.92, which renders the questionnaire internally consistent. Although the questionnaire included some open-ended questions, these were not obligatory and no relevant responses were recorded.

Learning from the Mentoring Process

The first part of the questionnaire, presented in Table 5, was designed to inquire whether mentoring teachers develop professionally through the process of mentoring.

Table 5

Percentages, Mean and Standard Deviation for Statements Concerning Development from Mentoring

Learning from the mentoring process	1	2	3	4	5	Mean	SD
1. I feel that being a mentor has increased my reflective skills.	2.8%	0.0%	8.3%	44.4%	44.4%	4.28	0.84
2. Having a student teacher observe my classes has made me reflect on whether what I do in the classroom is right.	8.3%	5.6%	8.3%	33.3%	44.4%	4.00	1.22
3. Observing the lessons run by a student teacher has made me reflect on my own teaching.	5.6%	5.6%	11.1%	30.6%	47.2%	4.08	1.14
4. I feel that being a mentor has increased my enthusiasm for teaching.	8.3%	5.6%	22.2%	38.9%	25.0%	3.67	1.15
5. I feel that being a mentor has increased my confidence as a teacher.	11.1%	5.6%	13.9%	27.8%	41.7%	3.83	1.32
6. I feel that being a mentor has increased my commitment to teaching.	11.1%	5.6%	19.4%	33.3%	30.6%	3.67	1.27
7. I feel that being a mentor has increased my motivation to improve my English.	27.8%	22.2%	33.3%	8.3%	8.3%	2.47	1.21
8. I feel that being a mentor has increased my willingness to self-develop.	8.3%	5.6%	19.4%	38.9%	27.8%	3.72	1.17
9. I feel that being a mentor has improved my communication skills.	11.1%	11.1%	36.1%	27.8%	13.9%	3.22	1.16
10. I feel that being a mentor has improved my leadership skills.	8.3%	2.8%	13.9%	36.1%	38.9%	3.94	1.18
					Total	**3.69**	**1.17**

As many as 88.8% of the teachers stated that being a mentor increased their reflective skills, while 2.8% expressed the opposite view (M = 4.28). 77.7% of the respondents declared that being observed by the student teacher made them reflect on whether what they do in the classroom is right and 13.9% did not agree (M = 4.00). 77.8% of the respondents stated that observing the lessons run by a student teacher made them reflect on their own teaching; 11.2% provided

a negative answer (M = 4.08). These results show that the teachers feel very strongly that being a mentor enhanced their reflective abilities. Interestingly, it is both, observing and being observed while teaching that seem to involve mentors in reflective thought.

63.9% of the respondents claimed that being a mentor increased their enthusiasm for teaching, while 13.9% did not agree (M = 3.67). 69.5% of the informants felt that being a mentor increased their confidence as a teacher; 16.7% articulated the opposite view (M = 3.83). 63.9% of the informants felt that being a mentor increased their commitment to teaching; 16.7% provided a negative answer (M = 3.67). 66.7% of the respondents stated that being a mentor increased their willingness to self-develop, with 13.9% taking the opposite point of view (M = 3.72). 75% of the respondents declared that being a mentor improved their leadership skills; 11.1% did not agree (M = 3.94). A statement that obtained a relatively moderate response inquired if being a mentor helped the respondents improve their communication skills—41.7% of the respondents answered affirmatively, 22.2% did not agree, while 36.1% had no opinion (M = 3.22). The responses to the above statements indicate that most respondents feel that being a mentor helped them gain professionally by improving their leadership skills, as well as increasing their confidence, willingness to self-develop, enthusiasm for teaching and commitment to teaching.

The statement that was assigned a relatively low mean rating asked if respondents feel that being a mentor increased their motivation to improve their English, to which only 16.6% answered affirmatively, 50% responded negatively and 33.3% had no opinion (M = 2.47). Respondents do not feel that being a mentor had any impact on their motivation to improve their English language skills.

Summing up the results of this part of the questionnaire, mentor teachers do seem to develop through the process of mentoring. The statements that inquire about reflection were assigned mean ratings that equal to or are higher than 4.00. It can be stated then that the development of reflective skills is one of the most considerable benefits that teachers derive from their roles as mentors. The experience of mentoring also seems to contribute to the enhancement of teachers' leadership skills, confidence, willingness to self-develop, enthusiasm for teaching, commitment to teaching and communication skills (the last one to a lesser extent though). What seems to be unaffected by the presence of student teacher is teachers' motivation to improve their English.

Learning from Student Teachers

The second part of the questionnaire, presented in Table 6, was intended to examine if mentor teachers develop by learning directly from mentees.

Table 6

Percentages, Mean and Standard Deviation for Statements Concerning Learning from Student Teachers

Learning from student teachers	1	2	3	4	5	Mean	SD
1. Student teacher inspired me with some new lesson ideas or interesting teaching methods.	8.3%	13.9%	22.2%	33.3%	22.2%	3.47	1.21
2. I learnt from the student teacher about current trends in education, recent literature or recently recommended teaching methods.	36.1%	30.6%	13.9%	16.7%	2.8%	2.19	1.17
3. I learnt some English from the student teacher (words, phrases, pronunciation of some words, grammar point, etc).	47.2%	22.2%	22.2%	8.3%	0.0%	1.92	1.01
4. I learnt something from student teacher's IT skills.	19.4%	16.7%	11.1%	25.0%	27.8%	3.25	1.50
5. Having a student teacher was instructive and/or inspirational for me.	11.1%	11.1%	19.4%	33.3%	25.0%	3.50	1.28
6. Having a student teacher has made me get to know/understand my pupils better.	36.1%	27.8%	19.4%	13.9%	2.8%	2.19	1.15
7. Having a student teacher has helped me have better rapport with my pupils.	41.7%	19.4%	33.3%	5.6%	0.0%	2.03	0.99
					Total	**2.65**	**1.19**

Only three statements were assigned a mean rating higher than 3.00 and these are as follows. 58.3% of the respondents stated that having a student teacher in the classroom was instructive and/or inspirational for them, while 22.2% did not agree (M = 3.50). 55.5% of the informants declared that the student teacher inspired them with some new lesson ideas or teaching methods, with 22.2% taking the opposite point of view (M = 3.47). 52.8% of the teachers declared that they learnt something from the student teacher's IT skills and 36.1% articulated the opposite view (M = 3.25). These results show that most of the respondents appreciate student teachers' digital literacy and recognize cooperation with student teacher as inspirational.

The remaining questions were assigned relatively low mean ratings. 19.5% of the respondents stated that they learnt from the student teacher about cur-

rent trends in education, recent literature or recently recommended teaching methods, while 66.7% provided a negative answer (M = 2.19). 16.7% of the informants felt that cooperation with the student teacher let them understand/get to know their pupils better, while 63.9% were of the opposite opinion (M = 2.19). 5.6% of the respondents declared that the presence of the student teacher helped them have better rapport with their pupils and 61.1% did not agree (M = 2.03). Most of the respondents do not feel they made use of the student teachers' knowledge of current trends in education. It also seems that the presence of the mentee is of little consequence to the rapport between the teacher and pupils.

The statement that was assigned the lowest mean rating asked respondents whether they learnt some English (words, phrases, pronunciation of some words, grammar points, etc.) from student teacher—8.3% of the respondents answered this question affirmatively and as many as 69.4% responded negatively (M = 1.92). The teachers decisively reject the idea that their English improved thanks to student teachers. This corresponds to one of the statements in the previous group of questions that asked whether being a mentor increased the teachers' motivation to improve their English—the respondents declared it did not.

Summing up the results of this part of the questionnaire, the respondents do not feel they learn directly from the student teachers. Mentoring teachers do not relate to questions that asked whether cooperation with the student teachers improved their English language skills or increased their knowledge of trends in education. An important exception is digital competence—most respondents state that their computer skills improved thanks to student teachers' advanced digital literacy. Having a student teacher in the classroom seems to hold no significance for the relations between the teacher and pupils. However, most of the respondents acknowledge that interaction with student teacher was inspirational and/or instructive for them.

Student Teacher as a Resource

The third part of the questionnaire, presented in Table 7, was designed to examine if teachers make the most of mentoring by treating student teachers as a "helping hand."

Table 7

Percentages, Mean and Standard Deviation for Statements Concerning Using Student Teachers as a Resource

Student teacher as a resource	1	2	3	4	5	Mean	SD
1. Student teacher shared with me some teaching materials or Internet websites.	16.7%	30.6%	25.0%	16.7%	11.1%	2.75	1.23
2. The presence of a student teacher made it possible to work with small groups of pupils or individual pupils.	11.1%	25.0%	44.4%	13.9%	5.6%	2.78	1.00
3. Having a student teacher made it possible for me to undertake other tasks in the school.	30.6%	33.3%	16.7%	13.9%	5.6%	2.31	1.20
4. For me, having a student teacher was a positive experience.	8.3%	0.0%	8.3%	36.1%	47.2%	4.14	1.13
5. For me, having a student teacher was a nice diversion from the classroom routine.	5.6%	2.8%	2.8%	44.4%	44.4%	4.19	1.02
					Total	**3.23**	**1.12**

27.8% of the respondents admitted that the student teachers shared with them some teaching materials or Internet websites, while 47.3% responded to this statement negatively (M = 2.75). 19.5% of the mentoring teachers stated that the presence of the student teacher allowed for the possibility to work with individual pupils or small groups, 36.1% answered this question negatively, while 44.4% had no opinion (M = 2.78). 19.5% of the mentoring teachers declared that the presence of the student teacher made it possible for them to undertake other tasks in the school, while as many as 63.9% expressed the opposite view (M = 2.31).

The last two questions were of a more general nature and inquired whether teachers feel that cooperation with a student teacher was a positive experience for them and if it constituted a welcome diversion from the classroom routine. As many as 83.3% of the respondents stated that for them cooperation with student teacher was a positive experience; only 8.3% responded negatively (M = 4.14). The last question of the questionnaire received an even more positive response—88.8% of the participants declared that the presence of the student teacher was a nice diversion from the classroom routine, while only 8.4% articulated the opposite view (M = 4.19).

Summing up the results of this part of the questionnaire, the respondents do not perceive the presence of the student teacher as "having two more hands, eyes and ears in the class" (Jaspers et al., 2014, p. 112), or, in other words, they do not feel that student teachers relieve them from classroom duties. Optimistic results were, however, obtained in response to the last two

statements—cooperation with a student teacher is recognized as a positive experience and a break from the class routine. This may suggest that although teachers do not treat student teachers as a resource, they appreciate their presence as a source of company and diversion.

Limitations of the Study

Several limitations of the study should be noted. First, data were gathered from a small number of participants (N = 36), which partly resulted from the fact that the criteria the respondents had to meet to fill out the questionnaire were quite stringent (see section Procedures). Second, due to the self-selecting nature of the sample, caution needs to be taken in interpreting the data. Inviting people to participate in the study may be open to bias as a given topic may draw attention of a particular group of respondents. Third, the perceptional and attitudinal nature of this study means that the data only reflect self-reported perceptions of mentoring teachers rather than hard facts. Further, the study provides only quantitative data. Integrating both quantitative and qualitative methods based on interviews, narratives, and classroom observations could greatly enhance the trustworthiness and reliability of the findings. Taking all of the above into account, it can be stated that the study may lack universal validity and should therefore be considered as suggestive rather than conclusive. That said, it is also believed the results are still interesting in the sense that certain patterns emerged regardless of the limitations. It is hoped that the findings may serve as pointers for future research.

Conclusion

The aim of the study presented in this paper was to identify the ways in which mentors develop professionally through mentoring. The results show that they gain professionally primarily through the process of mentoring—being a mentor enhances their capacity for self-reflection and positively impacts their leadership skills, confidence as a teacher, willingness to self-develop, enthusiasm for teaching and commitment to teaching. Mentor teachers do not seem to benefit professionally through direct interaction with student teachers, with the exception of digital competence—most of the respondents state that their computer-related skills improved thanks to the student teachers' advanced

digital literacy. Not insignificantly though, teachers recognize the presence of the mentee as inspirational and instructive. The secondary aim of the study was to examine whether teachers make mentoring work to their advantage by using student teachers as a resource. It seems that the respondents do not perceive student teachers as a "helping hand" and do not feel that student teachers relieve them from classroom duties. However, having a student teacher in the classroom is recognized as a positive experience and a break from the class routine.

Looking forward, future research could revisit these findings and probe further into teachers' minds. For example, it would be interesting to examine if mentor teachers actually recognize mentoring as a form of professional development and whether they entertain the possibility that student teachers may be in a position to teach them something. As observed by Ulvik and Langørgen (2012, p. 53), experienced teachers often "do not believe they have anything to learn from teachers who lack experience and knowledge of the context," although there is evidence (as discussed in the theoretical part of this paper) that student teachers may have a lot to offer. Also, it would be interesting to examine the attitudes towards mentoring held by teachers who have taken part in a mentor training program (a type of formal training for in-service teachers designed to prepare them for the role of a mentor). Programs of this kind are offered to teachers in some countries (e.g., the UK, the USA, Australia, the Netherlands) and as many as 80% of the teacher respondents in a study by Siek-Piskozub and Jankowska (2015, p. 217) declared to be interested in such training. It can be speculated that raising teachers' awareness of how they might use mentoring as a learning opportunity could help them approach their role as mentors more consciously.

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Appendix

Questionnaire

Learning from the mentoring process

1. I feel that being a mentor has increased my reflective skills.
I strongly disagree 1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5 I strongly agree

2. Having a student teacher observe my classes has made me reflect on whether what I do in the classroom is right.
I strongly disagree 1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5 I strongly agree

3. Observing the lessons run by a student teacher has made me reflect on my own teaching.
I strongly disagree 1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5 I strongly agree

4. I feel that being a mentor has increased my enthusiasm for teaching.
I strongly disagree 1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5 I strongly agree

5. I feel that being a mentor has increased my confidence as a teacher.
I strongly disagree 1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5 I strongly agree

6. I feel that being a mentor has increased my commitment to teaching.
I strongly disagree 1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5 I strongly agree

7. I feel that being a mentor has increased my motivation to improve my English.
I strongly disagree 1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5 I strongly agree

8. I feel that being a mentor has increased my willingness to self-develop.
I strongly disagree 1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5 I strongly agree

9. I feel that being a mentor has improved my communication skills.
I strongly disagree 1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5 I strongly agree

10. I feel that being a mentor has improved my leadership skills.
I strongly disagree 1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5 I strongly agree

Learning from student teachers

1. Student teacher inspired me with some new lesson ideas or interesting teaching methods.
I strongly disagree 1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5 I strongly agree

2. I learnt from the student teacher about current trends in education, recent literature or recently recommended teaching methods.
I strongly disagree 1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5 I strongly agree

3. I learnt some English from the student teacher (words, phrases, pronunciation of some words, grammar point, etc.).
I strongly disagree 1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5 I strongly agree

4. I learnt something from student teacher's IT skills.
I strongly disagree 1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5 I strongly agree

5. Having a student teacher was instructive and/or inspirational for me.
I strongly disagree 1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5 I strongly agree

6. Having a student teacher has made me get to know/understand my pupils better.
I strongly disagree 1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5 I strongly agree

7. Having a student teacher has helped me have better rapport with my pupils.
I strongly disagree 1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5 I strongly agree

Student teacher as a resource

1. Student teacher shared with me some teaching materials or Internet websites.
I strongly disagree 1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5 I strongly agree

2. The presence of a student teacher made it possible to work with small groups of pupils or individual pupils.
I strongly disagree 1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5 I strongly agree

3. Having a student teacher made it possible for me to undertake other tasks in the school.
I strongly disagree 1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5 I strongly agree

4. For me, having a student teacher was a positive experience.
I strongly disagree 1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5 I strongly agree

5. For me, having a student teacher was a nice diversion from the classroom routine.
I strongly disagree 1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5 I strongly agree

If there are any other things that you learnt in the course of mentoring, please, name them here.

If there are any other things student teacher helped you with, please, name them here.

Do you feel successful in your role of a mentor?
a) Yes
b) No
c) I don't know/It's difficult to say

If you have any comments, please, leave them here.

What is your sex?
a) female
b) male

What is your teaching experience?
– less than 5 years
– 5–9 years

– 10–14 years
– 15–19 years
– 20–24 years
– 25–29 years
– 30–34 years
– 35–39 years
– 40 or more

How many student teachers did you have in your classroom in the last 6 years?

Who were only observing:
– 0
– 1–2
– 3–4
– 5–6
– 7–8
– 9–10
– more than 10

Who were only teaching:
– 0
– 1–2
– 3–4
– 5–6
– 7–8
– 9-10
– more than 10

Who were both observing and teaching:
– 0
– 1–2
– 3–4
– 5–6
– 7–8
– 9–10
– more than 10

W jakiej szkole Pani/Pan pracuje? (można wybrać więcej niż jedną odpowiedź)
a) szkoła podstawowa
b) liceum ogólnokształcące
c) technikum
d) szkoła branżowa
e) inne_____

Aleksandra Szymańska-Tworek

Berufliche Entwicklung des Lehrpraktikumsbetreuers

Zusammenfassung

Der vorliegende Beitrag befasst sich mit dem Lehrpraktikum in der Schule und im Einzelnen mit der Betreuung eines Praktikanten durch den Lehrer (auch Lehrpraktikumsbetreuer bzw. Mentor genannt). Es wurde eine Reihe von Studien veröffentlicht, die sich der Entwicklung des Praktikanten widmen, der sich während des Lehrpraktikums ein strukturiertes Wissen über die schulische Realität, neue Fähigkeiten und eine neue Perspektive auf den Lehrprozess aneignet. Die in dem vorliegenden Beitrag aufgeführten Untersuchungen zeigen jedoch, dass die Praktikumserfahrung nicht nur die Entwicklung des Praktikanten, sondern auch die seines Betreuers-Mentors beeinflusst. Der Artikel befasst sich hauptsächlich mit der Frage, ob und inwiefern die Mentorenfunktion dem Praktikumsbetreuer zu seiner eigenen beruflichen Entwicklung verhelfen kann. Die meisten Untersuchungen zu diesem Thema wurden in angelsächsischen Ländern durchgeführt. Es mangelt allerdings an entsprechenden Untersuchungen unter den polnischen Lehrern. Die im Beitrag besprochene Untersuchung stellt einen Versuch dar, diese Lücke zu schließen. Die Probanden sind polnische Englischlehrer, die in den letzten sechs Jahren als Praktikumsbetreuer für mindestens einen Praktikanten fungiert haben. Es wurden zwei Aspekte behandelt: (1) ob sich die Praktikumsbetreuer durch die Mentorenfunktion weiterentwickeln, sowie (2) ob die Praktikumsbetreuer von den Praktikanten lernen können. Als Untersuchungsinstrument wurde ein Fragebogen gewählt. Die Ergebnisse der Umfrage zeigten, dass sich die Praktikumsbetreuer vor allem durch die Mentorenfunktion weiterentwickeln – die Betreuung eines Praktikanten erhöht ihre Fähigkeit zur (Selbst-)Reflexion und wirkt sich positiv auf ihre Führungsqualitäten, Selbstvertrauen, Motivation zur Weiterentwicklung, Enthusiasmus für das Unterrichten und Berufsidentität aus. Die Befragten erklären jedoch, dass sie nicht direkt von den Praktikanten lernen, obwohl sie die Möglichkeit der Zusammenarbeit mit einem Praktikanten als eine positive und inspirierende Erfahrung betrachten.

Schlüsselwörter: Englischlehrer, Lehrpraktikumsbetreuer, Mentor, berufliche Entwicklung des Mentors

Reviews

Theory and Practice of Second Language Acquisition
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Joseph Lo Bianco and Larissa Aronin (Eds.), *Dominant Language Constellations: A New Perspective on Multilingualism* Springer 2020, 301 pp.

The term 'dominant language' evokes negative connotations and conjures up thoughts of linguistic imperialism and hegemony. Yet, by adding just the single word 'constellations,' which refers to a group of similar items or qualities, we are presented with a construct that inverts the concept of dominance into a notion that has nothing to do with oppression or imposition of linguistic power to the individual or the community. Quite the contrary, in fact, since the Dominant Language Constellations (DLC) perspective, vigorously making its way into multilingualism studies, refers to "a group of one's most important (vehicle) languages, functioning as an entire unit, and enabling an individual to meet all his or her needs in a multilingual environment" (Aronin, 2016, p. 146).

The aim of the first of two interconnected volumes on DLC, under the general supervision of the eminent scholar Joseph Lo Bianco, is to provide a comprehensive definition of this new valuable construct, along with the qualities assigned to it by its architects. It also aspires to position DLC in the current discussions of multilingualism studies and to explain how DLC, in its own targeted way, can contribute to understanding the nature of multilingualism. Notably, it also provides academically fertile ground for studies guided by the DLC, which Aronin (2020) views as an approach to studying multilingual practices, with a variety of applications from scholars of different disciplines carrying out research in diverse cultural contexts across the globe. Those which contribute substantially to understanding of why and how to use DLC as perspective for researching multilingualism will be briefly discussed in the last part of this review. Its first and major part will be concerned with how, in the chapters authored by the volume editors, Lo Bianco and Aronin,

the DLC is built as a paradigm of its own accord—a perspective for the study of individual and social multilingualism and a "research model," but also in relation to two other notions—*translanguaging* and *language repertoire*—both of which have been gaining growing attention and increasingly surfacing in discussions concerning multilingualism and plurilingualism, particularly in the field of language and literacy education.

Let us start with the comparison between DLC and translanguaging, a concept that recently has been dominating academic discussions about pedagogy in bilingual and second language (L2) immersion programs, as well as pedagogy for multilingual and immigrant-background students taught through the official school language (for example, see: Leung & Valdés, 2019; Paulsrud et al., 2017). The authors explain that, whereas DLC involves multilingual agents in *an act* of selection of two or more languages from their total repertoire to use them purposefully at any one time, in different contexts, the latter, constitutes *a process*. The process of translanguaging involves bilingual speakers (or multilinguals) in enacting their language assets. Furthermore, they note that translanguaging involves "complex language practices," while DLC constitutes a "set of selected languages and skills" and is "a model of language practices." In making this distinction, one wonders if the authors wish to downplay the complexity of language practices that DLC involves, when compared to those of translanguaging, and if so, why. Does this have anything to do with multilinguals often selecting from among their dominant languages, one at a time to communicate in different situations with different people in different environments? One also may perhaps question the characterization of DLC as a "set of language skills" and express certain reservations about the use of a term, which in popular foreign language teaching literature is associated with "the four skills," namely, listening, reading, writing, and speaking. Is DLC "a set of language *skills*" or would it be fair to say that DLC refers to a multilingual individual who has the "plurilingual competence"[1] to use the "languages which stand out as being of prime importance as the vehicle of the communicative practices of that person's daily life, business, career and identity expression" (Aronin 2016, 2019; Aronin & Singleton, 2012, pp. 59–75).

Finally, one may also feel the need to understand better what the authors mean when they state that DLC may serve as "a *model* of language practices" so as not to think that what they are implying is that DLC is some type of prototype or archetype of language practices, that it is some mechanism to be used as an example or a procedure to imitate. Finally, it is worth noting that what has not been highlighted adequately but is quite important in the comparison between the two constructs is that DLC concerns different languages

[1] Plurilingual competence—a concept which to be revisited shortly in this review—roughly refers to the ability to use, in different ways and forms of communication, the different languages a person knows.

spoken in societies and used by individual speakers, whereas translanguaging, as theorized by some of its most important proponents (García, 2013; García & Li Wei, 2014; Otheguy et al., 2015) puts on the table the question of the discreteness of languages.

As a matter of fact, building on the claim by Makoni and Pennycook (2007) that languages do not exist as real entities in the world but rather are inventions of social, cultural, and political movements, translanguaging scholars refer to the distinctness of language being non-existent. Garcia (2009), for example, claims that the multilingual's linguistic system is internally undifferentiated and unitary reflecting the fact that languages have no linguistic or cognitive reality. Moreover, in the same documents she claims that additive bilingualism is an illegitimate monoglossic construct because it similarly assumes the existence of two separate languages that are added together in bilingual individuals. Otheguy et al. (2015), on the other hand, state that codeswitching is an illegitimate monoglossic construct because it assumes the existence of two separate linguistic systems. This is a bit different than what is suggested in the intro of this volume that "[b]oth translanguaging and the DLC approach, demonstrate that the pattern of using several languages more or less concomitantly, and this overrides the previously sufficient pattern of employing one language at a time." Despite statements by the authors that DLC (like translanguaging and language repertoire) at individual and communal level may involve more than one language, it does not question the existence of languages alone or in combination with one another. Translanguaging scholars actually do question the existence of language (cf. Cummins, 2021), while focusing on "the fluid and dynamic practices that transcend the boundaries between named languages, language varieties, and language and other semiotic systems" (Li Wei, 2018, 9).

This brings us to another concept which is discussed by the Lo Bianco and Aronin as a cognate yet as a distinct perspective from that of DLC: that is, *language* or *linguistic repertoire*.[2] The notion comprises elements of the different levels of description of language—including phonetic-graphical, lexical-grammatical, notional-functional and discursive-textual) but also of language use. As such, an individual's repertoire forms the basis of every language learner's *plurilingual competence* (either current or possible). According to Lo Bianco and Aronin (p. 5), while "linguistic repertoire aims to include the totality of an individual's, or a community's linguistic skills," DLC is "the active part of

[2] The term was coined in the context of language sociology, for the set of language varieties—including registers and dialects—"exhibited in the speaking and writing patterns of a speech community" (Fishman, 1972, p. 48). The concept is applied both to multilingual and monolingual repertoires: "Just as a multilingual linguistic repertoire allocates different language varieties to different speech situations, so does a monolingual repertoire. For all speakers—monolingual and multilingual—there is marked variation in the forms of language used for different activities, addressees, topics, and settings" (Finegan, 2004, p. 319).

one's language repertoire" as it "includes only the most expedient languages or language skills that relate to a person or a group in their communication functioning at a given time and in a given environment." They further explain that linguistic repertoire includes "all languages used by speakers/writers and potentially available to them for use, those identified with but not active and those which are passive yet still present," whereas DLC, as mentioned earlier, is concerned only with the active languages." One more point that the authors make is that DLC "operates as a coherent whole, and therefore is the account of what an individual or wider grouping's specific repertoire of used languages is in a given time and setting." Does this mean that "linguistic repertoire" is not and does not operate as a coherent whole? Yes and no. Because the concept of repertoire includes all the assets or resources a social agent has for communication, but these assets are not homologous in the sense that they are not just languages. Social agents have other semiotic resources, given that communication nowadays is not simply multilingual but also multimodal—the five modes of communication being linguistic, visual, aural, gestural, and spatial (Dendrinos, 2020).

On the basis of the above, though not only, it might be preferable to compare DLC not to the concept of linguistic repertoire, which admittedly is used frequently when discussing or examining multilingual communication because, unlike DLC, it is a component of an approach not the approach itself. That is, (a) one has a repertory of languages and uses the dominant one(s) at any one time (DLC approach); (b) bi/multilingual individuals regularly draw on the totality of their linguistic resources in communicative interactions and classroom instruction should support students to use the languages or elements of the languages they know in flexible and strategic ways as a tool for cognitive and academic learning (translanguaging pedagogy); (c) just as effective communicators draw on the totality of their semiotic resources to participate constructively in discursive practices, language learners should develop their plurilingual and pluricultural competence—the ability to put to productive use these resources in combination in order to construct (and negotiate) meaning (Dendrinos, forthcoming).

Actually, the idea of learners developing *plurilingual and pluricultural competence*, so as to use the repertoire of (a) the languages in which they have developed greater or lesser proficiency, (b) the languages around them, and (c) the languages they are learning began being discussed in the language teaching community and language education scholarship after the publication of the Council of Europe's *Common European Framework of Reference for Languages* (CEFR) (Council of Europe 2001)—a policy document translated in over forty languages that over time became very influential for language teaching, learning, and assessment across European school systems but now only. It is there where it was first suggested that learners' linguistic repertoire

is the base upon which their learning can progress (CEFR: 3) and stated that "the aim [of education in a language] is to develop a linguistic repertory, in which all linguistic abilities have a place." It also noted that "a single, richer repertoire of this kind thus allows choice concerning strategies for task accomplishment, drawing where appropriate on an interlinguistic variation and language switching" (CEFR: 132). The idea of language learners developing plurilingual and pluricultural competence has recently further built up and expanded in the Council of Europe's *CEFR Companion Volume* (Council of Europe 2018/2020), which describes what plurilingual and pluricultural competence entails and clearly states from the first pages that "[i]n the reality of today's increasingly diverse societies, the construction of meaning may take place across languages and draw upon user/learners' repertoires" (CEFR-CV) and provides a long list of levelled descriptors for mediation *across languages* (cross-linguistic mediation) but also within the same language (intra-linguistic mediation), since a learner's repertory includes not only languages or elements of different languages but also linguistic varieties, including registers, dialects, styles, and accents that exist in a community or within an individual.

As we come to the last part of this review, let us turn attention to notable studies guided by and using the DLC approach by authors of different disciplines who "introduce a variety of applications and interpretations of the DLC model leading to important insights," "from a wide variety of perspectives."

Studies in highly complicated multilingual contexts such as those in Africa are always fascinating because the languages which must be managed are the many indigenous languages, some of which have official status nationally or regionally, and non-African languages with a colonial past and post-colonial present. Two interesting African-setting studies included in this volume are one by Felix Banda, and the second by Susan Coetzee-Van Rooy. The former, by Banda, explores the notion of DLCs in Zambia where 72 indigenous languages are spoken, plus English which is the main language of education, national government business and socioeconomic mobility—one of the main remnants of colonialism. Using data from various sources, the author illustrates "the multilayered DLCs operating across individual/household, community, regional and national boundaries" and shows how to the complex situation created by how the multilingualism is managed and how it exists in the Zambian context adding to the and dynamism of DLCs. The latter, by Coetzee-Van Rooy, applies the DLC concept to language-repertoire survey work done on urban present-day South African multilingualism, who finds that the size of a typical DLC is three languages—a finding that holds implications for language in education practices for urban multilingual students in South Africa.

Two well-written and documented studies by three authors concerned with languages in the educational context discuss of the usefulness of DLC as a tool for capturing multilingual language patterns. One of the two studies, written

by Björklund, Björklund, and Sjöholm, shows how DLC can be used as a tool to describe the domains and functions of different languages at individual and societal levels in Finland and to promote multilingual awareness among student teachers. The second study, by Slavkov, concerns the use of DLC as a tool for the crucial issue of language background profiling of students in educational institutions. He examines a rich array of interesting data and situates his findings within the context of other multilingual perspectives but then focuses specifically on the notion of DLC discussing how this perspective can prove beneficial for the conceptualization of language background profiling.

The studies on "Personal Dominant Language Constellations Based on the Amount of Usage of the Languages" are also quite interesting because they describe and analyse the learning and real life experiences of multilinguals with their DLCs in very different contexts starting with a paper by Kannangara which sheds but also shed light on multilingualism in Sri Lanka and convincingly argues that the uniqueness of one's DLC varies depending on its linguistic, societal, political, or geographical context and that these variations can be observed in interrelated factors, such as the prominence of the language, its level of proficiency, and the functions allocated to each language. Next in line is a study by Karpava which examines the DLCs of Russian speakers in Cyprus. The analysis of the author's qualitative data interestingly revealed that the female adults in her sample have either Russian or mixed (Russian and Cypriot Greek) cultural and linguistic identity, whereas students have mainly mixed (Russian and English) identity concluding that immigration, social milieu, integrative and instrumental motivation affect the constitution, configuration, and dynamics of their DLCs. The third study in this part of the volume is by Krevelj, who examines the potential of the DLC approach for studying the under-researched area of crosslinguistic influence (CLI) in multilinguals by looking at previously collected data and outcomes of a research project, which investigated simultaneous interaction of languages used by multilingual participants from the same community in Croatia, with a common DLC (involving Croatian and Italian as official languages and English as a foreign language). In looking at her data from the DLC perspective, the author finds some novel insights, and discusses the benefits of DLC, both as a concept and as a research tool. Finally, the last study in this part of the volume, authored by Nightingale, presents "a case study focusing on the DLC of a Moroccan-born man living in Spain, specifically on how his most expedient languages are reconfigured according to the multilingual environment and how they relate to his emotions, language attitudes, and identity construct." The author makes no generalizations based on this one case study; however, he does point out the studies such as this one, with ample qualitative data helps us understand better multilingual practices realized in concrete social and cultural contexts.

The concluding chapter, by Lo Bianco, argues that the DLC concept makes a vital contribution to understanding language questions today, and purposefully sets the agenda for future directions of the concept of the DLC and its role in/for multilingualism studies, as these figure in areas such as public policy, education, grammatical exploration, sociology of multilingualism, intercultural relations, and personal and group identity.

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Larissa Aronin, Eva Vetter (Eds.), *Dominant Language Constellations Approach in Education and Language Acquisition* Springer, 2021 (eBook), 240 pp. ISBN 978-3-030-70768-2

Dominant Language Constellations Approach in Education and Language Acquisition is the second volume in Springer's Educational Linguistics series on Dominant Language Constellations (DLC); the first volume is titled *Dominant Language Constellations: A New Perspective on Multilingualism* (2020), edited by Joseph Lo Bianco and Larissa Aronin. Both present the concept of Dominant Language Constellations (DLC). DLC are a group of an individual's or a group's most important, thus most used, languages that function as a unit in their multilingual environment.

> The Dominant Language Constellation includes only the most expedient languages for a person, rather than all the languages known to them, as would be the case in language repertoire. Unlike a language repertoire, a DLC comprises the languages which, together, perform the most vital functions of language (Aronin, 2016, p. 196).

In the second volume, this definition of DLC is reconsidered more in detail in the first chapter (Lo Bianco) and the second one (Aronin); the concept is the main subject of the book. The aim of this second volume is to apply DLC in school and in teacher training and to show how the concept of DLC can reveal processes of multilingual and language education, without claiming completeness. The book is divided into a theoretical introduction and three parts according to different domains. In the first part, DLC in language educa-

tion policy and school practices are discussed. In the second part, the concept of DLC is applied to teacher training, and in the last part, innovative ways of researching DLC and identity are found through the use of narratives and visualizations.

In his introduction titled Literacy Learning and Language Education: Dominant Language Constellations and Contemporary Multilingualism, Joseph Lo Bianco uses the concept of DLC to apply it to literacy teaching. This connection is made to understand the impact contemporary multilingualism has on education and how literacy teaching manifests itself in the multilingual classroom. In a first step, he describes DLC as an analytical category in which languages are organized in constellations and as an opportunity for adequate simplification of multilingualism. In a second step, he adapts the DLC approach to literacy which he defines as a "complex fusion of audio, visual, image, color, movement and design" (p. 7) and underlines the importance of developing multilingual literacy in a gradually converging ("flatter") world. After briefly describing the book chapters one by one, he concludes that all the contributions enable an academic examination of DLC that becomes increasingly important in today's society.

In the second chapter titled Dominant Language Constellations in Education: Patterns and Visualisations, Larissa Aronin explains that the concept of DLC, which includes a reduced number of languages (usually three), is complementary to the concept of language repertoire that includes all the languages known. DLC represent an interconnected and complex system of the most expedient languages. She views DLC as context dependent patterns and shows how these patterns allow dealing with various factors in multilingual education, for example, language policy and education, teaching third/fourth/…*n*th languages or teaching immigrants, but also a language's association with cultures and mentalities. In the last part, she presents models and visualizations of DLC patterns for multilingual education that capture DLC more easily than other methods. Visualizations as pedagogical appropriate designs of a person's DLC are DLC maps and 3D models that represent the multidimensionality of multilingualism.

In her chapter about Language Education Policy Through a DLC Lens: The Case of Urban Multilingualism, Eva Vetter addresses language education policies in the urban context. More specifically, she researches the European language education policy in three different lower secondary schools in the multilingual and superdiverse city of Vienna. She presents data on formal language practice through analyzing languages present at 60 schools' websites to select the three most diverse language profiles. These profiles will then be further explored through interviews with the school's principal about their perception and handling of multilingualism. In the last step, she researches less formalized language use by teachers and students through classroom ob-

servation in the least multilingual of the three schools. The results show that most websites are dominated by monolingualism, and that principals perceive their schools as multilingual although they follow a language policy that results in activities limited in addressing linguistic diversity. The classroom observations show that pupils make use of their DLC and the epistemic function of multilingualism. The results indicate that DLC can be used to understand language policy and its planning, involving bottom-up and top-down structures in educational language policy.

Caterina Sugrañes, author of the chapter Promoting Plurilingual Competences in Primary Schools in Barcelona: A Dominant Language Constellation Approach to Teaching and Learning Languages, discusses the benefits of using DLC to understand multilingual learning and teaching contexts. She exemplifies this based on a five-month study (including pre-post quantitative data and qualitative data such as interviews with the pupils), during which 45 primary school pupils in Barcelona worked on English story books and translated them into the languages they knew. Her results show that by using such a translanguaging practice to illustrate pupils' DLC in learning, pupils become more aware of the languages around them and their motivation for using a specific language, especially Catalan, was viewed more positively after the intervention. The results indicate that pupils' academic performances and teachers' positive attitudes towards teaching language increased resorting to this intervention.

In his chapter Family Language Policy and Dominant Language Constellations: A Canadian Perspective, Nikolay Slavkov adapts a DLC lens to family language policy in the context of the officially bilingual (French/English) province of Ontario. More than being officially bilingual, the province is multilingual including heritage and Indigenous languages. Family language policy involves the transmission of minority language(s) and the choice of one of the two official languages of schooling. His empirical data derive from a mixed methods study with questionnaires from 170 bilingual/multilingual pupils and interviews with 20 selected families (with one parent representing the family). The results show that the pupils' DLC is influenced by the family language policy in terms of number and choice of languages in the constellation, active vs. passive use of these, and the DLC dynamics.

The last chapter of the first part (language educational policies and school practices) is titled Educational and Career Opportunities for Refugee-Background Adults in Norway: A DLC Perspective. The authors Anna Krulatz and Anne Dahl refer to Norwegian language training for adult refugees. By means of interviews, they compare the actual refugees' DLC—composed of individual language(s) and Norwegian while lacking English, the most important foreign language in Norway—to the DLCs their teachers are aiming at, and to the provided language offers at governmental websites. The results attest to a discrepancy between the refugees' DLC, the DLCs teachers aim at,

and the provided language offers that lies in the Norwegian authorities' denial of offering English language training, which would contribute to success in education, and possibly to a more favorable profession and financial situation.

The second part consists of two contributions. In the first one, titled Embracing Multilingualism in Teaching Practicum in Finland? DLC as a Tool for Uncovering Individual and Institutional Multilingualism, Mikaela Björklund and Siv Björklund explore university teachers' DLC in constitutionally bilingual (Finnish/Swedish) Finland. The participants lead a teaching practicum and work at two different universities, one with Swedish as the teaching language and one with Finnish. They were given blank DLC maps in which they should visualize the languages they use before they commented on them via think-aloud protocols. The teachers' DLC differ slightly between the two universities, although there is a general tendency for a rather stable dominant language constellation (including the languages Swedish, Finish, and English) and variation in the language affordances upon personal awareness, interest and classes taught.

The other contribution to the second part is The Dominant Language Constellations of Immigrant Teacher Trainees in Israel: Russian, Hebrew and English by Judith Yoel. The author explores the dynamic community DLC of seven English teacher trainees from the Former Soviet Union who immigrated to Israel in the last four years. She gave them guiding questions about their DLC to encourage narration (narrative method). Participants' DLC differ slightly; however, there is a common importance given to mastering Israel's national language, Hebrew, as well as a common initial benefit associated to mastering English as a transition language. Nevertheless, the language's functions, for example, English serving as a lingua franca in daily life, shift according to the mastery of Hebrew. This shift, or interplay, is also closely linked to a shift in immigrant teacher trainees' identity.

Three contributions form the last part where narratives and visualizations enable the immersion in individual DLC and identities. In the chapter titled Exploring Identities and Life Stories of Multilingual Transnational Couples Through the Lens of Multilinguality and Dominant Language Constellations, Anna Krulatz and Jennifer Duggan discuss the identities and experiences of five multilingual, transnational couples residing in Norway by employing the concept of multilinguality and DLC. Multilinguality refers inter alia to the complexity, variation, varying functionalities, and balance of multilingual actions. Data from all ten participants were gathered through a Language Use Questionnaire and DLC maps to investigate changes in their DLC and shifts in their identities. All multilingual identities are highly complex and multifaceted. They depend on different factors: changing attitudes towards languages and cultures as well as individual language trajectories due to international mobility—including the length of residence in the target community.

Sílvia Melo-Pfeifer's contribution, titled Understanding Dominant Language Constellations Through Analysis of Visual Linguistic Autobiographies by Foreign Language Student Teachers in Germany represents a description and analysis of the DLC from 64 Spanish and French student teachers at the University of Hamburg through linguistic autobiographies drawn by themselves. These autobiographies enable the identification of the languages that form part of the DLC in both cohorts. She understands DLC as a dynamic and complex system, that is, a system that undergoes constant change and reorganizes itself according to change and interaction with the environment. The corpus consists of 31 visual linguistic autobiographies from French student teachers and 34 from Spanish student teachers. Quantitative analysis of the visualized languages shows that the linguistic dispensation varies. Additionally, selected drawings are analyzed qualitatively viewing DLC as a dynamic system that depends on the individual life story, but also on the curricular language offer at school. DLC are based on the language policies at school, in the family, and in professionalization (latent DLC) and do not differ between the groups. This shows that DLC depend on the ecology of languages in the world and the national educational language policies.

The last chapter of the book by Guðrún Gísladótti is titled Languages as Ways of Being: The Linguistic Biography of a Nordic Nomad. Gísladótti explains her ever-changing DLC in the realm of her multilingual repertoire. She describes the languages she learned (starting with her first language, that is, Icelandic), referring to the emotions she has about them and the role they take in her life. She divides her chapter into the languages in her homeland and into the languages away from her home where cultural experience and autonomous language learning play an essential role and feelings like "I am a different self, when there" (p. 232) emerge. In the summary of her linguistic autobiography, Gísladótti relates that her DLC changes according to where she lives, where she works, and with whom she communicates.

In both volumes, the concept of DLC is commonly defined as the use of only the most important languages in the individuals' repertoire and the concept is seen as adequate for superdiverse linguistic contexts. All the parts (Dominant Language Constellations in Language Education Policy and School Practices; Dominant Language Constellations in Teacher Training; Dominant Language Constellations and Identity Through Narratives and Visualizations) of the second volume can be understood as completing the parts Current Developments in DLC Research and Institutional Expressions of DLC of the first volume by enhancing empirical studies (e.g., Vetter's research on language policy and Slavkov's insights into family language policies) and as continuing the first volume's part Personal and Group Experiences with DLC (e.g., Björklund and Björklund's study on teacher trainers in Finland and Yoel's contribution on the group DLC of Russian immigrants in Israel). Thus, the volume *Dominant*

Language Constellations Approach in Education and Language Acquisition shows that the concept of DLC presents a theoretical framework in which diverse language studies can find their places. Thanks to the concept, clear insights about multilinguals and multilingualism can be gained because the concept of DLC simplifies multilingualism and makes it researchable as is shown in the contributions.

I would like to emphasize the rich data basis and the diverse data collection methods, that is, qualitative research and mixed-methods, in all empirical studies. Additionally, the contributions show an integrated consideration of the context, by providing thorough information about the national or regional (diverse) linguistic context; discussions are also highly contextual. This second volume continues the ideas and results from the first volume since nearly all contributions provide applications of DLC in the school context, discuss educational language policy, and refer to contributions from the first volume. Slavkov forecasts this application to the educational language policies as follows: "more explicit and targeted multilingual policies […] and awareness raising of multilingual values can contribute to an even larger proportion of the population having rich and interesting DLCs" (p. 105). In the end, this innovative book shows how DLC can be a point where society and individuals meet each other.

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Woods (1993) believes that critical events are structured and occur in well-defined staged of conceptualization . . .

Two authors:
(Ballantyne & Packer, 1995)
As Ballantyne and Packer (1995) demonstrate …

Three authors:
(Barker, Callahan, & Ferreira, 2009)

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Lorenz et al. (1998) argued…
(Lorenz et al., 1998)

Authors whose last names are the same:
(D. Francis, 1985; H. Francis, 2004)

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(Peterson & Clark, 1978, para. 4)
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Selected examples (for more consult APA manual 7th ed.):

Book, one author:
Goldberg, A. (2006). *Constructions at work*. Oxford University Press.

Book, two authors and more:
Jarvis, S., & Pavlenko, A. (2008). *Crosslinguistic influence in language cognition.* Routledge.

Translated book:
Freud, S. (1960). *Jokes and their relation to the unconscious*. (J. Strachey, Trans.). Routledge & K. Paul. (Original work published 1905).

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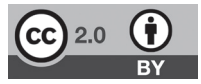

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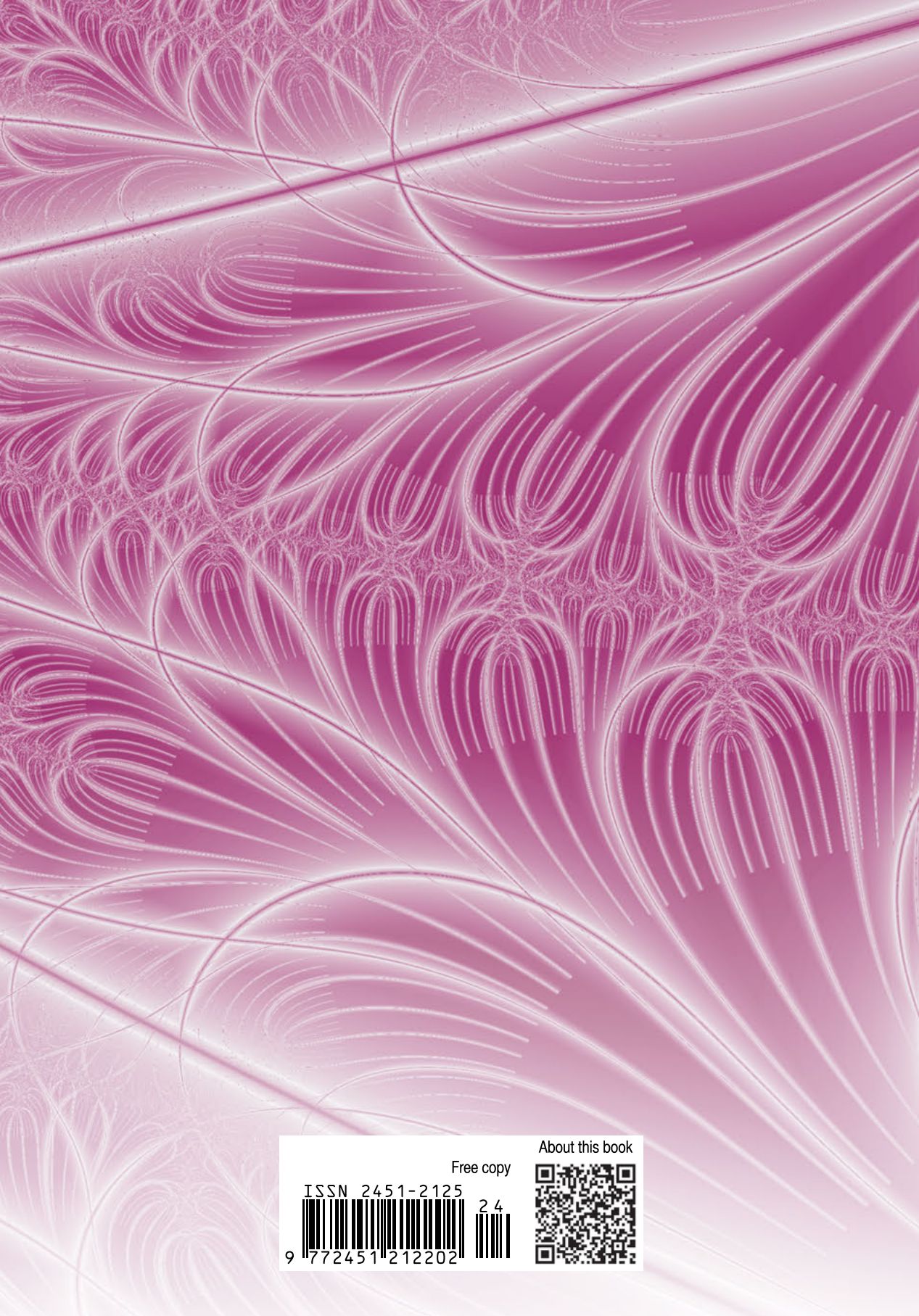

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