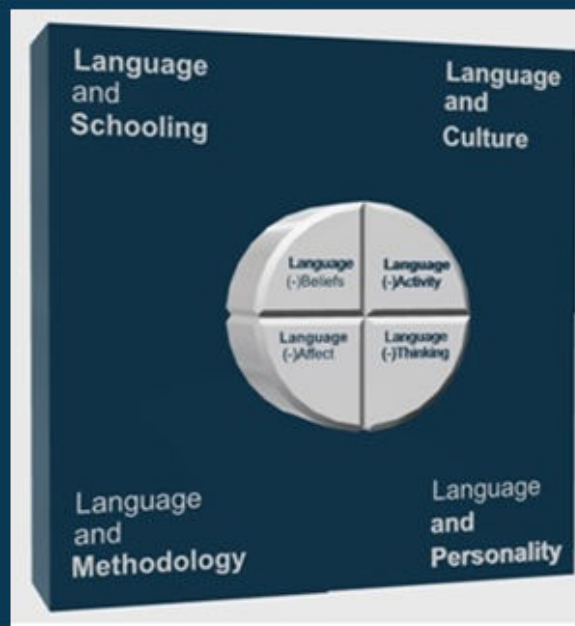


EDUCATIONAL ROLE OF LANGUAGE JOURNAL

Volume 2023-1(9)
**THE AFFECTIVE SIDE
of
LANGUAGE LEARNING AND USE**

Volume Editors: Michał Daszkiewicz, Dragana Božić Lenard



Journal issued under auspices of
the International Association for
the Educational Role of Language

EDITORIAL TEAM

Michał Daszkiewicz (Poland, University of Gdańsk), editor-in-chief
Dragana Božić Lenard (Croatia, University of Osijek), lead editor
Anna Babicka-Wirkus (Poland, Pomeranian University in Słupsk)
Anna Basińska (Poland, Adam Mickiewicz University in Poznań)
Monika Kusiak-Pisowacka (Poland, Jagiellonian University in Kraków)
Linda Lin (Hong Kong, The Hong Kong Polytechnic University)
Isabel López Cirugeda (Spain, University of Castilla-La Mancha)
Tess Maginess (Northern Ireland, Queen's University Belfast)
Slađana Marić (Serbia, University of Novi Sad)
Gerda Mazlaveckiene (Lithuania, Lithuanian University of Educational Sciences)

STRANDS COORDINATORS

Strand 1-1: Language & Schooling: Raquel Sanchez Ruiz (Spain, University of Castilla-La Mancha)
Strand 1-2: Language & Culture: Dragana Božić Lenard (Croatia, University of Osijek)
Strand 1-3: Language & Methodology: Branwen Bingle (England, University of Greenwich)
Strand 1-4: Language & Personality: Ivan Lenard (Croatia, University of Osijek)
Strand 2-1: Language(-)Beliefs: Elena Gomez Parra (Spain, University of Cordoba)
Strand 2-2: Language(-)Activity: Elena Kováčiková (Slovakia, Constantine the Philosopher University in Nitra)
Strand 2-3: Language(-)Affect: Michał Daszkiewicz (Poland, University of Gdańsk)
Strand 2-4: Language(-)Thinking: Giuliana Ferri (England, University of West London)

ADVISORY BOARD

Ewa Filipiak (Poland, Kazimierz Wielki University in Bydgoszcz)
Çiler Hatipoğlu (Turkey, Middle East Technical University)
Eva Reid (Slovakia, Constantine the Philosopher University in Nitra)
Ruperf Wegerif (England, University of Cambridge)
Olga T. Yokoyama (USA, University of California)
©Copyright by the International Association for the Educational Role of Language
Peer-reviewed (double-blinded) journal

The list of reviewers of the papers included in this volume is included at its penultimate page.
The journal's complete list of reviewers is available at its website shown on the back cover.

CONTENTS

Introduction.....	4
--------------------------	----------

PRIORITIZING AFFECT

1. Anita Bright, Mary Goodrich, Caroline Purcell, Kimberly Ilosvay – Teaching English in Palestine: Building trusting relationships by centering humanity.....	7
2. Andre Kurowski, Eva Mikuska – Language, self-esteem, and achievement: mature students’ emotionally incited stories.....	21
3. Jens Haugen – Emotions in Norwegian language debate.....	33
4. Xiaojun Kong, Chenkai Chi – Re-conceptualizing the knowledge base for non-native language teachers to cope with negative emotions.....	57
5. Aneta Naumoska, Ivona Smilevska – The importance of teacher awareness of student mental health in the EFL classroom.....	65
6. Izabela Celevska, Biljana Naumoska-Sarakinska – Affect behind the use of anglicisms among adolescents in North Macedonia - causes and consequences.....	80
7. Helena Liwo – Emotions in language learning and use - 6th International Pedagogical and Linguistic Conference, Ulm University, Germany.....	91

BUILDING UPON AFFECT

8. Adrienn Fekete – The impact of language socialization in the context of family, education, and sojourn on emotional, psychological, and identity responses to language learning.....	94
9. Daniela Feistritz – Positive anxiety as an affective component of shadowing in language learning and use.....	111
10. Slađana Marić – Digitally transformed lifelong multilingual language learning: affective processes underlying the development of multilingual competence.....	119
11. Haticetül Kübra Er, Emel Küçükali – An analysis of the interplay between affective and cognitive components of teacher identity among Turkish native and non-native EFL in-service trainees'.134	
12. Fatima Ejubović, Ervin Kovačević – Incorporating literature in EFL classroom: attitudes and experiences.....	155
13. Edlynne Fabian-Perona – Emotions, orientations and intentions for linguistic variations: Guide for language teaching - a report.....	173

List of Volume 2023-1(9) Authors	176
List of Volume 2023-1(9) Reviewers	180
ERL Journal – Scope Major	181
ERL Journal – Scope Minor.....	182

INTRODUCTION

Linguistic education getting emotional

Affect comes into play much earlier and much stronger than most language users imagine. Its salience and dominance have now long been recognised by neuroscientists and psychologists, who have stressed that affect not only accompanies but, most importantly and surprisingly, precedes our decisions, determines our choices, drives our perception, and, as such, constitutes a fundamental component of our identities and personalities. In the light of this central position of affect in what we do, it is rather odd or even detrimental that, as recent ERL studies have shown, linguistic education has remained preoccupied with the spheres of actions and cognition far more than with students' emotions (and beliefs). Even the times of the COVID-19 pandemic (addressed earlier in the sequence of ERL Journal's volumes) have not brought about any marked change in this respect, although the educational circumstances created by teachers' and learners' remote work did offer an opportunity to accentuate emotions (as well as the approach to education and language which all of them hold). In other words – to put it in terms we have applied under the ERL framework, the teaching of languages has still been focused much more on the questions What can students do with language(s)? and How do students understand (the world through) language(s)? than on the question How do students feel about language(s)? (or What do students think of language(s)?). Whilst questions concerning, for instance, using and understanding words, phrases or texts are commonplace, those relating to feelings or views concerning the language elements learnt (be it How do you feel about this sentence? or What's your attitude to this word?) are in most educational settings few and far between. Not striking a balance between the former (psychomotor and cognitive) and the latter two (affective and axiological) domains stands in stark contrast to contemporary psychological knowledge and can be argued to bring numerous detrimental effects, with a waste of time caused by the non-observance of students' emotions being only one example of that.

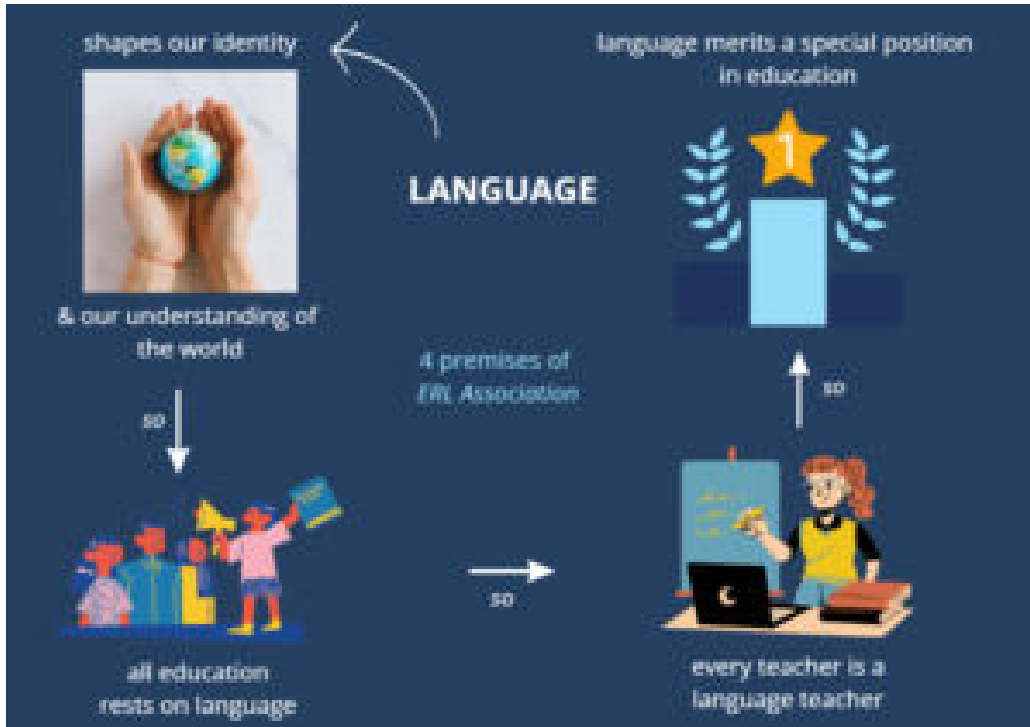
We – meaning the entire ERL framework, particularly ERL Association as ERL Journal's published – **enter into what we have recently come to refer to as Cycle 2, centred around an individual learner and covering the years 2023-2026.** Having completed Cycle 1 (2019-2022, ERL Journal's Volumes 1-8), which have led us to the development and examination of the ERL premises presented by the graphic below, we now adopt pedagogical lenses and put the learner in the ERL limelight, so to speak. This focus of this year's volumes (9 and 10) is the affective (emotional) side of language learning and use, to be followed in the forthcoming three years by issues addressing – in line with ERLA's yearly foci – beliefs (axiological domain), activity (psychomotor domain), and thinking (cognitive domain). This four-strand sequence is pedagogically and psychologically motivated: it is after recognition of students' emotions/feelings and beliefs (values, views) that we can, being well informed on these two underlying strata, properly work on students' actions (behaviours), knowledge and reasoning. The four-domain perspective has reflected the rationale of the so-called multilateral education and, in the ERL framework, has traditionally constituted the grounds of the (informal) ERL Network (not to be confused with (formal) ERL Association) and its 'Scope Minor' outlined at the end of the volume. We encourage all those readers of our journal whose work or interest pertain to any of the strands included in that Scope to share their expertise with us by submitting a paper or by assisting us in any of the other ERL activities – for the benefit of all for whom languages and linguistic education matter.

It is marked interdisciplinarity that ensues from Cycle 2's agenda: in order to properly examine the affective component of linguistic education, we need to seek the relevant expertise of psychologists, psycholinguists, neurolinguists, and other specialists researching a wide range of issues falling into this strand and including motivation, willingness to communicate, self-confidence, language anxiety, etc. By the same token, throughout the forthcoming years and respective volumes we shall be resorting to numerous fields and subdisciplines that will help us sufficiently account for students' beliefs, actions, and reasoning, and the further or deeper we go, the more interconnections will follow. Hence, whilst this year (in Volumes 9 and 10) we will be focusing on the central dimension of affect (*per se*), in the following years and volumes we will be building upon earlier reflections and findings: (in the year 2024) students' beliefs will be addressed through the prism and in combination with their affective side, (in the year 2025) their linguistic activity will be considered jointly with affect and beliefs, and, finally, (in the year 2026) Cycle 2 will close with the cognitive dimension of students' linguistic development analysed through the triple filter of affect, beliefs, and language actions.

This volume of ERL Journal gathers papers (and two reports) divided into **two sections**: 'Prioritising affect', where the emotional dimension is – quite explicitly – delineated as the central, underlying, or mentally crucial, and 'Building upon affect', where the themes pertaining to feelings and emotions (such as positive anxiety, emotional experiences, or psychological well-being) acquire a secondary, auxiliary, or complementary status. Such a twofold status of affect assigned by this publication can be seen as reflective of teachers' two types of skills: first, their abilities to appreciate students' feelings and emotions so as to understand their approach to language learning and use, and, second, their capability of incorporating familiarity with affect (observing and reducing negative emotions, on the one hand, and boosting and capitalising on positive emotions, on the other hand) throughout classroom instruction and beyond. As our Readers will see, the texts included in this volume have been written in various contexts and apply to diversified geographical locations, which we choose to see as a great merit of the volume since it shows affect to be of paramount importance in linguistic education worldwide. We hope to be offering a very pleasant read for the audience, some of whom may be eager to submit to the next volume (also pertaining to the affective side of language and of linguistic education) and/or contribute to the next years' ERLA foci or ERL Journal's respective volumes.

Michał Daszkiewicz

Educational Role of Language – 4 Fundamental Premises



Teaching English in Palestine: Building trusting relationships by centering humanity

ISSN 2657-9774; <https://doi.org/10.36534/erlj.2023.01.01>

Anita Bright*, Mary Goodrich**, Caroline Purcell***, Kimberly Ilosvay****

*Portland State University, USA/ Bethlehem University, Palestine; abright@pdx.edu

**Al Quds Open University, Palestine; goodrichm321@gmail.com

***Mount St. Mary's University Seminary, USA/ An-Najah National University, Palestine;
purcell@msmary.edu

****Palestine Polytechnic University, Palestine; Konnnect9501@gmail.com

Abstract

As educators, we recognize the centrality of humanness above and beyond everything else in our professional practice. As such, the affective aspects of instructional engagement rest at the center of language learning and teaching. Through this paper, four educators from the US explore the ways the affective side of language learning and use shows up in their work in Palestine. Drawing from feminist epistemologies, critical race theory, and liberatory practices, the authors trace the trajectories of their professional practices, and explore the ways they learned to center the affective aspects of instruction, leveraging culturally sustaining practices, and highlighting various ways to engage in solidarity. Through four vignettes, set at four distinctly different Palestinian institutions of higher education, each contributor highlights a unique experience that exemplifies centering the affective aspects of language teaching and learning.

Keywords: *Palestine, affective, relationships, solidarity, occupation*

Introduction

For so many educators, a focus on the academic content is central. And although content, is, of course, of tremendous importance, we recognize the urgency of humanizing all of our work, because first and foremost, we are whole people, with complex histories, beliefs, ideas, and visions for what may lie ahead. To forget this holistic aspect of ourselves (and our students) is a tremendous loss, which adds urgency to keeping our affective side— or whole-person-ness— central in our work.

This urgent need is of course resonant across all content areas— the sciences, literature, the arts— and of course also in language teaching and learning. Language carries power in unambiguous but nuanced ways, and can establish, maintain, defend, and modify hierarchies. This holds true in education in general, and in cross-cultural language-learning contexts, all of which is heightened when a range of histories, beliefs, views, and visions come together (Gambrell and Bright 2022). Because each educator brings a complex history and identity, nested in temporal, spatial, historical, and individual contexts, working in a multilingual and multicultural environment invites deep introspection as a means to identify areas of opportunity, limit, strength, and potential for growth (Moth 2014, Varghese et al. 2005). As such, this collaborative research explores the ways in which the **affective** side of teaching and learning can play a central role in the educational process.

We turn to Critical Race Theory as a construct through which to both engage and honor the histories and identities of students— and ourselves— as we move through the academic demands placed before us. We seek to establish “bridges of meaningfulness between home and school experiences as well as between academic abstractions and lived sociocultural realities” (Gay 2010, 31). Through this work of holding heartfelt focus on the affective side of our work, we seek to leverage a pedagogy that engages

students, and serves as a kind of momentum-builder for continued, further growth and progress. And in considering the ways our work as educators layers together with the work of our students, we consider the dynamic change that can occur for all involved. As Bakhtin explained, “Truth is not born nor is it to be found inside the head of an individual person, it is born *between people* collectively searching for truth, in the process of their dialogic interaction” (1984, 110).

Context

In summer, 2022, the authors of this article all arrived in Jerusalem to prepare for our upcoming work in the Occupied Palestinian Territories. Stemming from the 1948 declaration of Israel as an independent Jewish state, which was followed by two wars, Palestinians gradually lost access to a number of basic human rights (Hussein, Wong, Bright 2022). In the current context, according to the 2022 Amnesty International Report titled *Israel’s Apartheid Against Palestinians: A Cruel System of Domination and Crime Against Humanity*, Palestinians endure a number of dehumanizing realities resulting from the presence of the Israeli Occupation Force. These include the “use of military rule to control and dispossess” (p. 17), “denial of nationality, residence, and family life” (p. 18), “disruption of family life” (p. 19), “restrictions on movement” (p. 19), “dispossession of land and property” (p. 22), and “suppression of Palestinian’s human development” (p. 26), among others. The Amnesty International Report (2022) went on to state,

Israel has imposed a system of oppression and domination over Palestinians ... The segregation is conducted in a systematic and highly institutionalized manner through laws, policies and practices, all intended to prevent Palestinians from claiming and enjoying equal rights to Jewish Israelis within Israel and the OPT [Occupied Palestinian Territories], and thus intended to oppress and dominate the Palestinian people. This oppression and domination have been cemented by a legal regime that controls (by negating) the rights of Palestinian refugees residing outside Israel and the OPT to return to their homes. (p. 266)

To further expand upon the construct of **occupation** in this context, the recent publication by Amnesty International (2022) described the ways in which the occupation of Palestine is not simply geographic, existing in Palestine and Israel, but rather, all-encompassing as well. It’s not only the *land* that is occupied; it also includes the Palestinian *people* who are occupied, based on national Israeli laws, with access for Palestinians controlled through a punitive system of surveillance, restriction of movement, razorwire-topped walls, as well as roadblocks and checkpoints.

It is within this context of apartheid and oppression that three of the authors of this work had been selected by the US Department of State as *English Language Fellows* (ELFs), tasked with serving as English language instructors, collaborators, and resources in several communities across Palestine. Chosen for their wealth of experiences and expertise, each of the three ELFs, Caroline, Kim, and Mary, came to the work with a palpable blend of humility and willingness to learn, balanced with deep wisdom and insight. They were joined by the fourth author, Anita, a Fulbright Scholar also assigned to Palestine.

The centrality of humanness

For generations, the educational community has recognized the importance and centrality of the affective side of the educational experience. As Darling-Hammond and Cook-Harvey (2018) explained, “Human relationships are the essential ingredient that catalyzes healthy development and learning” (para. 12). Ensuring students know they are seen, included, and valued can make tremendous difference in ensuring their continued growth and learning (Friedleander et al. 2014). Looking to Critical Race Theory (CRT), Goma (2022) spoke to the urgency of relationships and rapport, explaining,

...In CRT, trusting relationships between students and instructors are crucial for the learning process. The first step in creating these trusting relationships in CRT is building rapport between the instructor and the student in order to establish a partnership between both (Hammond & Jackson, 2015). The rapport paves the way for the instructor to meaningfully challenge students and push them toward learning, which could only happen when trust between them takes place (Hammond and Jackson 2015).

This deep foundation of trust is essential, and although fear, intimidation, and humiliation can be (and have been) seen as “effective” in teaching particular lessons, these lessons come at great cost, with the potential to leave lasting trauma, which can persist across generations. Not only is punitive, hierarchical kind of instruction detrimental and harmful to students, it’s bad for the wellbeing of educators as well (Dutton-Breen 2022). There is a kind of symbolic violence (Bourdieu 1989) layered into practices like this, which serve to debase our collective identities.

Rather than leaning on practices that are likely to be damaging, and that perpetuate emotions such as anxiety and fear, we, as educators, embrace the notion espoused by scholars such as Noddings (2012). Together, we believe that centering the humanity of our students (and ourselves) is the most productive and rewarding way to engage in educational practices.

Through this work, as educators focused on the affective aspects of education, we turn to the notion of care, and the establishment (and maintenance) of caring relationships. These are active relationships, bound between the carer and the cared-for. Wherein the cared-for (be it the student or the teacher) is responsive to the reactions and feedback from the carer (Noddings 2012). In other words, a caring relationship happens when the student responds to the teacher and engages with the teacher. Caring relationships require at least two key actions on the part of the teacher. First, the teacher must be carefully attuned to the needs of students while differentiating between those expressed needs, and those ones assumed or ascribed by the curriculum and the school (Noddings 2012). The second action in caring relationships is the creation of an educational experience that connects the students to their past, future, and current experiences (Noddings 2012). These two actions require initiative on the part of the teacher to support the students, helping to move them forward towards success, whatever that may mean.

We recognize the reciprocal nature of this whole process. There is both the creation of space for students to share, but also the willingness to share of ourselves with students. Through all of this work, there is of course the tension between revelatory and obfuscatory parts of the relationship. While of course we do not “bare all” to our students, we make thoughtful decisions— sometimes in the moment— about what to share, what to blur, what to avoid.

Vignettes: Windows into our practice

In this section, each of the four authors provides a glimpse of the ways in which this deeply humanizing practice has shown up in their work with Palestinian learners. Drawing from our own histories, our vulnerabilities, our brave-ness-es.

Anita:

A Fulbright Scholar, Anita’s placement was at Bethlehem University in Bethlehem. While not in Palestine, Anita is a Full Professor in the Department of Curriculum and Instruction at Portland State University, in Portland, Oregon, and serves as the Program Coordinator for the ESOL Endorsement. Her ongoing projects engage Critical Race Theory, and explore power, privilege, and the ways educators conceptualize ideas of social justice. Further, her work highlights the ways educators address systemic inequities, including racism, sexism, classism, linguisticism, and their intersections. Drawing from 20+ years as a public school education, as well as 15 years in higher education, Anita’s work emphasizes the ways

in which identity shows up in the professional practice of educators. Although Anita was not an ELF, her work with English language teaching and learning echoed and mirrored the work of Caroline, Cynthia, Kim, and Mary in important and generative ways.

Let me peer out at the world through your lens. (Maybe I'll shudder, or gasp, or tilt my head in a question.) Let me see how your blue is my turquoise and my orange is your gold. Suddenly binary stars, we have startling gravity. Let's compare scintillation - let's share starlight. — Naomi Shihab Nye

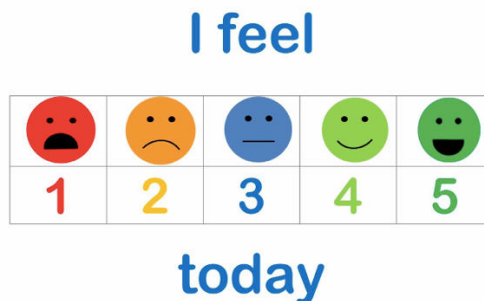
In my professional practice as an educator, I've long valued the ways our humanity shows up in our work. I want to "share starlight." First and foremost, I care about the lived experiences of our students, with a perpetual focus on the totality of experiences that brought my students to this moment, now. I love the questions, "What happened before? And before that, and before that?" I cherish the opportunity to see students in holistic, complete, contextualized ways, working to recognize all that makes them who they are, now, in this moment. It's important for me to "see" my students as best as I can, with all the nuance possible. As a learner myself, I have felt profound resonance with the adage, "Students don't remember what you taught them; they remember how you made them feel." This is most certainly the case for me throughout my life, and I find my work as an educator is profoundly informed by this notion. My own best memories as a learner were in the presence of educators who could see me, with all of my strengths and vulnerabilities, in ways that were tender and supportive.

Having said this, however, I also contend with the idea that not all students *wish* to be seen by me, or by anyone else. In spite of what I desire, I must perpetually think about the ways in which not all students want to be seen by me for reasons I may never know or understand. This is of course completely fine and perfect, and it's my obligation to respect and value this stance, as well— while also continuing to be available should the circumstances change.

As I reflect on these ideas, I consider the ways in which my work in Palestine is shaped and informed by these notions. Because I value and prioritize the now-ness of each moment, and want to ensure my learners are as "seen" as possible, I have chosen to begin each class with a rapid check-in with every single student.

As such, the first few minutes of every single class begin in the same way. I project a slide onto the screen in the front with some kind of emotional scale included, usually a series of emoji faces labeled with numbers 1 through 5, as shown in Figure 1. I use a different format each day, sometimes with images of animals showing different emotions, or of toys or cartoon characters expressing different feelings, but always with some numerical value attached. Beside the images, I have the text, "Which number matches how you feel today?" And with this new-each-day image on the screen, alongside the question, "Which number..." I quickly go around the room and ask each person for a number. "Amira? Nisreen? Rawan? Yousef? Shahd? Saeid? Zain?..." In response, each student offers a number aligned to how they feel in this given moment.

If students are feeling at the more buoyant, joyful end of the scale, I mirror this joy back to them, and say something like, "Great! Maybe you'll have warmth to share with a classmate who might need it today!" If a student is somewhere in the middle, I say, "Ok, some days are like this. We'll have this in mind as we work together today." And if a student is in the more troubled or pained end of the scale, perhaps feeling exhausted, distressed, angry, or some other more negative emotion, I say something like, "I see you. Today we will all treat you with extra support and tenderness."

Figure 1. Example of daily check-in graphic

The whole process takes just under 3 minutes for a class of 36 students— although I do privately follow up with each person who indicated the lowest / most pained level each day. Their reasons are both common to other young adults their age (arguing with friends, feeling sleepy, pining for specific material possessions), and also unique to the context of existing in Palestine (harassment at military checkpoints, family members arrested, murder of community members at the hands of the occupying army, etc.).

And while of course I want to be honest and present with the students, I am sensitive about imposing my own baggage and experiences on them, although I am of course open to sharing. For this reason, I do not typically volunteer my own feelings on whatever scale we are using *unless they ask*. But after the first few days of class, in following this pattern of asking students how they are, the students begin to ask me how I am feeling, as well, and I am more than happy to be honest with them. Some days I am walking on sunshine, rejoicing in the beauty of the world, and other days I am a quaking bundle of worries and sadness— and I am candid about it, in the spirit of reflecting my authentic humanness, and honoring *their* authentic humanness.

One particular day, I came to class tremendously worried about my mom, who was hospitalized and in tremendous pain. As the students asked me how I was on the scale that day, I could not mask my tears, and said I am feeling really sad and worried, and rated myself the most distressed on the scale. In that moment, they all lovingly murmured words of warmth and solidarity, and said, “Today we will be extra kind to you, because you need it.” Given the overtly religious context of Palestine, multiple students also noted they would pray for my mom, as well.

Later that day, one of my students, Mohammed, sent me an email, with the subject line, “I hope you’re okay.” It read almost like a poem:

*Good evening, doctor Anita
I hope you're doing your best.
And that your mother is always fine
And I will pray for her ☐
Don't worry, I'll prepare the homework.*

Although simple, this message was written in far stronger English than Mohammed typically offered, which indicated to me he had sought help in composing this. This human-to-human message mattered to him, such that he wanted to get it “right” in ways that were important to him. His sentiment made me weep, and I could not help but laugh at the beautiful promise he offered in his final line.

To me, this offered such evidence of the urgent importance in centering relationships, and being willing to bear witness to the complex humanity of one another. Choosing to open *every class* by

centering **how we are** sets the foundation for so much more nuanced work together. Moving forward with academic content is so much richer and so much more meaningful when connected to our lives, to our hearts, to our realities. And in the end, although of course strengthening their English is important, what matters more to me is being present in ways that are authentic and humane, with the opportunity for real human warmth to flourish.

Caroline:

Caroline was assigned to An-Najah National University (ANNU) in Nablus, Palestine. She has 20+ years of experience teaching life skills and academic English to immigrants, undergraduates, and graduate students in the Baltimore/Washington Metropolitan area. After her assignment in Nablus, she returned to her position as Program Coordinator of the English Language Program at Mount St. Mary's Seminary in Emmitsburg, Maryland, where she has taught various English language courses over the past fifteen years. Her international seminarians are a unique and diverse group of students who have often suffered from lives of poverty, trauma, and political unrest in their home countries. In the U.S., many continue to suffer, facing discrimination not only from some Seminary professors but also from the American seminarians with whom they live in community for the academic year. Some have even been subjected to abuse by priests who hang the threat of "we can send you home anytime" over their heads. Being aware of this, her goal -- and one, which she encourages her instructors toward -- is to make the classroom a *sanctuary*: "a place of refuge or safety." Having some basic knowledge of the Palestinian context, Caroline wanted to continue to operate from this perspective of creating a sanctuary and establishing trusting relationships where students felt safe to learn.

Because love is an act of courage, not of fear, love is a commitment to others. No matter where the oppressed are found, the act of love is commitment to their cause--the cause of liberation. --
Freire

Creating a sanctuary, establishing relationships, and building trust is easier to do with 4-8 graduate students who live in community at a Seminary. Creating a sanctuary, establishing relationships, and building trust with classrooms populated with 40+ first year university students -- some of whom are at the beginning (A2) level of English proficiency -- was a bit more challenging. The means I used to accomplish this to allow the students' voices to be heard was through an online journal assignment.

English language educators know that online journals are a non-threatening way for students to practice English and therefore gain proficiency in the language. However, it is also an effective tool for establishing relationships and building trust

Journal Assignment:

- You will be required to keep an online journal during the semester.
- Only the teacher will read this journal.
- Your journal will be like a conversation between you and your teacher. In your journal, you can ask your teacher questions. Your teacher can ask you questions, too.
- Don't worry about mistakes! You will not need to correct any mistakes.
- The journal will be worth 50 points.

When teachers respond weekly to their students' thoughts, these private conversations progressively deepen over time and spill into the classroom. When I ask a question in response to what students have written -- they will come to me after class to answer me, to talk, to elaborate. They want so much to share with me aspects of their lives...

In the Fall of 2022, my Writing 1 class had 40 students who were assigned ten journal assignments over the course of the semester, resulting in my reading and responding to about 400 submissions. From these submissions, three themes emerged: 1) emotions; 2) beauty; 3) living under occupation.

Emotions

I was surprised with how honest the students were. They shared their innermost thoughts on love, hate, jealousy, hopelessness; they shared their feelings of isolation, thoughts of suicide. I felt incredibly honored that they were willing to expose their vulnerability and share with me thoughts often considered “haram” (forbidden or taboo) in their religion.

Love and hate..
dig into my heart,
they dig into my soul like a knife,
like hills quarreling with each other
but neighboring,
perhaps I should leave myself on the coast
directly without listening to the call for revenge,
without accusing anyone,
without drawing the sword,
I can only grow like this.
-- translated by Mohammad

Beauty

Students often shared the beauty of their homeland, Palestine. Palestinian poetry, music, dancing the Dabke. The importance of family... their family time on Fridays... of food... of Ramadan... of Al Aqsa Mosque... The fun and the hard work of harvesting olives.

Oud Cries: Trio Joubran

Imagine walking into a hall, you hear Le Trio Joubran's Oud tunes playing hide and seek in the background. Sudden silence fill the air as you walk into the hall and after a moment euphoria rushes filling your heart with adrenaline as you hear Darwish's words hugging the Trio's exceptional music. You finally can feel something as both are pouring passion and life. Life is indeed the word to describe the unforgettable collaboration. This is one of most amazing and frequent yet disparate fantasies.

Le Trio Joubran is a Palestinian musical oud group , the three brothers master composing and playing the Oud, and the middle brother makes the instruments they use.

Their music is a work of art and inspiring passion and perfection.

When I listen to their music, I almost can hear myself speaking to me, pushing me to the limit. I can hear the poetry of Darwish, of life and death, of hope and anger, i can almost hear my own voice alive.

--Rasha

The Occupation

To provide context, Nablus, where I live and work, has long been a center for resistance against settler colonialism, and 2022 saw the emergence of a new resistance movement called “The Lion’s Den.” In response to the actions of the Lion’s Den, who claimed responsibility for attacks on Israeli soldiers, Israel collectively punished the people of Nablus starting on October 12, 2022, by sealing off the city. All

the roads into Nablus were blocked with cement blocks, giant piles of dirt, closed gates, sandbags, and other forms of physical obstacles. This choking siege lasted for three weeks, and during this time, students and professors who lived outside of the city were unable to get to campus. Classes were conducted via zoom at first, and then back in person – if students were able to travel the extra two-three hours each way to circumvent road closures. Students have written about visiting fathers in jail. Uncles killed. They could not sleep because of gunshots. When Palestinians are killed daily, or camps are attacked, or the drones buzz incessantly, my students would tell me in class: **“We are used to this”** often followed with **“but we hate that we are used to this.”**

Many students have shared what it’s like to live under occupation... what it’s like to live in a city besieged. In the example below, the student’s home is strategically located in Nablus, so it is often used as a place for Israeli soldier security operations.

Only a Palestinian can experience occupation many times. A fierce knock on the door in the middle of the night can only mean one thing. Everyone knows what comes next. Years ago I was unfortunate enough to experience this. A fierce knock on our door or what actually feels like a kick down woke me and my siblings up. Scary soldiers woke us up with their rifles and face masks on. It all felt so surreal, almost like a vivid nightmare. The only explanation we had received was this house is now being used in a security operation. It takes no more than that for my family and I to spend the next two weeks homeless living at our neighbors house. I can’t begin to fathom the prospect that we were the lucky ones that were able to come home, eventually, safe. Whatever that means.

--Mona

There continues to be daily news of unarmed Palestinians being killed, Israeli settlers attacking Palestinians, and Israeli soldiers and settlers demolishing Palestinian homes. Nevertheless, the students persevere, exhibiting the **sumud** that seems to characterize all Palestinians. The notion of *sumud* roughly means “steadfastness” -- both personally and collectively -- but also “refers to ways of surviving in the context of occupation, chronic adversity, lack of resources and limited infrastructure” (Marie, Hannigan, & Jones, 2018). The writings about living under occupation were especially poignant, honest, and heartbreaking, writings wherein *sumud* was interwoven with emotions ranging from despair and hopelessness to anger, desire for freedom, and genuine hope.

In a devastating event in February 2023, Israeli military forces stormed Nablus, killing 10 Palestinians and injuring 453 others. What is so incredibly tragic, sad, frustrating, and maddening for my students is that they feel that the world has abandoned them; that no one cares that their people are killed daily; that no one cares that their homes are being demolished.

I felt incredibly privileged that they shared their story with me. Teaching in Palestine has been transformative for me in countless ways.

Transformation

What began as a means for students to practice writing in English and a means for me to establish and build relationships turned into so much more. While I hope they actually improved their writing, I am the one who learned so much. I have been transformed... I’ve learned what it means to be part of a big loving family, to be so worried about marks, to eat maqluba under an olive tree, what it’s like to fast from sunrise to sunset, and why. I’ve learned the exhaustion of traveling for hours because of road closures, the humiliation of checkpoints, and being denied entrance into a land that once belonged to you. I have a better understanding of the beauty and richness of Palestinian culture and the horror of what it means to live as a second class citizen under occupation/settler colonialism.

People always ask us: “Do you like teaching in Palestine?” And I think I can speak for each of the authors when I say that the answer is, unequivocally yes. Personally, I have been transformed... By the people I’ve met, the overwhelming kindness... the relationships... the connections. The centrality of the affective side of this work of language learning and teaching has been remarkably powerful.

Mary:

Assigned to Al Quds Open University and based in Ramallah, Mary has experience in K-12, university, and community-based education. After spending the first part of her career as an elementary special education teacher, she shifted her focus to English Language teaching. She spent the last 6 years teaching intensive English to international students at Gonzaga University in Spokane, Washington, where her students came from diverse countries and cultures. Seeing cultural stereotypes fall away as the students learned to trust each other was one of her greatest joys. It is one of the few contexts where a nun from South Korea, a grandmother from Saudi Arabia, a recent high school graduate from Venezuela, and a basketball player from Japan would be in the same room together learning not only English, but discovering their common humanity. As well as teaching at Gonzaga, Mary helped in the formation of an English program for refugee elders, which had the goal of teaching basic survival English, providing community orientation, and fostering social interaction. The elderly are often marginalized, and this can be magnified even more so for refugees. More important to this group than learning English or how to use public transportation, was knowing that they were ‘seen.’ Mary believes this is at the heart of all teaching.

I’ve learned that people will forget what you said, people will forget what you did, but people will never forget how you made them feel.-- Maya Angelou

One morning, I was waiting for the student leader of a class I was teaching to arrive. Eventually, starting without her, a text arrived: she couldn’t come, her young brother had been arrested the night before in a raid on the refugee camp they call home.

Another class. A student arrives late. When asked why, she shared that 2 of her cousins had been intentionally ran over by a fanatic settler. Both died.

An excuse for not coming to class arrives in my email – my father has been in prison for 3 years. He is being released today.

My dream is to be a martyr, shares a young female student. I need to do something to protect my family. It’s better than dying old or in a car accident.

Yesterday the settlers started shooting fire and rocks towards my brother's car. My brother had his wife and my mom and dad and his daughter in the car. One of the settlers shot a rock at my dad's head. He has a fracture in his skull.

I want to be a teacher, but there are no jobs.

I want to study abroad, but it is impossible.

I have been arrested 3 times.

Palestinian students live with this every day, some more intimately than others, but not one is immune from the uncertainty, constraints, and impact of living in a country with such an uncertain future. I have recently heard this psychological impact described as PTSS – Post Traumatic Stress Syndrome, but without the ‘Post’. For these students, the trauma and the stress are ongoing. How can students survive, let alone thrive, in this environment?

And what can I do? I have no influence with governments or policies, I cannot effect any change in their circumstance. I am not a psychologist, I cannot help my students process their psychological wounds. I am their teacher, and for a short time at that. I will be leaving before long, privileged to have the freedom to pursue my dreams.

In 2016, Mcknight, Graybeal, Yarbrow, and Grabeal surveyed over 13,000 students and educators from 23 countries across the globe about their views on what makes an effective teacher. The top qualities identified were the ability to develop trusting, compassionate relationships with students, and a patient, caring, and kind personality. The ability to relate to students, value and feel compassion for them as human beings, and serve as a role model or mentors rated higher than teacher knowledge or instructional methodologies across this broad sample. Building trusting relationships opens the door to a safe place to offer emotional validation. Everyone has a need to be seen, heard, acknowledged.

When I first came to Palestine, and even now months later, my students often ask me what I think of their country, their cities, their families, and themselves. I am constantly giving praise and affirmation. Initially I misinterpreted this as a way of fishing for compliments. I understand the exchange differently now. When you grow up believing that you are 'less than'— forgotten or ignored by the wider world— you are consumed with the need to feel that you matter, that someone hears your voice. I came to Palestine as an English teacher; I am becoming someone who bears witness, seeing and acknowledging my students' struggle, resilience, and value (Goodrich 2023).

In 1993, George Ella Lyon wrote a poem called "Where I am From." Since then, educators all over the world have used this poem as a template (Lyon 1999) to help students express the unique experience and influences that have shaped them – their families, religion, rituals, food, friends, and in this case, political realities. I chose to leverage it as vehicle for using language to express oneself in a powerful way, but also as an opportunity to validate their experience by acknowledging the complexity of who they are - not only the burden of occupation, but also the joy of family, the love of religion, and they many myriad of things that make up each one. The power of poetry, and the challenge, is that thoughts and ideas need to be expressed in a compact way. Language has to be chosen carefully. Emotion needs to be conveyed without the luxury of many pages. To do this in a second language could have been daunting. But the students undertook the challenges and the results are both beautiful, uplifting, and heartbreaking. Then they trusted me to share a small slice of these works here.

Through the trusting relationships we build together, I want my students to know: **I see your struggle. I learn from your openness. I share your joys and cheer on your dreams. I envy your strong connections to faith and family. I grieve your losses. I admire your bravery and resilience in the face of adversity.**

*I am from the prettiest country of all
The flower of youth, and the sorrow
From bravery, fighting, and praying
I am from running for your life and there is nowhere to hide
From Palestine and traditions
I am from the moments that I wouldn't trade for anything
- Riham*

*"I am from the good Palestine
The land of beauty and the people
I am from the bad Palestine
From the bad life, and the bad occupation, and checkpoints
I am from the homeland, and the home
I am from the land of peace which has never seen peace
I am from this life
I am from Palestine"
- Shayma*

Kim:

Assigned to Palestine Polytechnic University in Al Khalil (Hebron), Kim has over twenty (20) years of experience planning, implementing and evaluating academic exchange programs for U.S. government agencies and revered educational institutions. She has designed and taught course curriculum for diverse undergraduate, graduate, and PhD student groups specializing in ESOL, neuroeducation, cognitive processes, reading and language arts methods, education policy and practice, and multicultural education amongst others. Her international experience working in India, China, Tanzania, Ecuador, Belfast, Cambodia, Egypt, Palestine, and Canada allows her to develop inclusive intercultural methods of teaching and learning to enhance education progress of students, teachers, and administrators domestically and globally.

An educator's job is "to teach in a manner that respects and cares for the souls of our students is essential if we are to provide the necessary conditions where learning can most deeply and intimately begin. — bell hooks

As I prepared for my Fellowship in the Palestine territories, I read about many challenges that exist throughout the country. However, I was naïve about how the challenges would impact me, but perhaps more importantly, how the challenges would impact my students daily. As in the other vignettes, my students face a myriad of barriers when embarking on the road to education. The school system itself is fraught with inequities, my students bear witness to killings of family and friends, houses are demolished with little warning, public humiliation is a constant, and difficulties around active movement invoke frustration and heartache. A longtime friend from Palestine once told me, "In Palestine, you gotta have a dead heart, not just a broken heart!!" I entered the journey with a steadfast conviction that I would not become jaded to the inequities nor let the personal fear of this harsh statement diminish the personal connections that are important to my teaching.

In reflecting on what author bell hooks (2014) said about the role of educators and her call to "respect[s] and care[s] for the souls of our students," my teaching focuses on educational methods that are central to this idea. Relationships and trust are important factors in learning. Trust requires benevolence, honesty, openness, reliability, and competency. These factors are often not overt in teaching, but are at the heart of deep learning. My students are confronted with external issues while also contending with the normal stress and work of studying in university. Teaching in this context requires a special navigation of these challenges.

In addition, foreign teachers are a rarity at Palestine Polytechnic University, and it was clear from day one that student-teacher trust was an issue, especially for me. Students told me that their teachers did not always make classrooms safe places for learning. One student said, "[s]ome teachers never like what I say. They never liked what I thought...I never felt like I was, uhh, like a person or a student they love ... I didn't ask for help as well. Maybe they should have noticed my behavior." Several students revealed that they felt most classrooms were teacher-centered for lecture only. Furthermore, a small group of students warned that exposure to foreigners in the past revealed attitudes of hierarchy. One student said, "the last teacher that came from the US always said the methods and activities were done in the US and therefore were the right way to teach, that we should ignore what our Arabic professors do because teaching and learning has advanced and these teachers don't know how to teach." Students' reluctance to learn in new ways is understandable given their consistent history of being taught one way and the knowledge that everyone learns differently; there is no right way.

I thought about the layers of identity we bring to the classroom and how they reveal themselves slowly. Building relationships requires getting beyond those initial identities that surface through dialogue and time. Dialogue is at the heart of building relationships. Identity is both contingent and

relational. Our identities reveal themselves based on the people we are engaging with and the context with which we find ourselves. This intentional dialogue exposes the knowledge students bring to the class and builds trust in the classroom. I was unclear if we would reach the point of trust or have deep relationships.

I began teaching with a myriad of activities such as morning check-ins, I am from poems, and daily individual conversations. Additionally, I wanted each student to feel their voice was heard and valued, so I learned all student names, and gave content and interest feedback on all assignments. As the time passed, the inquisitorial nature of my students surfaced. The complexities of the context became profound. The pervasiveness of the occupation and their Palestinian identities necessitated students learning how to answer their own questions. Thus, we formed a **research club**. According to Immordino-Yang & Gottlieb (2017), “curiosity, a nuanced, implicit and emotional process during which you’re open, you’re safe...” This idea seemed perfect to create a space of trust and would allow student voices to be heard. The first official group decided to perform a research study about Arabic speakers learning English online. They were very interested in research to answer their many questions. We worked for months, most days of the week, online, at cafes, and got to know each other well both academically and relationally. Their proud Instagram posts began to filter to students across campus and at other universities. They began to ask me to be a part of the club. The rapport that was established between me and the students and between other students was infectious. We were applauded for our team work. Faculty and administrators at one of the presentations made comments such as, “I want to thank you, Dr. Kim, for showing us that **our students are capable of more than we allow them to do**. We teach them to study what we say without teaching them to do things like this [perform a research study and present it]. We need to value our students more and challenge them more...teach them more critical thinking.”

As I reflect on this process, I note that my work is heavily influenced by three scholars. Luis Moll, who, along with his colleagues Amanti, Neff, and Gonzalez (1992), developed the idea of Funds of Knowledge, the concept that students come to class with a wealth of personal experiences and community knowledge that influence how they learn. I note the work of Eboo Patel (2022), who explained the importance of dialogue. “We need to learn how to build a social order that welcomes people from a range of identities and builds bridges of cooperation between and among us.” All identities are viewed as assets and that dialogue can bring cohesion. And finally, I look to the contributions of Stephen Krashen (1982), a linguist who developed the idea of the Affective Filter. The “affective filter” is a theoretical construct in second language acquisition. Simply put, he found that if the learner experiences anxiety or a lack of self-confidence or experiences trauma, there is a filter in the brain that obstructs the ability to learn. This is explained thoroughly through neuroscience.

Though my friend’s quote resonates more deeply with me now, I feel appreciative that I was able to establish strong relationships and build trust with my students even with the periodic times of sorrow. I am humbled that these students co-created a learning environment of trust where their depth of knowledge and the impact of personal experiences that influenced their academic learning could be shared. I am ever appreciative of what they taught me.

Significance

In what ways is this work significant? As educators, and more importantly, as members of multiple communities, we contend that this work carries weight in that we highlight the various ways in which we have chosen to establish and maintain connections with students, in ways that are nuanced, tender, dynamic, and authentic. By electing to take risks and share of ourselves, we create spaces in which our students may similarly take risks, and engage with an authenticity that may be different from their previous interactions with educators.

Through engaging in this work, we both recognize and contend with our outsider status, which in some ways may serve as a distancing, “foreign-izing” aspect of our connections, but at the same time, may offer opportunities for deeper or different kinds of connections. Because as outsiders, we are perhaps naive to (or unaware of) particular cultural norms or taboos, we may unintentionally offer a space for different kinds of interactions that are novel for our students and colleagues. We somehow have access to epistemic, axiological, and ontological ways of being and knowing that may not be readily seen or experienced in the local context. And this is not to say these outsider aspects are necessarily welcome or valued— but whatever the case, they offer something *distinct* from what our Palestinian colleagues are equipped to offer.

Discussion

Living, working, and simply existing in the Palestinian Occupied Territories is never simple, and never predictable. Given this context of tremendous uncertainty and tension, the press to build trusting, rewarding relationships is of utmost importance, with the potential for life-changing relationships at stake. In considering the ways in which affective aspects of our work are surfaced, we perpetually contend with our layers of privilege, recognizing the *voluntary* nature of our presence here, knowing that as holders of U.S. passports, we may elect to leave at any moment, with virtually no notice nor forethought required. This luxurious position sets us in stark contrast to our Palestinian students, colleagues, and friends, who are severely restricted in movement, bound not only by the documents they have been assigned, but by the unpredictable whims of individual Israeli Defense Force soldiers who may, on some unknowable instinct, decide to curtail or deny access to movement. Worse, these same soldiers, some with hair-trigger anxiety or anger, may engage our Palestinian students, colleagues, and friends with aggression or violence, which may lead to devastating outcomes. As authors, we recognize our insulation from this level of volatility, and we know that all Palestinians we encounter recognize this level of insulation, too. And what is most significant in considering this twinned vulnerability / insulation is the *unearned* quality of it. For the authors of this paper, it’s through no merit of our own that we hold U.S. identities; it’s simply the randomness in where and to whom we were born. Similarly, for all Palestinians we encounter, none *chose* their position, national identity, or legal status. Rather, these aspects of reality were imposed, and are the outcome and results of decisions made by others long ago, usually without their best interests in mind.

The painful (and maybe shameful) reality is omnipresent, with this vivid form of privilege (and denial of privilege) always at the surface. As such, we recognize the ongoing and urgent need to continue to center the affective aspects of our work, painful though it may be, particularly as we navigate our own comparatively lesser discomforts, disappointments, complaints, and compromises. Continuing to engage with humility (Bright, Acosta and Parker 2020) is essential, and while being of potentially significant importance to the Palestinians with whom we engage, we recognize the importance to us, as well. Remaining open, with a learner’s heart and mind, and an eye towards ways to engage with loving solidarity, is of utmost importance.

Equally important, we seek to emphasize that although we center the affective side of this work, we do not in any way show up as saviors, seeking to rescue or somehow transform the realities of Palestinians. Rather, we focus and emphasize the *with-ness* of this work, and the power in bearing witness, observing in ways that offer solidarity. In seeking to “share starlight,” we bring our authentic selves, with a desire to bear witness in ways that may transcend infinite boundaries.

References

Amnesty International. (2022). *Israel’s apartheid against Palestinians: Cruel system of domination and crime against humanity*. Amnesty.org.

- Bakhtin, M. (1984). *Problems of Dostoevsky's poetics* (C. Emerson, Ed. and Trans.) University of Michigan Press.
- Bourdieu, P. (1989). Social space and symbolic power. *Sociological theory*, 7(1): 14-25.
- Bright, A., Acosta, S., Parker, B. (2020). Humility Matters: Interrogating Our Positionality, Power, and Privilege Through Collaboration. In J. Keengwe (Ed.) *Handbook of Research on Diversity and Social Justice in Higher Education* (pp. 19-40). IGI Global.
- Darling-Hammond, L., Cook-Harvey, C. M. (2018). *Educating the whole child: Improving school climate to support student success*. Learning Policy Institute. <https://learningpolicyinstitute.org/product/educatingwhole-child-brief>
- Dutton-Breen, S. E. (2022). *The Practice of Traditional Grading: A Site for Inquiring into Teacher Identity Friction in a US High School* (Doctoral dissertation, Portland State University).
- Friedlaender, D., Burns, D., Lewis-Charp, H., Cook-Harvey, C. M., Zheng, X., Darling-Hammond, L. (2014). *Student-centered schools: Closing the opportunity gap*. Stanford, CA: Stanford Center for Opportunity Policy in Education.
- Gay, G. (2010). *Culturally responsive teaching: Theory, research, and practice*. Teachers College, Columbia University.
- Gomaa, L. (2022). *Amplifying Arab American Heritage Language Students' Voices: A Multiple Case Study on Translanguaging Practices and Identity Negotiation in University Arabic Classrooms*. Dissertation. Portland State University, Portland, Oregon.
- Goodrich, M. (2023 [in press]). Changing the narrative: Living and teaching in occupied Palestine. *WAESOL Educator*, 48(2).
- Gambrell, J. A., Bright, A. (2022). Interrogating White Saviorism, Fragility, and Innocence in K-12 Teacher Education: An Ontology of Radical Love. In J. Keengwe (Ed.) *Handbook of Research on Social Justice and Equity in Education* (pp. 114-137). IGI Global.
- Hammond, Z., Jackson, Y. (2015). *Culturally responsive teaching and the brain: Promoting authentic engagement and rigor among culturally and linguistically diverse students*. Sage.
- Hussein, A., Wong, S., Bright, A. (2022). The Palestinian K-12 Education System: History, Structure, Challenges, and Opportunities. *Oxford Research Encyclopedia of Education*.
- Immordino-Yang, M. H., Gotlieb, R. (2017). Embodied brains, social minds, cultural meaning: Integrating neuroscientific and educational research on social-affective development. *American Educational Research Journal*, 54(1): 344S-367S.
- Krashen, S. D. (1982). Acquiring a second language. *World Englishes*, 1(3): 97-101.
- Lyon, G. E. (1999). *Where I am from: Where poems are from*. Absey & Co.
- Marie, M., Hannigan, B., Jones A. (2018). Social ecology of resilience and Sumud of Palestinians. *Health*, 22(1): 20-35.
- McKnight, K, Graybeal, J., Yarbro, J., Graybeal, L. (2016.) *The Heart of Great Teaching: Pearson Global Survey of Educator Effectiveness*. Pearson Education, Inc.
- Moll, L. C., Amanti, C., Neff, D., Gonzalez, N. (1992). Funds of knowledge for teaching: Using a qualitative approach to connect homes and classrooms. *Theory into practice*, 31(2): 132-141.
- Motha, S. (2014). *Race, empire, and English language teaching: Creating responsible and ethical anti-racist practice*. Teachers College Press.
- Noddings, N. (2012). The caring relation in teaching. *Oxford review of education*, 38(6): 771-781.
- Nye, N.S. (2010). *Time you let me in*. NY: Greenwillow Books.
- Patel, E. (2022). Interfaith America is building bridges of cooperation. *Ashoka*. <https://www.ashoka.org/en-us/story/interfaith-america-building-bridges-cooperation>
- Varghese, M., Morgan, B., Johnston, B., Johnson, K. A. (2005). Theorizing language teacher identity: Three perspectives and beyond. *Journal of language, Identity, and Education*, 4(1): 21-44.

Language, self-esteem, and academic achievement: mature students' emotionally incited stories

ISSN 2657-9774; <https://doi.org/10.36534/erlj.2023.01.02>

Andre Kurowski*, Eva Mikuska**

*University of Chichester, United Kingdom; A.Kurowski@chi.ac.uk

**University of Chichester, United Kingdom; E.Mikuska@chi.ac.uk

Abstract

Through empirical evidence we have found that female students reflect their emotions through the language they use. This paper examines responses of 24 adult female students in higher education on Early Childhood Studies (ECS) programmes. It draws on qualitative interview data from a recent research project and interactions in meetings. The aim of the research was to determine the views of students on perceived benefits of higher education to their early childhood, education, and care (ECEC) practice in a sector that is notoriously low paid and carries low status. The research was undertaken in a further education (FE) college on the Isle of Wight in England to establish the impact of HE in childhood studies. What started as research into early years policy morphed into a very unexpected and emotional response. The language used also revealed the insecurities and lack of confidence of this student group as they embarked on, and during their time as students in HE. Our experience as professionals working in higher education, is that adult female students can express their levels ambition (or lack of) through their language, especially where they feel they do not really belong in higher education, and where their prospects of success are tempered by their view of themselves and their perceived ability.

Key words: *Isle of Wight, higher education, language, cultural capital, self-esteem, achievement.*

Introduction

This research examines the perspectives of two years' cohorts of Early Childhood Studies (ECS) students studying at Isle of Wight (IOW) in the United Kingdom, and their views on higher education (HE). The participants were all mature students (i.e., over 21 years old) and experienced Early Years (EY) practitioners on a Top up year (Level 6 final year) studying to gain a full bachelor's degree, the BA (Hons) Early Childhood (Oberhuemer, Schreyer, and Neuman, 2010). Four focus groups were held with a total of 24 students, and a narrative method was used as a way of giving the students freedom to respond in their own ways. The students answered the questions about the benefits of HE in terms of professional development, as had been intended, but what was remarkable was what was said about their views of themselves and the personal barriers they perceived whilst undertaking HE. There were three emergent main themes: logistical and financial, professional, and personal.

This paper concentrates on the responses that emerged associated with 'personal' issues. It focusses on how language was used to reveal these personal views. It will consider various theoretical perspectives to explain this phenomenon, Bourdieu's (1993, 1977) ideas around the "linguistic market" and a "linguistic habitus", Foucault's (1998) discourse analysis, and Derrida's (1982) phenomenological approach to language. It will explore themes of self-esteem, drive theory and the concept of 'imposter syndrome'. It will reflect on student's feelings about HE and how they express these feelings.

Background: Early Childhood Education and Care in England

To provide a background to this study, a brief historical account of government policy towards the Early Childhood Education and Care (ECEC) workforce should be recounted. The unparalleled attention of ECEC services, nursery places and choices have roots from when mothers' participation in the labour market increased during, and after the Second World War (Osgood 2012). As a result, a rapid expansion of nursery provision was recorded which coupled with relevant policy and curricula developments (DfE 2021). It is important to highlight the highly gendered composition of the ECEC workforce in the UK (Osgood 2012) and the lack of societal recognition EY practitioners have. The workforce suffered a reputation of being low skilled, low status and low paid, while other professions such as social workers or qualified teachers enjoy higher status, and more favourable working conditions (Moyles 2001). Since the Childcare Act 2006, all early year's providers in England have been required to register and be subjected to inspection by Ofsted. EY practitioners have been subject to increased state regulation and accountability, resulting in an increased workload and emphasis on 'technical competence and performativity' (Osgood 2012, 146). Despite all these challenges for the EY practitioners, some of them are still choosing to enrol to HE (Mikuska 2014).

The private day nursery sector remains a competitive, but fragmented market (Bonetti 2019). In England, the overwhelming majority (78%) of nurseries are private (profit-making), voluntary and independent, for which there are no requirements to employ qualified staff (DfE 2021). There has been much debate as to who can work with children, and what kind of skills and qualifications nursery workers need (Fairchild et al. 2022). These debates are based largely on the nature of ECEC policies that seek to 'improve the quality of early years training' (DfE 2021, 2) and which 'set the standards that all early years' providers must meet to ensure that children learn and develop well and are kept healthy and safe' (DfE 2021, 6).

Currently, the ECEC sector is experiencing big challenges in the UK. Post Covid-19 lockdowns and global factors e.g., environmental sustainability, and the Ukrainian war, a number of key difficulties have surfaced such as financial sustainability for education and beyond, young children's (and their families) emotional and communication skills, but also how to support the sector, and the EY practitioners. What has become clear is the lack of support from the current government resulting in nurseries across the UK being forced to close or reduce their services at an alarming rate (NDNA 2023). Nurseries also reported that they are struggling to recruit and retain staff, which is what our research findings also highlighted.

It is in this hostile political and national environment that this research has taken place. Another significance of the research was that it took place on the IOW, which is a small island located off the south of England. This gave another dimension of the findings. The main aim was to find out how the HE degree helps the professional work and what the students were planning to do once they have completed their studies. Therefore, the aim of the of project was 'To explore the ECEC sectors perspectives of ECS degrees FD and BA (Hons) Top Up and ECS graduates on Isle of Wight'. It hoped to map the terrain on the IOW, to get a better understanding what a graduate 'looks like' and what the degrees offer the ECEC sector on the IOW. The outcome of the research aimed to examine and improve the delivery of both, Foundation Degree (FdA), and BA (Hons) Top Up, at IOW Further Education college.

The research

The research was conducted in a further education (FE) college on the IOW. The study took place between 2021 and 2023 and the aims were to:

- To examine how the ECEC sector see the 'graduate skills'.
- To explore the value of Early Childhood Studies (ECS) degrees to the sector.

The expectation was that by conducting this research universities can offer a better tailored programme to students.

Participants

Ethics was a key component for this project and was considered on the following levels. The research adhered to institutional and educational research guidance and codes of ethics and conduct at an institutional and disciplinary level (BERA 2018). Prior to any data collection, favourable ethical approval was obtained. Consent and information sheets were provided prior to the focus group interview, and it was designed to be easy and quick to complete to minimise impact on the time on participants. In total, 24 participants were recruited, who were also mature students and were employed in a range of EY settings across the IOW. There were 23 female and 1 male participant which reflects the national gender picture (Bonetti, 2019). The sample varied in age with the youngest in the 18-24 and the oldest in the 45-54 age groups. They were all White British.

Research method

It has been claimed by many authors that focus group interviews are relatively common form of data collection in qualitative research (Barbour and Kitzinger 1999), but they are not without their challenges. Due to participants personal and professional responsibilities, we were economical on time, therefore forty minutes was allotted for each of four groups of six students, as recommended by Barbour and Kitzinger (1999) for educational research. Although the data generated was less than would be expected from individual interviews, the benefits of the collective view (Morgan 1988) and the meeting of the psychological and social needs of the students (Gibbs 2007) compensated for this.

The idea that the data represents the ‘truth’ about the world also can be challenged, as it is historically and culturally specific and open to change (Cohen et al. 2018). This subjectivity is embedded within the interpretative paradigm, allowing interweaving with the process of exploration, rather than the following of a method. The questions asked were open to allow the participants to tell their experiences and stories (Bruner 2004). The questions asked were generally about the reason for studying, their roles in the educational settings, which meant that the semi-structured nature of the focus group interviews provided opportunities for the interviewees to dwell on certain topics. For example, we gained rich data about the reason for staying on the IOW to study. We were also aware of the intensity when researching human experiences, and that one of the fundamental aspects is that the researcher needs to be responsive to potential sensitivity of the interviewee and its possible impact on their emotions. It is important to mention that participants knew each other in the focus group therefore their response reflects that they were familiar with each other. It is also important to recognise the unintended consequences to this research. The aims were to find out how the sample valued HE and how ECEC degrees were received by the sector. However, the responses used as the basis for this article were surprising and the level of emotive language used was intriguing. As a result, the research approach has taken the form of a grounded theory approach. It has been the discovery of theory from the data (Glaser and Strauss 2008). The process was abductive i.e., observation into theory, literature became significant as the data emerged (Magnini 2001). The theory used to discuss the findings was used to account for the surprising or puzzling findings (Charmaz 2014, Reichertz 2007). As a result, conclusions were able to be drawn from the data about the emotional use of language from unanticipated findings.

Findings

The overall findings of the research were divided into three themes; these were:

- Logistical and financial
- Professional
- Personal

The first illuminated participants’ views on issues they faced regarding practicalities of undertaking an HE programme, such as costs and travelling. The second concerned the impact on professional development in ECEC settings. These were the expected responses as the aims of the research were to

assess the benefits or otherwise of the programme. However, the third exposed the students' self-perception and anxieties in relation to being in an HE programme, and it is this theme that will form the basis of this analysis.

From the theme of 'personal' three sub-topics emerged; these were:

- (i) self-esteem
- (ii) professional development
- (iii) personal development

The focus group data from these sub-topics are presented below.

Self-esteem

Many saw their personal and family situations as a disadvantage to studying, and as a result, did not see themselves as ever embarking on HE. One summed up the feeling of the group by saying they were:

...disadvantaged because they have children and other commitments.

Some expressed the view that single parenthood was perceived to be another major hurdle to achieving in HE:

I'm massively struggling to find anything that will fit in with solo parenting, I don't have another person there either...

Of the perceived barriers, some were logistical. For example, there is no university as such on the IOW and the prospect of travelling to the UK mainland to go to university was not relished:

I haven't got the mental capability to leave (the Isle of Wight).

One of the participants had interviewed at a mainland university but was told in no uncertain terms that placements were difficult, and that attendance was crucial, and that living on the IOW was a disadvantage.

Some saw HE as for other people and not themselves, and even when they had the opportunity to study at an FE college on the IOW, they expressed a deficit of agency and power. Their view of their abilities to fit in and survive in higher HE was blunt:

I personally wasn't ready at nineteen/twenty to go to university.

I never thought, I'd ever be the typical university student.

One found the prospect of going to a university intimidating:

I don't think I would have fitted in to the normal university life because it's just so many more people and you are in a big lecture hall.

When one started, they felt:

For the first like week or so, I was like I can't. I can't do this. This is gonna be a nightmare, because I was there like I don't know any of these things that they're expecting you to do.

However, anxieties were relaxed for one:

When I first started, I was never really a university student I didn't really know how to do that, but I feel like throughout time it's just kind of sunk into my head a little bit.

Despite the lack of status of the ECEC sector, there was a feeling in the group that after the initial nervousness reduced, that their life experience had been useful preparation for university:

Most of us, like had children in our twenties and stuff, I always wanted to do a degree, and I'm glad now I've waited because actually, doing it later on, has given it more context.

Professional development

One theme that recurred throughout the data was that of confidence' in their roles. Many of the group spoke about their lack of faith in themselves had held them back. Their feelings about their family situations and a sense that the professional world has left the ECEC sector behind came through in this respect. One felt that the programme had enabled her to:

...learn about children/ gain confidence in working with children/ to do job better.

Others stated:

It's just changed my whole perspective in my role.

It just made me a bit more of a confident person in knowing what I know... it's kind of helped me more being me as well as just professionally.

Some felt they had become more reflective and critical in their roles:

I didn't used to know how to sort out a situation but now...I can actually think back and criticise and challenge.

I think it's given me the opportunity to question... instead of just accepting that that's why it was done.

...and more confident dealing with stakeholders in their roles:

I just feel more professional... doing this course has helped me talk to parents with more confidence.

I look at things a little bit more open, I'm opinionated with my thoughts, I step back and think...more confident...

One was specific about the confidence HE brought:

I basically just wanted to do it to get more confident in my role.

Because of the low status of the ECEC sector, some felt that the programme had helped to open opportunities in their careers that they never thought they would encounter:

Yes! The way I see it is that it's going to open a lot more avenues up for me.

It helped me progress because I was just a bank support worker and I'm now home coordinator.

An FdA offers the opportunity for students already working in a sector, to maintain their employment and study at the same time (Mikuska 2023; 2014), and this model was welcomed by the participants. The students would typically move on to other roles in ECEC such as school teaching, and social work, as well as specialist roles such as occupational therapy and psychology. Although the options available were appreciated, the limitations of the IOW were acknowledged. Achieving a degree was viewed as a way to develop their careers in the childcare sector and move away from nurseries and reception classes.

To go into a different route from early years, but still work with children.

Others were more specific:

The Top up has opened doors- for example to study for the Certificate of Education

One participant claimed that the professional benefits of HE had already paid off:

Well, I think just that it's well worth it when it's the right time for you.

The managers and supervisors in the sample had come to appreciate the skills and abilities that early childhood HE offers; these include depth of understanding, communication skills, and team working. However, most of the sample looked beyond practising in nurseries and reception classes, when they achieve a degree:

I originally wanted to go into mental health ... but now I am happy to see where it takes me.

However, familiar doubts still expressed themselves; there was still a feeling that the ECEC workforce was still exploitative. Some felt that early years' graduates could be recruited to positions which required only lower-level qualifications, and therefore felt a level of exploitation, saying:

On the IW, schools advertise a lower level and take graduates for lower-level work.

Schools recruit staff that need level 3 for their job, from graduates, to do higher level work (ie teachers) for the same terms and conditions.

Personal

Apart from a sense of (unexpected) achievement, the respondents gave other 'personal' benefits to studying in HE. These varied from the 'love of studying' to 'validation to self and others'. All felt it was 'worth doing'. They spoke of the value of learning but also of benefits outside of a professional context;

these personal benefits included improved self-confidence and resilience, and a sense of doing it for 'myself'.

Yeah, like I've really achieved something.

If I wasn't here, if I hadn't done it, I wouldn't be who I am now.

Due to a feeling that they did were not really worthy, there was a clear sense that the big university experience was not a welcome option, and that they would not have coped in a larger institution. Some stated that the experience of HE had given them a greater sense of patience and understanding, and the feeling of personal achievement was pronounced:

It's made me more resilient... so it's helped me personally develop. So now I approach other things in my life using the same mindset that I use in the degree. And it does work.

...and a renewed sense of confidence:

I am a different person- more confident.

I'd say it definitely brings confidence.

This spilled over into confidence about the workplace; there was a realisation that what they their practice in ECEC was of high value. From job applications to faith in ability to take on new roles. Two commented:

I've got confidence, when you fill out application form... your mindset in answering the questions and what they're looking for.

I know what they're looking for because it's changed your way of thinking... you can understand what they're looking for rather than, before, trying to fake it.

Options and the confidence to apply for them have both increased:

As I've gone further and further through, its opened so many different doors...actually, I can do this, and I can do that...there are so many options now than what I originally thought.

One significant finding was the impact on their self-concept. Although it was acknowledged that the degree was useful for career development, they all felt that it had its own value beyond professional development. One state that her perspective had changed:

The degree expanded my world (and brought) personal development.

It has changed the way that I think about everything.

Realising that I am quite capable (academically) look, I've done it.

Although there was a sense of personal achievement...

You've done it for you and nothing else.

...some felt that the impact on family was important. One wanted to provide a role model for her son:

Show the family I am studying, he can see me studying, and I can see him doing it.

...also, to show my son that if I can do it, he can do it too.

This newfound confidence through HE could be positive for their self-concept beyond the role of parenting:

For so long all I was a mum...there was nothing that was just for me if that makes sense...this was a chance to prove to myself that I am still capable of doing things like this, and to role-model to my children that you can do things at any stage of your life.

Also, the sense of esteem within the family was evident. Whereas before they had been servants to the family, they now saw a way of gaining appreciation from family members:

I think personally, it's a massive achievement...as a parent...you're always praising your children and you're bigging up everything that they do. When do you ever, really, big up things that you've done? You've done this and finished it, and you've done it for you and nothing else?

However, even though HE could provide a welcome distraction from the rigours of life...

It helped, it helped just to be busy all the time.

It's got me through my divorce, ha-ha, it's very expensive therapy.

I haven't had time to think about what good is this for me because it's just go... go.

...some of the benefits of HE were outweighed by the effort needed in HE:

Apart from being pregnant this is the most stressful thing ever it's been horrendous.

Findings summary

The language used by the respondents reveals the students' experiences on early childhood HE programmes on the IOW are practical and developmental, and they saw significantly wider benefits to HE beyond purely professional development. They revealed low levels of self-esteem before starting, but levels of self-worth were raised by a sense of achievement. Although reluctant at first, the group learned to embrace the more implicit benefits of HE such as gains in confidence and authority. HE for this group gave an unexpected uplift to their sense of selves through achievement at something they initially had little confidence about. However, this sense of achievement does not manifest itself until students reach a level of confidence where they can see the potential benefits and possibilities. Having said this, it was also acknowledged that the ECEC sector does not fully appreciate those in the workforce that achieve degrees. It was felt that they are often offered positions where a degree is not necessary (DfE 2021). There is a recognition that professional progression is possible, i.e., away from nurseries and reception classes, but holding a degree is a significant boost to the self-concept and self-efficacy of students and this should not be underestimated.

Theoretical discussion

To conceptualise the responses on the theme of 'personal', several theoretical viewpoints were consulted. As a base from which to work on, the concept of 'imposter syndrome' was used to show how the participants felt they did not really belong in HE. To develop this, theory on the nature and use of language was used to explain the responses. This included general ideas about language and the self, cultural capital, and discourse analysis. Finally, because there seemed to be some hidden meaning in the language used, phenomenological theory on language was used to uncover what the respondents did not say, but what was implied through what they did say. This process of analysis was used to draw conclusions about the emotional responses of the students, and these will be presented after the theoretical discussion. The sample will be related to interchangeably as 'respondents' and 'students' throughout the discussion.

Imposter syndrome

From many of the statements made by the respondents, there seemed to be a sense that, although they had successfully and legitimately passed the necessary qualifications to study at Level 6 (i.e., the final year of a degree), some doubts persisted that they felt they did not fully belong. This raises the issue of 'imposter syndrome'. Young (2011) breaks the concept of imposter syndrome into five different categories, and two of these are relevant to their feelings about themselves. Young writes about the 'perfectionist', where the incumbent does not think they are as able as others think they are, and then 'soloist' where the need to ask for help leads to a questioning of their own abilities. In response to these elements of Young's theory, there was no evidence that the respondents thought that others perceived them as having authority in their subjects.

On the contrary, they felt they had to prove themselves to others, for example to family members. This was also discussed in the study by Mikuska (2014; 2023) and Giancola et al. (2008) where mature students' motive to enrol HE programme and reported that one of the reasons was to be the 'role model' for their children. There was also no feeling that asking for help was a sign of fallibility; many of the students felt they had to rely on the advice of the university staff for support and confirmation of their abilities. Therefore, there was little evidence that they fitted the 'soloist' element of Young's (2011) theory. However, the other three elements of Young's theory were more fitting to the respondents. In terms of the 'natural genius', there was a sense that they felt others were more justified as being in HE

than them; they seemed to feel that they did not naturally 'belong' whereas others had more of a right or ability than they had, to be in HE. Following from this there was no feeling that they were 'experts' in the words of Young. Although they had legitimately achieved relevant qualifications to get where they were, there was little feeling that they had become experts in their field. Likewise, there was a sense that they had to put in very high levels of effort to achieve, to avoid feelings of being a 'fraud'; in the words of Young, they felt they had to be super persons to justify achievement in HE. From this analysis, it can be concluded that they feel they do not truly belong in education, and they must punish themselves to justify their position on the programme.

The linguistic market

In terms of cultural capital, the respondents use of language revealed feelings of low levels of ambition and an acceptance of a low market position. Bourdieu (1977) wrote of language as a symbolic market where linguistic exchanges happen. This refers to language as cultural capital where a person's linguistic skills determine their position in society through social power relations (Park 2011). The language uncovered a sense of limited cultural capital and a perceived low position in social power relations. Bourdieu (1993) wrote of language as an internalised disposition of social background, and that this language habitus can lead to success or failure in the linguistic market. In language exchanges, actors experience a system of positive and negative reinforcements, and this affects their strategies of expression. The participants certainly expressed an idea of their social backgrounds and cultural capital through their language and there was also a sense of them testing their ideas and beliefs to gain confirmation or rejection, with a view to alter and adjust how they communicated in subsequent exchanges. This was expressed through statements about the struggle to survive in HE due to e.g., family circumstances, and expectations of life after achieving a degree, which was also the finding elsewhere (Mikuska 2014, 2023). Some expressed a lack of confidence at being a student, or feeling of 'fitness' to go to university, but other statements about the eventual benefits of HE, suggest that the students are testing their feelings to determine if they are shared by others, as a way of confirming their view of themselves. From this, it can be deduced that coming from a low position in the linguistic market, they use language exchanges as a way of validating themselves based on the reactions of others.

Discourse analysis

In terms of the expression of power through language, the respondents expressed both negative and positive feelings. Foucault's (1998) ideas about language are associated with power relations through the meaning of language beyond the speaking itself. According to Foucault, discourse is an expression of the interrelationship of language and society. 'Discourse transmits and produces power; it reinforces it, but also undermines and exposes it, renders it fragile and makes it possible to thwart.' (Foucault 1998, 100-101). The respondents related to power in two ways, on one hand they expressed a sense of powerlessness; on the hand they related to a renewed sense of power because of HE. In terms of the former, this ranges from expressing doubts about achieving because of family circumstances, and reservations about embarking on HE in the first place; from being intimidated by others on the programme to feeling that others know more than them. In terms of the second, respondents who came to embrace an ability to think critically about the opening of career opportunities have also become more confident personally with changes to how they think more generally. From this, it is clear that the respondents have views about their own agency, from a sense of powerlessness to new-found confidence.

Différance

What was interesting about the responses was the implicit meanings the students conveyed, that were not said explicitly. According to Derrida (1982), words do not fully say what they mean, they can

only be defined through other words, from which they differ. Literal meaning is impossible, and is a form of fiction (Derrida 1976). Meaning cannot be present in itself, because it refers to other words and meanings. ‘The literal [proper] meaning does not exist, its “appearance” is a necessary function – and must be analysed as such – in the system of differences and metaphors’ (Derrida 1976, 89).

Derrida writes about ‘différance’ as to ‘defer’ and to ‘differ’ i.e., how what is said defers to other meaning and how it differs from the other reciprocal words. By analysing the responses and applying this principle, what was not said can be important. So, in terms of the sub-topics, the implicit meaning of what the respondents were saying can be speculated on.

Table 1. Différance and responses

Response	Reciprocal meaning
(i) Self-esteem	
You’ve done it for you and nothing else.	Prioritisation of others in the past e.g., family and children in a professional sense. Now they are prioritising themselves
I’ve got confidence, when you fill out application form	A previous lack of perceived ability in completing official documentation.
Yeah, like I’ve really achieved something.	Lack of accomplishment in the past, or expectation to accomplish anything significant.
(ii) Professional development	
I just feel more professional	A feeling that in the past they were not professionals in practice.
Because you have more belief in what you’re saying is right... you’ve got more confidence in what you’re saying.	In the past, a lack of confidence over communicating in a professional environment.
Yes! The way I see it is that it’s going to open a lot more avenues up for me.	Career options were perceived to be more limited in the past.
(i) Personal development	
I am a different person- more confident.	In the past, a perception of insecurity.
It just made me a bit more of a confident person in knowing what I know	Despite having knowledge in the past, this was not recognised.
Realising that I am quite capable (academically) look, I’ve done it.	A perception of inability to achieve academically in the past.

Culture in the person

To explain the transformation of the sample, concepts from the Trajectory Equifinality Model (Sato and Tanimura 2016) will be used. Valsiner (2011) outlines several axioms for cultural psychology, the first being that perceived stability of experiences is actually dynamic. In terms of the sample's responses, they felt a sense of stability (or entrapment) in their family and ECEC situations before embarking in HE, their activities seemed to be isolated and closed. But this stability is dynamic and can move. Subjects tend to slow down time for experiences which are felt as 'happy' and speed up time for experiences felt as 'sad' (Valsiner 2011). The sample have come to a realisation that their situation in ECEC is not positive, it is a semiotic pitfall, and are ready to move time on to new experiences. Second, Valsiner (2011) argues that a person does not belong to a culture, but that culture belongs to the person; this culture that belongs, is utilised for everyday living. The sample have lived with one form of culture i.e., the experiences in their families and in the ECEC sector, and that has defined their expectations and ambitions. The experience of HE has changed the culture within them, and they have adopted a new culture, which reflects new expectations and ambitions.

This theoretical discussion reveals the perceptions of the students' professional and personal situations. Operating in a female dominated sector noted for its low pay and status, and perceived lack of professional status (Moyles 2001), as well as the apparent hazards of ongoing regulation and accountability (Osgood 2012), they feel that they are not justified in entering a professional world. Because of their personal and family situations they feel that they do not belong in HE. They express this through emotive languages that illuminates their perceived power position, and it is only after they pass a certain tipping point that they realise that the experience and expertise they have accumulated in the ECEC sector might be worth something after all. From this it can be concluded that, before entering HE, some of the respondents had experienced lack of confidence and anxieties in professional life influenced by the ECEC sector and had surprised themselves with their new-found abilities. From this, they feel agency to extricate themselves from their current situations and adopt a different culture to facilitate their new way of individual living.

Conclusions

This research has unexpectedly shed light on the thoughts and feelings, through language, of professional and personal development of a group of students. It has shown perceived lack of confidence and self-esteem; low expectations and acceptance of low-level roles in the ECEC sector. However, despite an uphill struggle, benefits have been derived from studying in HE; these range from increased self-esteem and professional and personal development. The reason these findings are unexpected is because the responses analysed here are highly emotive and personal. This is more important because this is not what was originally intended or asked for and a paradigm shift (Kuhn, 1962). This student group's habitus (Bourdieu 1977) is of outsiders entering HE under false pretences. Not only do they feel they do not truly belong in education, but they also turn this anxiety on themselves to justify their imposition in HE and prepare themselves for possible failure (Mikuska 2014). Coming from a perceived low position in the cultural market, they use language exchanges based on the reactions of others, as a way of judging the legitimacy of them being in HE. In some cases, views about their own agency emerge, and these vary from a sense of powerlessness to new-found confidence. Their explicit responses are based on hidden anxieties about achievement in education and their professional lives. The students have realised their academic abilities and that they can progress into more challenging roles. However, the students do not see this in a purely professional sense; for them HE has been a journey of personal change and growth, and this should not be undervalued. Maslow (1943) writes about deficiency needs and motivation. As the students gain esteem through their experiences in HE, the search for esteem is diminished; from here they seek growth needs and self-actualisation. HE has satisfied some of the deficiency needs and encouraged them to seek development. This is also reflected in Alderfer's (1972)

concept of achievement; their experience in HE has reduced their sense of 'risk', and they feel a new sense of confidence to further their careers.

The respondents demonstrate a need for autonomy- to be a person in their own right (Pink 2009) instead of subordinating themselves to others. They also seek 'mastery' (Pink 2009), and once tasted, they developed confidence to change and undertake more HE, and develop professionally. Finally, for some they found a renewed sense of 'purpose' (Pink 2009) after realising they can achieve against actual and perceived obstacles. This purpose gave them confidence and faith to develop and extend their professional roles. However, underlying this is a sense that they need to compare themselves with, and to distance themselves from, those they perceive to be destined to succeed. These conclusions were only possible to determine because of the emotional use of language by the respondents.

Funding: The author(s) disclosed receipt of the following financial support for the research, authorship, and/or publication of this article: The research was funded by the Research Innovation Fund awarded by the University of Chichester.

Ethical approval: This research project was approved by the Research Ethics Committee at University of Chichester.

References

- Alderfer, C. (1972) *Existence, relatedness, and growth; human needs in organisational settings*. New York: Free Press.
- Barbour, R., Kitzinger, J. (1999) *Developing focus group research: Politics, theory, and practice*. London: Sage.
- Bonetti, S. (2019). *The Early Years Workforce in England. A comparative analysis using a Labour Force Survey*. London: Education Policy Institute.
- Bourdieu, P. (1977). The economics of linguistic exchanges. *Social Science Information*, 16(6): 645-668.
- Bourdieu, P. (1993). *Language and Symbolic Power*. Cambridge: Polity.
- British Educational Research Association (BERA) (2018) *Ethical Guidelines for Educational Research*. file:///C:/Users/User/Downloads/BERA-Ethical-Guidelines-for-Educational-Research_4thEdn_2018.pdf.
- Bruner, J. (2004). Life as narrative. *Social Research*, 71(3): 691-710.
- Charmaz, C. (2014). *Constructing grounded theory* (2nd Ed) London: Sage.
- Cohen, L., Manion, L., Morrison, K. (2018). *Research methods in education*. 8th Edition. Abingdon: Routledge.
- Department for Education (DfE) (2021). *Statutory framework for the early years foundation stage: Setting the standards for learning, development and care for children from birth to five*. Department for Education, Cheshire. <https://www.gov.uk/government/publications/early-years-foundation-stage-framework--2>.
- Derrida, J. (1976). *Of Grammatology*. London: Johns Hopkins University Press.
- Derrida, J. (1982). *Margins of Philosophy*. Chicago: University of Chicago Press.
- Fairchild, N., Mikuska, E., Sabine, A., Barton, S. (2022): *The Early Childhood Education and Care sector's perspective on the Early Childhood Studies graduate and the Early Childhood Graduate Practitioner Competencies. Project Report*. University of Chichester, Chichester.
- Foucault, M. (1998). *The History of Sexuality: The Will to Knowledge*. London: Penguin.
- Giancola, K., Munz, J., Trares, D. S. (2008). First-versus Continuing-generation Adult Students on College Perceptions: Are differences actually because of demographic variance? *Adult Education Quarterly*, 58(3): 214-228.
- Gibbs, G. (2007): *Analysing quantitative data*. London: Sage.

- Glaser, B., Strauss, L. (2008) *The discovery of grounded theory: strategies for qualitative research*. London: Aldine Transaction.
- Kuhn, T. S. (1962). *The structure of scientific revolutions*. University of Chicago Press: Chicago.
- Magnani, L. (2001). *Abduction, Reason, and Science: Processes of Discovery and Explanation*. New York: Kluwer Academic Plenum Publishers.
- Maslow, A. H. (1943). *A theory of human motivation*. *Psychological Review*, 50(4): 370-396.
- Mikuska, E., (2014). *The Relationship between Higher Education, Emotion and Gender: A Qualitative Study Using Text and Interviews*. London: Sage Publications, Inc. <https://doi.org/10.4135/978144627305013510241>.
- Mikuska, E. (2023). Your Emotional, Personal Life and Achievements as an Undergraduate. In Trodd, L. and Hayes, C. (Eds.) *The Early Years Handbook for Students and Practitioners: An Essential Guide for the Foundation Degree and Levels 4 and 5*, 2nd ed. (pp. 9-33). London: Routledge. <https://doi.org/10.4324/9781003154853>.
- Morgan, D. (1988). *Focus groups as qualitative research*. London: Sage.
- Moyles, J. (2001). Passion, paradox and professionalism in early years education. *Early Years*, 21(2): 81-95.
- National Day Nurseries Association (2023). Early years workforce: You are Super Stars. <https://ndna.org.uk/>.
- Oberhuemer, P., Schreyer, I., Neuman, M.J. (2010). *Professionals in Early Childhood Education and Care Systems: European Profiles and Perspectives*. Leverkusen: Barbara Budrich.
- Osgood, J. (2012). *Narratives from the Nursery. Negotiating Professional Identities in Early Childhood*. Oxon: Routledge <https://doi.org/10.4324/9780203143063>
- Park, J. (2011). The promise of English: linguistic capital and the neoliberal worker in the South Korean job market. *International Journal of Bilingual Education and Bilingualism*, 14(4): 443-455.
- Pink, D. (2009). *Drive: The surprising truth about what motivates us*. New York: Riverhead.
- Rabinow, P. (Ed.) (1997). *Michael Foucault: Ethics, subjectivity and truth. The Essential Works 1954 – 1984. Vol. 1*. London: Penguin.
- Reichartz, I. (2007). Abduction: the logic of discovery of grounded theory. In A. Bryant and K. Charmer (Eds): *Handbook of Grounded theory* (pp. 214-228) London: Sage.
- Sato, T., Tanimura, H. (2016) The Trajectory Equifinality Model (TEM) as a General Tool for Understanding Human Life Course within Irreversible Time. In T. Sato, N. Mori, Valsiner, J. (Eds.) *Making of the Future. The trajectory Equifinality Approach in Cultural Psychology* (pp. 21-42). Charlotte, NC: Information Age Publishing. <https://books.google.co.uk/books?hl=en&lr=&id=IKdCDQAAQBAJ&oi=fnd&pg=PA21&dq=trajectory+equifinality+model+definition&ots=XmzhTfEbpz&sig=mMI31zkfmzLXSy9WtgDGsimPTE#v=onepage&q=trajectory%20equifinality%20model%20definition&f=false>
- Valsiner, J. (2011). *Assessment and its Discontents: A view from cultural psychology*. Keynote presentation at the 11th European Conference on Psychological Assessment. Retrieved from https://www.researchgate.net/publication/305489729_Assessment_and_its_Discontents_A_view_from_cultural_psychology.
- Young, V. (2011). *The Secret Thoughts of Successful Women: And Men: Why Capable People Suffer from Impostor Syndrome and How to Thrive in Spite of It*. New York: Random House.

Emotions in Norwegian language debate

ISSN 2657-9774; <https://doi.org/10.36534/erlj.2023.01.03>

Jens Haugen

Inland Norway University of Applied Sciences; jens.haugan@inn.no

Abstract

Norway has two official Norwegian languages, Bokmål and Nynorsk. The majority of Norwegians use Bokmål as their written language (ca. 80%) which makes Nynorsk a minority language or lesser used language. Ever since the legal decision to have two official written languages (1885) there has been a public debate in Norway which may be fierce and emotional at times. After having investigated emotional expressions regarding the two written languages in the newspaper corpus of the Norwegian National Library we found that emotions are associated with Nynorsk to a much larger extent than with Bokmål. While Nynorsk may be associated with both love and hate, Bokmål can be said to be more default and neutral when it comes to opinions or emotions.

Keywords: *language attitudes, language debate, emotions, affective filter*

Introduction

The affective side of language can be somewhat mysterious and thought-provoking. Understandably, one can express affects and emotions through language. The system of linguistic signs and grammatical rules makes it possible to encode and decode all kinds of feelings, thoughts, facts and fiction. We can talk about apples and oranges, bees and birds, dreams and deeds, and we can talk about affects and emotions. We can love chocolate or each other, and we can hate mosquitos or bad weather – and we can agree and disagree about what we love or hate. These things may be interesting in itself and worth reflecting upon, but while it may sound reasonable that some people do not like string music or brass music, it may perhaps be less understandable that they might not like violins or trumpets, i.e. the instruments responsible for the sounds and music (unless, perhaps, they are somehow forced to play an instrument they do not like or feel they master). We might not like the opinion expressed by someone, but would we dislike the language through which this opinion is expressed? Of course, there may be words or expressions we could find offensive in some way, but usually not the grammatical system of the language that is used to encode these opinions. On the other hand, we might perhaps find a language “beautiful” or “ugly” depending on our experience (exposure to other languages) and preferences. In the western world, for instance, some might find that French is “beautiful” while German is “ugly” without any objective reasoning, cf. BeTranslated (2017):

At The Guardian, Matthew Jenkin explains that sociolinguistics have so far not been able to find any intrinsic reason that certain languages should be objectively “more beautiful” than others. Instead, a language’s attractiveness seems to depend entirely on our own background.

The perception of “beautiful” versus “ugly” is usually based on the sounds and melody of a language and not on certain other grammatical features. Furthermore, most of us do not necessarily think of our own language(s) in these terms, cf. e.g. Valderas (2023):

It's common to hear by foreigner [*sic*] that Swedish is a very rhythmic and 'melodic language'. It's probably one of those things that you don't reflect upon if you are a native Swedish-speaker unless you have some sort of linguistic background.

Most people do probably not spend much time on reflecting upon whether they *like* their mother tongue or not. Aesthetical or emotional perceptions would more likely rather be about a foreign language. After all, we are born and socialized into a linguistic environment where the language or languages we are exposed to feel natural to us. It is not necessarily something we like or dislike or feel anything special about. It is just "there" as a tool for communication. When we hear a foreign language, on the other hand, we might have a subjective opinion about how we feel about this language, cf. e.g. Valderas (2023):

Something that is not understood may be considered unnatural. When we hear a sound or word that is familiar, we get a warm and comfortable feeling. We can probably appreciate a language a lot more that has the same alphabet and shares words or qualities with our mother tongue – perhaps the underlying structure is recognizable and easier to comprehend. Introducing a new linguistic system with new tones and sounds would therefore go the opposite way, disrupt our learned inclination toward a certain type of sound, eventually deeming it harsh, aggressive, or even ugly. If you are used to words with few consonants such as in Romance languages, chances are you will find German and its consonants to be a challenge.

Even though we might not reflect much upon whether we like or dislike our own mother tongue *per se*, we may still respond emotionally when it comes to different dialects or accents of our language. In many western countries there is often a so-called national or official language, like, for instance, English, German, French, Polish etc. (there may be more than one official language, of course), and there may be a difference in status when it comes to the different dialects or accents compared to a national standard pronunciation. Historically, often the original dialect of the capital acquired the highest status or prestige, while urban dialects in general may have been perceived as having higher status than rural dialects (cf. e.g. Halliday 1978, Trudgill 1984). From a traditional status perspective, expectedly, there may be those who find rural dialects less appealing than their own, urban, variety of speech. Since such a view – historically – was more often expressed by those who belonged to a higher class that used standard speech, rural dialect users may actually have had negative emotions about their own language because of a real or perceive imbalance of power (cf. Bourdieu 1991). And then again, there may be those who choose to embrace their dialect which may make sociolinguists wonder "Why do people continue to use low status varieties when they know it may well be in their economic and social interests to acquire a variety of high prestige?" (Milroy and Milroy 2012, 49). Hence, there are phonetic/melodic aspects that may trigger emotions about language, and there may be social aspects that may trigger emotions about. But in most cases, this regards spoken languages and not written languages.

Norway has two official written (Norwegian) languages, Bokmål and Nynorsk, which is not anything special in itself. Many countries have two or more official languages, like, for instance, Switzerland with German, French, Italian and Romansh. However, while German, French, Italian and Romansh are not mutually intelligible languages, Norwegian Bokmål and Nynorsk are just two written standards of the same Norwegian language, and these two written varieties have only recently have been defined as separate languages (quoted from the official English translation of *Lov om språk*, Act relating to Language (Lovdata 2021):

Section 4. Norwegian language

Norwegian is the primary national language in Norway.

Bokmål and Nynorsk are Norwegian languages with equal value that can be used in all parts of society. Bokmål and Nynorsk have equal standing as written languages in public bodies.

This definition as two “Norwegian languages with equal value”, however, is first of all a legal matter. Legally, but also linguistically, Bokmål and Nynorsk both represent “the Norwegian language”. This does not mean that this coexistence of the two Norwegian written varieties is unproblematic, and some might even feel (subjectively and emotionally) that the lesser used variety, Nynorsk, is as incomprehensible as a foreign language (see e.g. Haugan 2017, 2019, 2022 and references there). The historical and practical perspective of the two Norwegian written varieties is, however, not the focus of the present paper (see e.g. Haugen 1966, Jahr 2015). Ever since the Norwegian state decided to have two official written languages in 1885, there has been a public language debate. There may, of course, be many good reasons in favour of or against two Norwegian written languages, but, as Vikør (1975, 17) puts it: “The Norwegian language conflict is basically a social conflict. It is an expression of a more general struggle over political, social and economic power”.

In the present paper, we will not look at the more or less reasonable or objective side of the Norwegian language debate with arguments for and against two written languages, cf. Vikør (1975, 17): “If viewed superficially, the Norwegians are fighting over small and insignificant linguistic differences”. Instead, we will investigate whether we can detect emotions expressed by the debaters when writing about one or the other Norwegian language, Bokmål and Nynorsk. One of the main reasons for the language debate in Norway is the fact that everyone has to learn both written languages, Bokmål and Nynorsk, at school. However, one of the written varieties is handled as the main written language whereas the other one, accordingly, is the second or alternative written language (see e.g. Haugan 2017). Statistically, there are about 85-90% Norwegians who have Bokmål as their main written language and 10-15% who use Nynorsk as their main language (see e.g. Grepstad 2020), which, of course, is a huge mismatch and one of the reasons for the language debate where Nynorsk is the so-called lesser-used language (Walton, 2015), which usually puts Nynorsk users on the defence side in the language debate. The language act (law) (Lovdata 2021) recognizes the challenged position of Nynorsk and states explicitly in *Section 1: Purpose* (from the official English version): “The responsibility pursuant to the second paragraph (a) includes a special responsibility for promoting Nynorsk, as the least used written Norwegian language.” However, the official state view on the two written languages as having equal value is not necessarily shared by everyone. The public language debate is often characterized by a high degree of negativity – first of all against Nynorsk. Grepstad (2020, 580) reports:

Bokmål and Nynorsk users met very different attitudes to their own language usage. In 2015 nine out of ten Bokmål users had received few negative reactions to their writing Bokmål, and two out of three Nynorsk users when they wrote Nynorsk. Two out of three Bokmål users had received few positive reactions to their writing Bokmål, and only one in every five Nynorsk users had rarely or never received positive reactions to their writing Nynorsk.

The goal of this paper is to investigate how Norwegian Bokmål users and Nynorsk users verbally express their emotions about their own or the other written language.

Theoretical background

Motivation psychology

We want to investigate how emotions about language are verbally expressed by users of Norwegian Bokmål and Nynorsk. We will not try to investigate the phenomenon *emotions* as such and for the

present study, it will not be necessary to commit to any specific theoretical approach or definition, according to Wikipedia:

Emotions are mental states brought on by neurophysiological changes, variously associated with thoughts, feelings, behavioral responses, and a degree of pleasure or displeasure. There is currently no scientific consensus on a definition. Emotions are often intertwined with mood, temperament, personality, disposition, or creativity.

Emotions may play a role in many research fields. In our case, we will investigate debate texts in public newspapers. Given the fact that the debaters chose to express their meaning – and emotions – verbally in written texts in public, there must have been a strong motivation for doing so. Motivation psychology may, therefore, be one relevant theoretical perspective. Herbert, Bendig and Rojas (2019, 2) state that:

Language is a powerful tool of human communication; it constitutes an important medium for conveying thoughts, feelings, emotions, and actions and for reflecting about them (Chomsky and Smith 2000). In particular during writing, we express emotions by putting feelings into words.

These researchers are interested in the therapeutic effect of writing, which is not a topic of the present investigation. However, since we will be looking at different verbal expressions for emotions, we may have in mind that so-called linguistic markers also play a role in applied emotion and motivation psychology, cf. Herbert, Bendig and Rojas (2019, 3):

Although the effects of writing on well-being are undisputed in the literature, it is still a matter of ongoing research how exactly these health-related cognitive processes and proposed mechanisms of expressive writing (e.g., cognitive reframing, reappraisal, self-disclosure) do manifest in writing: in particular there is ongoing research on how psychological variables can be inferred through linguistic markers and hence by the way we write and use different types of words during writing.

As stated by Herbert (2015, 56), the relationship between language and emotions or emotions and language can be measured physically:

One of the most compelling experimental demonstration of how closely related human language and emotions can be and how this can affect activity in some of the core affective systems proposed by Koelsch and colleagues comes from very recent research. This body of literature extends emotional word processing to the domains of social cognition and emotion regulation and investigates how emotions are decoded from words when these refer to the subject's own feelings (e.g., my fear, my pleasure).

Herbert (ibid.) also states that:

as predicted by the Quartet Theory, there is growing evidence that labeling one's feeling verbally (i.e. "the reconfiguration of emotion percepts into language") leads to adaptive emotion processing and emotion regulation, including down-regulation of amygdala activation and peripheral physiologic responses as well as of self-reported negative distress.

In our discussion on how emotions are expressed in Norwegian language debates we might, thus, also have in mind that the concrete verbal expression may have a self-therapeutic function, additionally to a potential polemic function, i.e. an internal and an external aspect.

Speech acts

Since Halliday (1978, 1985) it is common to not only investigate the structural side of language but also the functional side, and Austin (1962) and Searle (1969) identified and classified different speech acts. Searle (1977) operates with five such speech acts: *representatives*, *directives*, *commissives*, *expressives*, and *declarations*.

When investigating the verbally expressed emotions or feelings about Bokmål and Nynorsk, there may be different perspectives regarding the same formulation. A sentence like, for instance: „I love the Norwegian language” could be classified as a *representative*, cf. May (2001, 120):

Representatives. These speech acts are assertions about a state of affairs in the world (hence they are also called ‘assertives’; Leech 1983, 128), and thus carry the values ‘true’ or ‘false’. This is their ‘point’; as to ‘fit’, they should, of course match the world in order to be true.

Importantly, May (ibid.) also states: “Assertions often, maybe even always, represent a subjective state of mind: the speaker who asserts a proposition as true does so in force of his or her belief.” Emotions or feelings are subjective, but true from the perspective of the speaker/writer. Naturally, declaring one’s emotions or feelings is not necessarily only done to inform someone else “about a state of affairs in the world”. While a sentence like “Bokmål and Nynorsk are Norwegian written languages” would clearly fit the classification of a *representative*, the sentence “I love the Norwegian language” would fit better into the category of *expressives*, cf. May (2001:121): “This speech act, as the word says, expresses an inner state of the speaker; the expression is essentially subjective and tells us nothing about the world.”

Beyond the speech acts *expressives* and possibly *representatives*, the perspective of *pragmatic acts* may be relevant. According to Mey (2001:214):

We can look at pragmatic acts from two points of view: that of the agent, and that of the act. As far as the individual *agent* is concerned, there are his or her class, gender, age, education, previous life history and so on. These are the factors identified by ethnomethodologists under the caption of ‘MR’ (‘member resources’), namely the resources that people dispose of as members of the community; with regard to communication, these resources are „often referred to as background knowledge” (Fairclough 1989, 141). Another way of characterizing such resources is as constraints and affordances, imposed on the individual in the form of necessary limitations on the degree of freedom that he or she is allowed in society.

Furthermore, Mey (ibid.) states:

The other point is that of the *act*; here, we are particularly interested in the language that is used in performing a pragmatic act. The question has two aspects: from the individual’s perspective, I can ask what language I can use to perform a specific act; from the perspective of the context, the question is what language can be used to create the conditions for me to perform a pragmatic act.

Following Verschueren (1987, 1999), Mey (ibid.) also points at the *adaptability* of language, which basically means that we do have and make linguistic choices in accordance with the context of the pragmatic act. Another important aspect is the fact that speech acts need to be situated, cf. Mey (2001, 219):

Speech acts, in order to be effective, have to be *situated*. That is to say, they both rely on, and actively create, the situation in which they are realized. Thus, a situated speech act comes to what has been called a *speech event* in ethnographic and anthropological studies (Bauman and Sherzer 1974): speech as centered on an institutionalized social activity of a certain kind, such as teaching, visiting a doctor's office, participating in a tea-ceremony, and so on. In all such activities, speech is, in a way, prescribed: only certain utterances can be expected and will thus be acceptable; conversely, the participants in the situation, by their very acceptance of their own and others' utterances, establish and reaffirm the social situation in which the utterances are uttered and in which they find themselves as utterers.

Applied to our investigation of emotions about Bokmål and Nynorsk in public newspapers, newspapers as an institutionalized medium of communication clearly limit what can be expressed or not, i.e. „only certain utterances can be expected and will thus be acceptable“. Even though the reader's letter genre as a at times rather polemic genre that would allow more controversial formulations than editorial material, it is likely that writers and/or editors would try to moderate utterances in accordance with the medium (cf. adaptability of language). We will try to investigate some of the emotions expressed in this discourse, cf. Edwards (2009, 236):

The discursive psychology of emotion deals with how people talk about emotions, whether 'avowing' their own or 'ascribing' them to other people, and how they use emotion categories when talking about things. Emotion discourse is an integral feature of talk about events, mental states, mind and body, personal dispositions, and social relations. It is used to construct thoughts and actions as irrational, but, alternatively, emotions themselves may be treated as sensible and rationally based. Emotion categories are used in assigning causes and motivations to actions, in blamings, excuses, and accounts. Emotional states may figure as things to be *accounted for* (in terms of prior causal events or dispositional tendencies, say), as *accounts* (of subsequent actions and events), and also as evidence of what *kind of events or actions* precede or follow them. [...]

Some emotion categories are discussed in the section below.

Emotions, feelings, and affects

Even though there is no consensus on a definition of emotions, and we are not diving very deep into the psychological aspect of emotions in the present study, a brief general definition of the terms *emotions*, *feelings* and *affects* may be fruitful in the understanding of the observed data. According to Hognestad (2018, 30, leaning on Kast 1991), *emotions* is the overall term covering both feelings and affects. *Feelings* regard a reaction we are consciously aware of and can name. *Affects*, on the other hand, are strong emotional outbursts that we cannot control and that are followed by physical expressions, like, for instance, blushing and raised heart rate. As Hognestad (ibid.) puts it: "When an affect wells up in us, we might end up hurting another person" (my translation). The genre of newspaper debates may often be driven by emotions. A reader or public debater may be triggered by certain feelings about a particular issue to the degree that it may cause an affect, i.e. an emotional state where the feelings are so strong that the debater feels he or she has to react in the form of writing and expressing his or her

feelings publicly. The personal perspective may be so narrowed in that situation that the debater may have problems seeing other perspectives than his or her own.

The decision to express one's feelings in an open forum like a newspaper is in accordance with interactional theory of emotions like e.g. Kemper (1978, referred to in Nyeng 2006), where power and status are seen as important dimensions of social interaction. Feelings, like for instance anger and shame, may be the product of loss of status in a relationship, while loss of power leads to anxiety and fear (Nyeng 2006, 91-92, referring to Kemper 1978). These are strong feelings and possibly affects that may lead to an urge to, for instance, express oneself in public debates.

Again, we are not trying to dive too deeply into the field of psychology, but according to Nyeng (2006, 227), *shame* may be an emotion caused by diffuse demands in society. Applied to Bokmål and Nynorsk in the Norwegian educational system, most pupils are concerned about their grade in written Nynorsk based on a feeling of incompetence and underachievement. A poor grade in Nynorsk may result in a poorer average grade in Norwegian as an overall subject. So, even though a pupil may have relatively good self-esteem when it comes to general achievements in school, the pupil may feel some degree of shame connected to the Nynorsk grade. This may potentially lead to negative feelings about Nynorsk in general – but maybe also to attempts to justify or excuse one's own feelings – and achievements – because of the expectations of the society to accept and integrate Nynorsk. The goal would be to deal with the felt shame over having failed collective norms (Nyeng 2006, 227). This is also called performance shame (Nyeng 2006, 228). These aspects are not further investigated in the present study.

Based on the discussion above, we can conclude that the emotions dealt with in this study are best understood as *social emotions* rather than strictly personal emotions, e.g. emotions that are more socially and culturally conditioned (Normann-Eide 2020, 32, referring to Hareli and Parkinson 2008, and Tangney and Salovey 1999). An important aspect would here be that “The social feelings are closely connected with our sense of self and our assessment of ourselves in a social context” (Normann-Eide 2020, 33 (my translation), referring to Leary 2000). Normann-Eide (2020, 33) states that “The function of the social emotions is not primarily survival in the biological sense, but is about being able to orient oneself in, and adapt to, a cultural and social community.” (my translation).

Method

Verbal expressions as visual clues

How people actually might feel about language – or other things, for that matter – is not necessarily directly accessible. It is possible to measure brain activity and the location of this activity in the brain, but emotions are still challenging to investigate directly. Doing brain measurements during more or less natural and spontaneous debates between people about language would be even more complicated. And even though it would be possible to measure the degree or location of brain activity, and this might show that a person experiences emotions of some kind, it would still be difficult to categorize these emotions. The brain activity can be stronger or weaker and the location of the activity in the brain may indicate that the emotions are experienced as positive or negative but transferring these values into linguistic terms that can be used in a discussion on emotions in language debate would be more difficult. Instead of trying a direct approach to emotions about language via the measurement of brain activity, we will take the indirect way by investigating how people express their feeling about language verbally, i.e. through their own words. And instead of trying to label emotions we will categorize the emotions on the basis of the lexical expression that is used by the individual language user. According to Normann-Eide (2020, 41), referring to Wierzbicka (1999), and Kövecses (2003), “Which words, concepts and metaphors we use to describe emotions depends on the culture in which we grow up” (my translation).

Two written languages, two different names

It is probably rather uncontroversial to claim that, somewhere in Norway, at any given time of the day, there is a debate about the Norwegian language going on. The average Norwegian is probably not necessarily more interested in language than people from other countries or speakers of other languages. But most Norwegians speak a local dialect and dialects are often used to make hypotheses about people and their background, addressing the dialect of a person can, therefore, be a conversation starter. Talking about dialects may be equally common in other countries where dialects are used alongside the standard language(s). One can even imagine conversations and discussions about dialect(s) versus standard or official language. This may also be debates on a higher, public or even national level, like, for instance, whether Austrian should have its own standardized written language instead of using a standard based on High German (see e.g. de Cillia and Ransmayr 2019), a debate similar to the Norwegian debate in the 1800s. Due to the public and political debate, Norway ended up with having two official Norwegian written standards, *Bokmål* and *Nynorsk*. Even though many people refer to Bokmål as “norsk”, i.e. Norwegian, none of the two written languages is officially plainly named “norsk”. Bokmål means literally “book language” while Nynorsk is “New Norwegian”. From a methodological point of view, this is actually an advantage for the present study. While *Norwegian, English, German, Polish* etc. can be names of languages, i.e. nouns, these words can also be just adjectives describing a noun or a noun phrase. For instance, English can be the English language as in “she speaks English”, but it can also be used as an adjective in phrases like “English breakfast”, “(the) English Patient”, “(the) English Channel”. One can speak German (*man kann Deutsch sprechen*), which is clearly marked as a noun with a capital d and with neuter gender (*Deutsch, das Deutsche*), but one can also drink “German beer” (*deutsches Bier*) and eat “German sausage” (*deutsche Wurst*) or experience “German thoroughness” (*deutsche Gründlichkeit*), just to pick some cliché expressions. The adjective/noun *norsk* (“Norwegian”) would function in the same way, for instance: *Ho pratar norsk* (“She speaks Norwegian”) versus *norske fjell og fjordar* (“Norwegian mountains and fjords”). Searching for expression that only denote the language would, therefore, be much more challenging and labour intensive was it not for the fact that the two written Norwegian languages have different names. *Bokmål* (book language) can only be used as a noun and *Nynorsk* (New/new Norwegian) is mostly used as a noun, but can be used as an adjective denoting something related to this written standard or the political movement associated with it. There would be a clear difference between *ein ny norsk medalje i langrenn* (“a new Norwegian medal in cross-country skiing”), with *ny* and *norsk* in two separate words, and *ein nynorsk tekst* (“a New Norwegian text”), with *ny* and *norsk* combined to one word.

Norwegian language debate

The Norwegian language debate may often be rather emotional. Following discussions in social media may be equally discouraging as other discussions where “trolling”, i.e. upsetting or attacking a dissenter, seems to be the main goal of the discussion (cf. e.g. eSafety 2023). These debates are not polarized in the “usual” way where each part defends his or her preferred case, for instance, A may argue FOR Bokmål and B may argue FOR Nynorsk. Normally, there is someone who argues strongly (and emotionally) against Nynorsk and then, there are those who argue for or defend Nynorsk. Very seldom there are debates where the positively loaded arguments or emotions are on the side of Bokmål.

Searching social media for language debates would be most interesting, however, it would not be that easy to conduct such a study. First of all, social media sites are technically more difficult to search due to various kinds of protections and restrictions and the ethical aspect of analyzing social media conversations. Furthermore, the use of dialect and non-standard writing on social media could also be a challenge when it comes to search criteria. How many different spellings should be included in a search? Instead, we decided to search in the newspaper archive of the Norwegian National Library (Nasjonalbiblioteket). Emotional expressions would, expectably, be more “civilized” and edited in public

newspapers. On the other hand, making the effort to actually express oneself publicly, in a printed newspaper, could indicate that the motivation for doing so is much stronger compared to spontaneous “outbreaks” (affects) on social media, that not always seem to be well thought through (cf. Hognestad 2018, 30).

Search criteria

Most of the Norwegian national and local newspapers are digitalized and searchable via the Norwegian National Library. We are interested in finding out how people who decide to express their opinion publicly in newspapers “feel” about the two Norwegian written varieties Bokmål and/or Nynorsk. There could, obviously, be different ways to design a search. One could search for the words “Bokmål” and “Nynorsk” in the newspaper corpus and investigate the context for words denoting emotions in one way or the other. However, this would be a rather time-consuming task. There were 232 861 hits on the word “Bokmål” in the Newspaper corpus and 925 209 hits on the word “Nynorsk” at the time of the practical survey. Therefore, this method is not desirable for our approach. One would have to read a large amount of texts to find possible emotional expressions. The aim of this project is not to establish a detailed, qualitative list of emotional expressions about Bokmål and Nynorsk but rather to find out which of the two sides, the defenders of Bokmål (or, possibly, attackers of Nynorsk) and the defenders of Nynorsk, would express emotions about their own written language and possibly about the other written variety. The two first search numbers do, however, already give the impression that newspaper texts deal four times as much with Nynorsk than with Bokmål. As mentioned before, “Nynorsk” can also be an adjective. Hence, the statistical relationship between the two numbers would not be exact. But even if the ratio 1:4 was adjusted it still seems to indicate a rather huge mismatch when it comes to having the need to talk about one or the other Norwegian written language.

To make the corpus more manageable we will search for certain positive or negative expressions about the two written languages. The search strings used in this survey contain the verbs/expressions: *elske* (love), *hate* (hate), *vere glad i* (being fond of), *like* (like), *føretrekkje* (prefer), *mislike* (dislike), and *avsky* (loathe). Since it is possible to negate these expressions, e.g. I do not love, hate, like, dislike, we will also need to search for the negated expressions. Additionally, we will need to consider Norwegian syntax. Since statements can be expressed in main clauses and subordinate clauses, we need to search for different phrase orders. In Norwegian, the order of subject verb and negation adverb is different in main clauses and subordinate clauses, for instance:

- 1) *Han_{SU} likar_{VBL} ikkje_{ADV} nynorsk_{DO}* (He does not like New Norwegian)
- 2) *Han seier at han_{SU} ikkje_{ADV} likar_{VBL} nynorsk_{DO}.* (He says that he does not like New Norwegian)

Only searching for “likar Nynorsk” (like New Norwegian) could, thus, equally well come from a statement that says the opposite: that X does *not* (like New Norwegian).

Norwegian syntax is not the only challenge in our search. The fact that both written varieties are used in the newspaper texts forces us to have separate searches considering the different spellings. On the other hand, the difference in spelling is also an advantage since it will tell us whether a statement comes from a Bokmål user or a New Norwegian user. For instance, the negation adverb ‘not’ is spelled differently: *ikke* in Bokmål and *ikkje* in New Norwegian. As for the verbs used in the search, we will use present tense forms. This decision is made for several reasons. The hypothesis is that emotional statements are preferably written in the present tense because it is a here-and-now topic. This also goes along with the text genre, where deciding to debate in a public newspaper is expected to be an instant “urge” to talk about something current. Furthermore, newspapers texts are usually read the same day

they are published, and they are often less interesting for each subsequent day that comes since they compete with new texts. But a technical advantage of using present tense forms in our search is that it will make it easier to identify the writer as a user of Bokmål or New Norwegian because of the different spellings:

- 3) Bokmål: (X) *elsker* – Nynorsk: (X) *elskar* ((X) love(s))
- 4) Bokmål: (X) *hater* – Nynorsk: (X) *hatar* ((X) hate(s))
- 5) Bokmål: (X) *føretrekker* – Nynorsk: (X) *føretrekkjer/føretrekker* ((X) prefer(s))

The two forms of *like/mislike* (like/dislike) have the present tense forms *liker/misliker* in Bokmål and are more frequent as *likar/mislikar* in Nynorsk even though they are also allowed to be spelled *liker/misliker*, i.e. with *-er* as in Bokmål. The expression ‘being fond of’ is the same in the present tense in Bokmål and Nynorsk but can be combined with the first-person personal pronoun ‘I’, which is different in Bokmål (*jeg*) and Nynorsk (*eg*), to make it clear whether the written variety is Bokmål or Nynorsk. The different search combinations for Bokmål and Nynorsk that are used in our search are the following (only demonstrated with the verb *elske* (love)):

- | | | | |
|-----------------------------------|---------------------------|-----|----------|
| 6) Bokmål: | | | |
| a) <i>elsker bokmål</i> | (love(s)) | | Bokmål) |
| b) <i>ikke elsker bokmål</i> | (love(s)) | not | Bokmål) |
| c) <i>jeg elsker bokmål</i> | (I love Bokmål) | | |
| d) <i>elsker ikke bokmål</i> | (do(es) not love Bokmål) | | |
| e) <i>jeg elsker ikke bokmål</i> | (I do not love Bokmål) | | |
| f) <i>elsker nynorsk</i> | (love(s)) | | Nynorsk) |
| g) <i>ikke elsker nynorsk</i> | (love(s)) | not | Nynorsk) |
| h) <i>jeg elsker nynorsk</i> | (I love Nynorsk) | | |
| i) <i>elsker ikke nynorsk</i> | (do(es) not love Nynorsk) | | |
| j) <i>jeg elsker ikke nynorsk</i> | (I do not love Nynorsk) | | |
| 7) Nynorsk: | | | |
| a) <i>elskar bokmål</i> | (love(s)) | | Bokmål) |
| b) <i>ikkje elskar bokmål</i> | (love(s)) | not | Bokmål) |
| c) <i>eg elskar bokmål</i> | (I love Bokmål) | | |
| d) <i>elskar ikkje bokmål</i> | (do(es) not love Bokmål) | | |
| e) <i>eg elskar ikkje bokmål</i> | (I do not love Bokmål) | | |
| f) <i>elskar nynorsk</i> | (love(s)) | | Nynorsk) |
| g) <i>ikkje elskar nynorsk</i> | (love(s)) | not | Nynorsk) |
| h) <i>eg elskar nynorsk</i> | (I love Nynorsk) | | |
| i) <i>elskar ikkje nynorsk</i> | (do(es) not love Nynorsk) | | |
| j) <i>eg elskar ikkje nynorsk</i> | (I do not love Nynorsk) | | |

As for the results given in “hits” for the search strings, it has to be mentioned that the search engine of the National Library returns the number of newspapers where the search string occurs as hits or counts, not the actual number of phrases searched for. If the same word or phrase is used several times in the same newspaper and even the same text, the number would only be 1. We still think that it will be possible to get an impression of the overall distribution and we will now look at the search results.

Results

In this section, we will present the quantitative results of the different searches. There will not be made any attempt to investigate the concrete hits/examples at this point. Even though there may be a certain margin of errors in the results below (the same text could, for instance, possibly be published in different newspapers) the numbers will still give us an indication of how Bokmål users and Nynorsk users feel about the two written varieties and how these groups compare to each other. The numbers below are the numbers of hits reported back from the search engine of the Norwegian National Library (Nasjonalbiblioteket) for the submitted search string.

8) ELSKE	(LOVE),		Bokmål:
a) <i>elsker bokmål</i>	(love(s) Bokmål)	8	
b) <i>ikke elsker bokmål</i>	(love(s) not Bokmål)	0	
c) <i>jeg elsker bokmål</i>	(I love Bokmål)	3	
d) <i>elsker ikke bokmål</i>	(do(es) not love Bokmål)	0	
e) <i>jeg elsker ikke bokmål</i>	(I do not love Bokmål)	0	
f) <i>elsker nynorsk</i>	(love(s) Nynorsk)	91	
g) <i>ikke elsker nynorsk</i>	(do(es) not love Nynorsk)	1	
h) <i>jeg elsker nynorsk</i>	(I love Nynorsk)	32	
i) <i>elsker ikke nynorsk</i>	(do(es) not love Nynorsk)	0	
j) <i>jeg elsker ikke nynorsk</i>	(I do not love Nynorsk)	0	

Note: The phrase *elsker nynorsk* (love(s) Nynorsk) is used more than ten times as often (8f) as the phrase *elsker bokmål* (love(s) Bokmål) by the Bokmål users in this corpus (8a). And while it is very concretely and subjectively stated *jeg elsker Bokmål* (I love Bokmål) three times (8c), the phrase *jeg elsker nynorsk* (I love Nynorsk) is used 32 times by Bokmål users (8h). Just to compare these results to a search on Google, we find that “*jeg elsker bokmål*” gives 7 hits, while “*jeg elsker nynorsk*” results in 152 hits. Let us compare this to the results for Nynorsk writers.

9) ELSKE	(LOVE),		Nynorsk:
a) <i>elskar bokmål</i>	(love(s) Bokmål)	5	
b) <i>ikkje elskar bokmål</i>	(love(s) not Bokmål)	0	
c) <i>eg elskar bokmål</i>	(I love Bokmål)	0	
d) <i>elskar ikkje bokmål</i>	(do(es) not love Bokmål)	0	
e) <i>eg elskar ikkje bokmål</i>	(I do not love Bokmål)	0	
f) <i>elskar nynorsk</i>	(love(s) Nynorsk)	111	
g) <i>ikkje elskar nynorsk</i>	(do(es) not love Nynorsk)	1	
h) <i>eg elskar nynorsk</i>	(I love Nynorsk)	29	
i) <i>elskar ikkje nynorsk</i>	(do(es) not love Nynorsk)	2	
j) <i>eg elskar ikkje nynorsk</i>	(I do not love Nynorsk)	0	

These results show 5 references to someone loving Bokmål (9a) but none where a Nynorsk writing person explicitly said “*eg elskar Bokmål*” (I love Bokmål) (9c). On the other hand, there are 111 references to someone loving Nynorsk (9f), and 29 concrete statements saying: “I love Nynorsk” (9h). Compared to a Google search, 1 hit says: “*eg elskar bokmål*” (I love Bokmål), while there are 221 hits for «*eg elskar nynorsk*» (I love Nynorsk). Again, there is a clear indication that few people seem to feel that they “love” Bokmål, whereas there are quite many that express strong emotions in favour of Nynorsk. So what, then, are the results for what could possibly be said to be the opposite emotion, *hate*?

10) HATE	(HATE),	Bokmål:
a) <i>hater bokmål</i>	(hate(s) Bokmål)	4
b) <i>ikke hater bokmål</i>	(hate(s) not Bokmål)	0
c) <i>jeg hater bokmål</i>	(I hate Bokmål)	3
d) <i>hater ikke bokmål</i>	(do(es) not hate Bokmål)	0
e) <i>jeg hater ikke bokmål</i>	(I do not hate Bokmål)	0
f) <i>hater nynorsk</i>	(hate(s) Nynorsk)	224
g) <i>ikke hater nynorsk</i>	(do(es) not hate Nynorsk)	3
h) <i>jeg hater nynorsk</i>	(I hate Nynorsk)	96
i) <i>hater ikke nynorsk</i>	(do(es) not hate Nynorsk)	2
j) <i>jeg hater ikke nynorsk</i>	(I do not hate Nynorsk)	1

There are three concrete incidents of “jeg hater bokmål” (I hate Bokmål) (10c) written by Bokmål users in a total of 4 hits for *hate Bokmål*. But there are 96 hits for “jeg hater nynorsk” (I hate Nynorsk) (10h) and a total of 224 hits that refer to that someone hates Nynorsk (10f). This seems to indicate that Bokmål users are not that interested in declaring their love to their preferred written language, Bokmål, but much more eager to tell the public that they hate the other written variety, Nynorsk. A Google search points into the same direction: There is one hit for “jeg hater bokmål” and 481 hits for “jeg hater Nynorsk”. On the other hand, the Google search also tells us that there are 197 hits that concretely state “jeg hater ikke Nynorsk” (I do *not* hate Nynorsk), while there was only 1 hit on this phrase in the newspaper corpus. Now to the results expressed in New Norwegian.

11) HATE	(HATE),	Nynorsk:
a) <i>hatar bokmål</i>	(hate(s) Bokmål)	4
b) <i>ikkje hatar bokmål</i>	(hate(s) not Bokmål)	0
c) <i>eg hatar bokmål</i>	(I hate Bokmål)	0
d) <i>hatar ikkje bokmål</i>	(do(es) not hate Bokmål)	1
e) <i>eg hatar ikkje bokmål</i>	(I do not hate Bokmål)	1
f) <i>hatar nynorsk</i>	(hate(s) Nynorsk)	167
g) <i>ikkje hatar nynorsk</i>	(do(es) not hate Nynorsk)	0
h) <i>eg hatar nynorsk</i>	(I hate Nynorsk)	16
i) <i>hatar ikkje nynorsk</i>	(do(es) not hate Nynorsk)	1
j) <i>eg hatar ikkje nynorsk</i>	(I do not hate Nynorsk)	1

Also here, there are 4 hits referring to someone hating Bokmål (11a), but none saying explicitly “eg hatar bokmål” (I hate Bokmål) (11c), whereas there were three hits for a Bokmål user hating Bokmål (10c above). One may be surprised by the high number, 167 (11f), of hits for “hatar nynorsk” (hate(s) Nynorsk) in the Nynorsk newspaper texts, but the result for “eg hatar nynorsk” (I hate Nynorsk), 16 (11h), shows that the higher number refers to other people (preferably Bokmål users) that hate Nynorsk. It is still notable that the number of people hating their own written language, Nynorsk, is four times higher than that of Bokmål users stating that they hate Bokmål. One Nynorsk writer felt the need to express explicitly that he or she does not hate Nynorsk (11j). A search on Google, in comparison, is somewhat surprising. There are 5 hits for “eg hatar bokmål” (I hate Bokmål), whereas there are 206 hits for “eg hatar nynorsk” (I hate Nynorsk), and, again, only one person that had to state explicitly “eg hatar ikkje nynorsk” (I do not hate Nynorsk).

Love and hate can be considered rather strong emotions. How about just being fond of your own or the other written language? The general phrase “er glad i” (is/am fond of) has the same spelling in

Bokmål and Nynorsk. Hence, it is not possible to put the numbers in different categories in a purely quantitative search. Those numbers are marked with BM/NN. Combined with *jeg* and/or *ikke*, the phrase is in Bokmål and with *eg/ikkje*, it is in Nynorsk. Apart from 12a and 12f, where the numbers may represent hits in both Bokmål and Nynorsk texts, the first part (12a-j) is for Bokmål, whereas the last part (12k-r) only is for Nynorsk.

12) GLAD	I	(FOND	OF):
a) <i>er glad i bokmål</i>	(is/am fond of Bokmål)	9	(BM/NN)
b) <i>jeg er glad i bokmål</i>	(I am fond of Bokmål)	1	
c) <i>er ikke glad i bokmål</i>	(is/am not fond of Bokmål)	0	
d) <i>ikke er glad i bokmål</i>	(is/am not fond of Bokmål)	0	
e) <i>jeg er ikke glad i bokmål</i>	(I am not fond of Bokmål)	0	
f) <i>er glad i nynorsk</i>	(is/am fond of Nynorsk)	273	(BM/NN)
g) <i>jeg er glad i nynorsk</i>	(I am fond of Nynorsk)	46	
h) <i>er ikke glad i nynorsk</i>	(is/am not fond of Nynorsk)	1	
i) <i>ikke er glad i nynorsk</i>	(is/am not fond of Nynorsk)	0	
j) <i>jeg er ikke glad i nynorsk</i>	(I am not fond of Nynorsk)	1	
k) <i>eg er glad i bokmål</i>	(I am fond of Bokmål)	1	
l) <i>er ikkje glad i bokmål</i>	(is/am not fond of Bokmål)	5	
m) <i>ikkje er glad i bokmål</i>	(is/am not fond of Bokmål)	0	
n) <i>eg er ikkje glad i bokmål</i>	(I am not fond of Bokmål)	4	
o) <i>eg er glad i nynorsk</i>	(I am fond of Nynorsk)	31	
p) <i>er ikkje glad i nynorsk</i>	(is/am not fond of Nynorsk)	0	
q) <i>ikkje er glad i nynorsk</i>	(is/am not fond of Nynorsk)	1	
r) <i>eg er ikkje glad i nynorsk</i>	(I am not fond of Nynorsk)	0	

In 12a, which may be in Bokmål or in Nynorsk, there are 9 hits saying that someone is fond of Bokmål, but only 1 says explicitly (in Bokmål, 12b) “*jeg er glad i bokmål*” (I am fond of Bokmål). In 8a, we saw that there were 8 hits for “*jeg elsker bokmål*” (I love Bokmål). There were ten times as many hits for “*jeg elsker nynorsk*” (I love Nynorsk) in 8f. 12f, then, can again be both Bokmål or Nynorsk. We can see that there is a huge amount of positive feelings for Nynorsk: 273, thirty times as many hits as for Bokmål (12a). 46 statements of Bokmål users admit explicitly that they are fond of Nynorsk (12g). A comparison with a search on Google shows that there is 1 Bokmål user stating that he or she is fond of Bokmål, whereas there are 1220 hits for the phrase “*jeg elsker nynorsk*”. However, it must be mentioned that many of them are followed by a “but” (Norwegian *men*), i.e. “I love Nynorsk, but...” There are 729 hits on Google for the Nynorsk phrase “*eg er glad i nynorsk*” (I am fond of Nynorsk). 2 hits on Google say “*jeg er ikke glad i nynorsk*” (I am not fond of Nynorsk), compared to 96 in the newspaper corpus and 481 hits on Google that say “*jeg hater nynorsk*” (I hate Nynorsk).

As with *glad i* (fond of), *like* (like) can potentially have the same form in Bokmål and Nynorsk in the present tense (*liker*), even though many Nynorsk users prefer the form *likar*. A quantitative search will, therefore, not be conclusive about the real distribution between Bokmål users and Nynorsk users. However, combinations with the personal pronoun *jeg/eg* and/or the negation adverb *ikke/ikkje* will yield clear results.

13) LIKE				(LIKE):
a) <i>liker bokmål</i>	(like(s) Bokmål)	28		(BM/NN)
b) <i>jeg liker bokmål</i>	(I like Bokmål)	4		
c) <i>liker ikke bokmål</i>	(do(es) not like Bokmål)	2		
d) <i>ikke liker bokmål</i>	(do(es) not like Bokmål)	4		
e) <i>jeg liker ikke bokmål</i>	(I do not like Bokmål)	1		
f) <i>liker nynorsk</i>	(like(s) Nynorsk)	408		(BM/NN)
g) <i>jeg liker nynorsk</i>	(I like Nynorsk)	74		
h) <i>liker ikke nynorsk</i>	(do(es) not like Nynorsk)	93		
i) <i>ikke liker nynorsk</i>	do(es) not like Nynorsk)	149		
j) <i>jeg liker ikke nynorsk</i>	(I do not like Nynorsk)	35		
k) <i>likar bokmål</i>	(like(s) Bokmål)	14 (contains l, n)		
l) <i>eg likar/liker bokmål</i>	(I like Bokmål)	1+1=2		
m) <i>likar/liker ikkje bokmål</i>	(do(es) not like Bokmål)	4+0=4	(contains	o)
n) <i>ikkje likar/liker bokmål</i>	(do(es) not like Bokmål)	2+0=2		
o) <i>eg likar/liker ikkje bokmål</i>	(I do not like Bokmål)	0+0=0		
p) <i>likar nynorsk</i>	(like(s) Nynorsk)	342 (contains q, s)		
q) <i>eg likar/liker nynorsk</i>	(I like Nynorsk)	69+8=77		
r) <i>likar/liker ikkje nynorsk</i>	(do(es) not like Nynorsk)	64+3=67 (contains t)		
s) <i>ikkje likar/liker nynorsk</i>	(do(es) not like Nynorsk)	133+15=148		
t) <i>eg likar/liker ikkje nynorsk</i>	(I do not like Nynorsk)	17+2=19		

“Like” is clearly much easier to use and a more moderate expression than “love” or “being fond of” given the higher number of hits in the newspaper corpus. The difference between liking Bokmål and Nynorsk is – again – very visible. Even though the present tense form *liker* can be used in both Bokmål and Nynorsk, there is a clear preference for *likar* in Nynorsk. The 28 hits on *liker bokmål* (like(s) Bokmål) in 13a are, therefore, first of all, Bokmål users. The difference between 13a and 13f is remarkable with 408 hits for “like(s) Nynorsk”. The personal “I like” is also clear: 13b and 13g tell us that there are 4 Bokmål hits that explicitly state that the writer likes Bokmål, whereas there 74, almost twenty times as many hits for “I like Nynorsk” written in Bokmål (13f). On the other hand, it is also easier to express that somebody does *not* like Nynorsk. There are quite many hits for combinations of “not like Nynorsk” in the Bokmål texts (13h-j). Nynorsk users, on their part, do not easily admit that they like Bokmål. There are only 2 hits that explicitly tell “eg likar/liker bokmål” (I like Bokmål) (13l). On the other hand, there is no one saying explicitly that he or she does not like Bokmål (13o). Interestingly, there are also 19 hits telling us that the Nynorsk writer does not like Nynorsk (13t). A comparison with a search on Google shows that there are 10 hits for “jeg liker bokmål” (I like Bokmål) written by Bokmål users against 399 hits for “jeg liker nynorsk” (I like Nynorsk). But there are also – not surprisingly – 278 hits for “jeg liker ikke nynorsk” (I do not like Nynorsk). As in the newspaper corpus, few Nynorsk users express explicitly that they like (1) or not like (4) Bokmål in the Google search, whereas there are many hits for “I like Nynorsk” (*eg likar* 144 + *liker* 62). There are also quite many who explicitly state that they do not like Nynorsk (83+2).

Instead of loving, hating, being fond of or liking the written languages one could also just *prefer* one over the other. The Norwegian expression would be *foretrekke* (Bokmål) and *føretrekkje/føretrekke* (Nynorsk).

14) FORETREKKE	(PREFER),		Bokmål:
a) <i>foretrekker bokmål</i>	(prefer(s) Bokmål)	346	

b) <i>ikke foretrekker bokmål</i>	(prefers(s) not Bokmål)	0
c) <i>jeg foretrekker bokmål</i>	(I prefer Bokmål)	9
d) <i>foretrekker ikke bokmål</i>	(do(es) not prefer Bokmål)	0
e) <i>jeg foretrekker ikke bokmål</i>	(I do not prefer Bokmål)	0
f) <i>foretrekker nynorsk</i>	(prefer(s) Nynorsk)	298
g) <i>ikke foretrekker nynorsk</i>	(do(es) not prefer Nynorsk)	2
h) <i>jeg foretrekker nynorsk</i>	(I prefer Nynorsk)	7
i) <i>foretrekker ikke nynorsk</i>	(do(es) not prefer Nynorsk)	1
j) <i>jeg foretrekker ikke nynorsk</i>	(I do not prefer Nynorsk)	0

Interestingly, there is almost a balance between preferring Bokmål and preferring Nynorsk amongst writers of Bokmål when it comes to the general expression. There are quite many instances of both “prefer Bokmål” (14a) and “prefer Nynorsk” (14f). Whereas there are 9 explicit hits for “I prefer Bokmål” (14c) and 7 for “I prefer Nynorsk” (14h). A Google search, however, shows 113 instances of “I prefer Bokmål” and only 6 of “I prefer Nynorsk”.

The results for the same expression written in Nynorsk show the same kind of balance, but are rather different. There are two official spellings of “prefer” in the present tense: *føretrekkjer* and *føretrekker*, but since this verb is strong in Bokmål and in many dialects, the spelling *føretrekk* can also be found in texts.

15) FØRETREKKJE/FØRETREKKE	(PREFER),	Nynorsk:
a) <i>føretrekkjer/-trekker/-trekk bokmål</i>	(prefer(s) Bokmål)	10+57+9 = 76
b) <i>ikkje føretrekkjer/-trekker/-trekk bokmål</i>	(prefers(s) not Bokmål)	0+0+0 = 0
c) <i>eg føretrekkjer/-trekker/-trekk bokmål</i>	(I prefer Bokmål)	1+0+0 = 1
d) <i>føretrekkjer/-trekkjer/-trekk ikkje bokmål</i>	(do(es) not prefer Bokmål)	0+0+0 = 0
e) <i>eg føretrekkjer/-trekker/-trekk ikkje bokmål</i>	(I do not prefer Bokmål)	0+0+0 = 0
f) <i>føretrekkjer/-trekkjer/-trekk nynorsk</i>	(prefer(s) Nynorsk)	14+38+5 = 57
g) <i>ikkje føretrekkjer/-trekker/-trekk nynorsk</i>	(do(es) not prefer Nynorsk)	0+0+0 = 0
h) <i>eg føretrekkjer/-trekkjer/-trekk nynorsk</i>	(I prefer Nynorsk)	2+0+1 = 3
i) <i>føretrekkjer/-trekker/-trekk ikkje nynorsk</i>	(do(es) not prefer Nynorsk)	0+0+0 = 0
j) <i>eg føretrekkjer/-trekker/-trekk ikkje nynorsk</i>	(I do not prefer Nynorsk)	0+0+0 = 0

There is a balance between the expressions for preferring Bokmål (15a) and Nynorsk (15f). However, overall, there are much less Nynorsk writers who use the expression ‘prefer’ in combination with the language compared to those who write Bokmål.

There are also other possible emotional expressions one could imagine finding in texts. For the sake of argument, some of them were tested in the corpus just to find out whether they were used or not, for instance *mislike* (dislike). We will also test combinations with *few*, *some*, *many* and *all*.

16) MISLIKE	(DISLIKE)	(Bokmål):
a) <i>jeg misliker bokmål</i>	(I dislike Bokmål)	0
b) <i>jeg misliker ikke bokmål</i>	(I do not dislike Bokmål)	0
c) <i>få misliker bokmål</i>	(few dislike Bokmål)	0
d) <i>noen misliker bokmål</i>	(some dislike Bokmål)	0
e) <i>mange misliker bokmål</i>	(many dislike Bokmål)	0
f) <i>alle misliker bokmål</i>	(all dislike Bokmål)	0
g) <i>jeg misliker nynorsk</i>	(I dislike Nynorsk)	3
h) <i>jeg misliker ikke nynorsk</i>	(I do not dislike Nynorsk)	0

i) <i>få misliker nynorsk</i>	(few dislike Nynorsk)	0
j) <i>noen misliker nynorsk</i>	(some dislike Nynorsk)	0
k) <i>mange misliker nynorsk</i>	(many dislike Nynorsk)	8
l) <i>alle misliker nynorsk</i>	(all dislike Nynorsk)	0

The combinations with *få*, *mange* and *alle* *could* potentially also be in Nynorsk since the forms/spellings are the same. There are 3 clear statements that a Bokmål user personally dislikes Nynorsk (16g), and 8 general statements that *many* dislike Nynorsk (16k). Compared to Nynorsk users, there are no instances of “eg mislikar/misliker bokmål” (I dislike Bokmål), «eg mislikar/misliker ikkje bokmål» (I do not dislike Bokmål), nor «eg mislikar/misliker nynorsk» (I dislike Nynorsk), «eg mislikar/misliker ikkje nynorsk» (I do not dislike Nynorsk). There is no *mange mislikar nynorsk* (many dislike Nynorsk) either, which would be a clear Nynorsk spelling.

A much stronger expression, maybe even stronger than “hate” – or at least less frequent in use – would be to “loathe” the written language (*avsky*).

17) AVSKY			(LOATHE):
a) <i>jeg avskyr bokmål</i>	(I loathe Bokmål)	0	
b) <i>jeg avskyr ikke bokmål</i>	(I do not loathe Bokmål)	0	
c) <i>jeg avskyr nynorsk</i>	(I loathe Nynorsk)	1	
d) <i>jeg avskyr ikke nynorsk</i>	(I do not loathe Nynorsk)	0	
e) <i>eg avskyr bokmål</i>	(I loathe Bokmål)	0	
f) <i>eg avskyr ikkje bokmål</i>	(I do not loathe Bokmål)	0	
g) <i>eg avskyr nynorsk</i>	(I loathe Nynorsk)	0	
h) <i>eg avskyr ikkje nynorsk</i>	(I do not loathe Nynorsk)	0	

There is only one instance with the verb *avsky* (loathe), (17 c), and this is a Bokmål user loathing Nynorsk.

To conclude the investigation, we will just check the first emotional expressions (love, hate, like and prefer) with quantifiers like *all* and *many*.

18) ALLE	(ALL)		(Bokmål):
a) <i>alle elsker bokmål</i>	(all love Bokmål)	0	
b) <i>alle elsker nynorsk</i>	(all love Nynorsk)	0	
c) <i>alle hater bokmål</i>	(all hate Bokmål)	0	
d) <i>alle hater nynorsk</i>	(alle hate Nynorsk)	6	
e) <i>alle liker bokmål</i>	(all like Bokmål)	0	(potentially Nynorsk)
f) <i>alle liker nynorsk</i>	(all like Nynorsk)	0	(potentially Nynorsk)
g) <i>alle foretrekker bokmål</i>	(all prefer Bokmål)	3	
h) <i>alle foretrekker nynorsk</i>	(all prefer Nynorsk)	0	
19) ALLE	(ALL)		(Nynorsk):
a) <i>alle elsker bokmål</i>	(all love Bokmål)	0	
b) <i>alle elsker nynorsk</i>	(all love Nynorsk)	1	(poetry)
c) <i>alle hatar bokmål</i>	(all hate Bokmål)	0	

d) <i>alle hatar nynorsk</i>	(alle hate Nynorsk)	1	
e) <i>alle likar bokmål</i>	(all like Bokmål)	1	
f) <i>alle likar nynorsk</i>	(all like Nynorsk)	2	
g) <i>alle føretrekkjer/-trekker bokmål</i>	(all prefer Bokmål)	0/0	
h) <i>alle føretrekkjer/-trekker nynorsk</i>	(all prefer Nynorsk)	0/0	
20) MANGE	(MANY)		(Bokmål):
a) <i>mange elsker bokmål</i>	(many love Bokmål)	0	
b) <i>mange elsker nynorsk</i>	(many love Nynorsk)	0	
c) <i>mange hater bokmål</i>	(many hate Bokmål)	0	
d) <i>mange hater nynorsk</i>	(many hate Nynorsk)	4	
e) <i>mange liker bokmål</i>	(many like Bokmål)	0	(potentially Nynorsk)
f) <i>mange liker nynorsk</i>	(many like Nynorsk)	0	(potentially Nynorsk)
g) <i>mange foretrekker bokmål</i>	(many prefer Bokmål)	1	
h) <i>mange foretrekker nynorsk</i>	(many prefer Nynorsk)	1	
21) MANGE	(MANY)		(Nynorsk):
a) <i>mange elsker bokmål</i>	(many love Bokmål)	0	
b) <i>mange elsker nynorsk</i>	(many love Nynorsk)	0	
c) <i>mange hatar bokmål</i>	(many hate Bokmål)	0	
d) <i>mange hatar nynorsk</i>	(many hate Nynorsk)	1	
e) <i>mange likar bokmål</i>	(many like Bokmål)	0	
f) <i>mange likar nynorsk</i>	(many like Nynorsk)	0	
g) <i>mange føretrekkjer/-trekker bokmål</i>	(many prefer Bokmål)	1/0	
h) <i>mange føretrekkjer/-trekker nynorsk</i>	(many prefer Nynorsk)	0/0	

What can these results tell us about emotions about Bokmål and Nynorsk?

Discussion

In this survey, we have only investigated the emotional expressions: *elske* (love), *hate* (hate), *være/vere glad i* (being fond of), *like* (like), *foretrekke/føretrekkje* (prefer), *mislike* (dislike), and *avsky* (loathe) in combination with the terms *bokmål* and *nynorsk*. There may, of course, be other lexical ways of expressing an emotional state about a written language.

From an overall perspective and as a first impression, it may be a little surprising that there are relatively few examples of the expressions searched for given the fact that there were almost 250 thousand hits for the word *bokmål* and almost one million hits for the word *nynorsk* in the newspaper corpus of the Norwegian National Library (Nasjonalbiblioteket) at the time of the survey. But then again, most newspaper articles are supposed to be referential and neutral. Emotional expressions would be more frequent on the debate pages and not all newspapers do have public debate pages. The numbers of the terms *bokmål* and *nynorsk* respectively are still interesting on their own. They tell us that Nynorsk is referred to four times as often as Bokmål in newspaper texts. We need to consider that *nynorsk* may be an adjective whereas *bokmål* only functions as a noun, though. Nevertheless, Nynorsk as a topic seems to be of much more interest in general than Bokmål in newspaper texts. This means that it is expected that Nynorsk, in general, has a somewhat higher news value than Bokmål. The reason for this is the fact that 85-90% of the readers use Bokmål as their written language and Bokmål would in most cases be perceived as the default and neutral written language. Nynorsk, as the lesser used and “marked” written language, would be a “better” newspaper topic from one perspective or the other. For instance, it has been more common since 1945 that municipalities change their written language from

Nynorsk to Bokmål and usually there have been public polls or votes beforehand that were reported in the newspapers. Furthermore, there have been many political debates around the question whether Nynorsk should be a mandatory subject in school or not. In the culture/literature sector, Bokmål would be perceived as the default language and would usually not be mentioned when reviewing a novel, whereas it more or less always would be mentioned when a novel is published in Nynorsk (on average, only approx. 7% of books and pamphlets are published in Nynorsk (Grepstad 2020)). Hence, Nynorsk is in general a more frequent topic in the public debate than Bokmål.

As mentioned before, there is a long history of Norwegian pupils complaining about having to learn Nynorsk as their alternative or second written language at school (see e.g. Haugan 2017, 2019). Even though originating in the field of second language learning, Krashen's (1986) *Affective Filter Hypothesis* may account for some of the reasons why Norwegian language debate and especially Nynorsk as a topic can be somewhat emotional at times. The three important parts of the Affective Filter Hypothesis are motivation, self-confidence and anxiety. Applied to the Norwegian classroom, one could simply say that most pupils are not motivated to learn a second written Norwegian variety. To 80-85% this second Norwegian language would be Nynorsk. Since the pupils lack motivation they do not necessarily make an effort to learn Nynorsk and, therefore, lack self-confidence, which again may lead to anxiety since there is a separate grade for Nynorsk at the end of lower secondary and higher secondary school, that may influence the choices for a future career. The lack of self-confidence and anxiety connected to Nynorsk may be enhanced by the fact that Nynorsk is highly underrepresented in public texts and every day life. From that perspective, it may be understandable that many pupils (and consequently adults) develop more of a hate relationship to Nynorsk – which may also be connect to a feeling of shame, as mentioned above (cf. Nyeng 2006, 227). The „default“ language Bokmål, on the other hand, does not represent a „threat“ in any way. To most people it is just a tool for written communication and, therefore, not necessarily something one *feels* anything about. For some Nynorsk users who have learned Nynorsk at school as their main or first written language, Nynorsk may possibly have the same neutral status as a tool for written communication. However, as a Nynorsk user one has to accept the fact that public communication is dominated by Bokmål. 85-90% of all written text would be in Bokmål (Jahr 2015, 136), and even more in the business sector (Sanden, 2020). Hence, a Nynorsk user is daily reminded of the fact that Nynorsk is not the default language or a common written language at all. Furthermore, most Nynorsk users would sooner or later get the question *why* they use Nynorsk, whereas it is less common to ask a Bokmål user the same question. Therefore, many if not most Nynorsk users will consider when and where they would choose to write Nynorsk, and there are also quite many Nynorsk user who change their main written language and decide to use Bokmål instead. While there were almost 40% Nynorsk users before 1940, there are now only roughly 10% (Grepstad 2020). Nynorsk users are a minority and as such, they would often feel they have to defend themselves and their choice of written language. On the background of this scenario, our hypothesis would therefore be that most Bokmål users would not necessarily express emotions regarding Bokmål, but rather about Nynorsk. Nynorsk users, on the other hand, are expected to be more emotional about their own written language, and at the same time they would not necessarily express any negative emotions against Bokmål. So, what do we find in the newspaper corpus?

Love

The examples 8) and 9) in the result section above show combinations of *love* with *Bokmål* and *Nynorsk* respectively in the newspaper corpus. Love can be said to be strong emotion. However, probably influenced by the English use of the verb *love*, it has become relative common to read and hear “I love” this or that in Norwegian meaning “I really do like something a lot”. Many would probably find it easier to say or write “I love chocolate” than “I love you” in Norwegian.

A little bit surprising, perhaps, is 8a) that shows eight occurrences for “love Bokmål” written by Bokmål users, which is, of course, not that many, but still a few. Three instances (8c) claim explicitly: “I love Bokmål”. The hypothesis is that Bokmål would be the default language for most Bokmål users and that we would not expect many emotional expressions regarding Bokmål from Bokmål users in general. One of the examples comes from a local newspaper text (Hamar Arbeiderblad 2013) where secondary school pupils were asked to write about the Norwegian “Language Year” in 2013 celebrating the 200 year anniversary of Ivar Aasen who was responsible for the first norm of Nynorsk (at that time called *Landsmål*). The pupil interpreted the language year as a celebration of Nynorsk and felt the urge to defend his own written language, Bokmål. Interestingly, he notes that “Det er altfor få som sier at de elsker bokmål», i.e. there are way too few who say that they love Bokmål, which may be a correct observation. So, this pupils repeats four times in his text that he loves Bokmål and explains why. Apparently, this emotional reaction is because he perceived that loving the language is something that is reserved for Nynorsk users. There is simply no tradition for feeling or expressing that one loves Bokmål. This is a void that the pupil tried to fill. The other examples of *love + Bokmål* also show this tendency. Even though “elsker bokmål” is a Bokmål phrase (Nynorsk would have the spelling *elskar*), the second hit for the phrase “jeg elsker bokmål” is in a Nynorsk text where the writer (a Nynorsk activist) asks rhetorically: “Men kven kan med handa på hjertet seie ‘Jeg elsker bokmål’?”, i.e. “Who can with the hand on his heart say ‘I love Bokmål’?” (Fredrikstad Blad, 2007). The third occurrence of “I love Bokmål” is written in Bokmål but deals with the same rhetoric question: “I alle fall har jeg aldri hørt noen andre, kongelige eller vanlige borgere, si ‘Jeg elsker bokmål’, i.e. “In any case, I have never heard anyone else, royal or ordinary citizen, say ‘I love Bokmål’” (Dagbladet, 2006). This is not from a debate text. The reviewer commented among other things on the Norwegian queen (also a Bokmål user) having said “I love Nynorsk”. It seems relatively uncontroversial to claim that it is not very common to read or hear the phrase “I love Bokmål” used by a Bokmål user. In stark contrast, one can find 91 occurrences of “love Nynorsk” (8f) and 32 explicit “declarations of love”, i.e. “I love Nynorsk” (8h) written by Bokmål users. How can this be explained? One explanation is statistics. Some of the hits for “jeg elsker nynorsk” occur several times because the same text was an insert in different newspapers. This text is an interview (in Bokmål) with an immigrant who had chosen Nynorsk. Another text is an interview in Bokmål with someone who started working as an actor at Det Norske Teatret, a theatre in Oslo where only Nynorsk is used. It would demand too much space to comment on each and every occurrence of “jeg elsker nynorsk”. Some texts deal with the fact that Bokmål users may find it strange or controversial that other Bokmål users would say that they love Nynorsk. Here, the writers try to defend the lesser used variety. Another explanation may be *politeness*. According to Grundy (2000, 146), politeness phenomena are related to pragmatic usage:

Among the aspects of context that are particularly determinate of language choice in the domain of politeness are the power-distance relationship of the interactants and the extent to which a speaker imposes on or requires something of their addressee. In being ‘polite’, a speaker is attempting to create an implicated context (the speaker stands in the relation x to the addressee in respect of act y) that matches the one assumed by the addressee.

Combined with Krashen’s (1986) Affective Filter Hypothesis, and Nyeng’s (2006) approach to shame, one could assume that many Bokmål users do have low self-esteem when it comes to their mastering of the Nynorsk language. Getting credit for expressing their love for Nynorsk might relieve some of the anxiety or possibly bad consciousness (shame) related to Nynorsk. One occurrence (Østlandets Blad 1996) says: “Jeg elsker nynorsk, men jeg hater sidemålskarakteren!”, i.e. “I love Nynorsk, but I hate the separate Nynorsk grade.” This is written by a young politician who argues against being graded explicitly in the alternative written language, Nynorsk. So this is a typical example of those trying to appear neutral

and rational in their argumentation. Many writers claim that they love Nynorsk while at the same trying to explain why they do not use Nynorsk themselves or why they think Nynorsk should not be obligatory in school. But there are, of course, also those who actually do love Nynorsk. The search statistics are at least clear when it comes to showing that it is much more common for a Bokmål user to state “I love Nynorsk” (32) than “I love Bokmål” (3). A quick search on Google, reporting actual phrase hits yielded a result of 152:7, i.e. Bokmål users choose to express their love for Nynorsk substantially more often than for their own written language.

How does it look on the Nynorsk users’ side, then? There are no occurrences of “I love Bokmål” written by a Nynorsk user (9c), but there are five instances of “love Bokmål”. Some of them are – again – the rhetorical question: “Når hørte du sist nokon seia at dei elsker bokmål?”, i.e. “When was the last time you heard someone say that they love Bokmål?” (Klassekampen, 2013). The same question is asked in Vest-Telemark Blad (1991). The interesting result on the Nynorsk side are the 111 occurrences of “love Nynorsk” and 29 direct expressions “I love Nynorsk”. Hence, both Bokmål users and Nynorsk users *love* Nynorsk, whereas rather few on both sides express their love for Bokmål explicitly. It also seems to be easier and more “normal” for a Nynorsk user to explicitly admit the love for Nynorsk (29 (9h)) than for Bokmål users to say the same about Bokmål (3 (8c)). A quick Google search showed one occurrence of “eg elsker bokmål” (I love Bokmål) and 221 occurrences of “eg elsker nynorsk” (I love Nynorsk). As for *love* as an emotion, it is statistically clear that both Bokmål users and Nynorsk users associate it with Nynorsk and not with Bokmål.

Hate

Interestingly, also the opposite(?) emotion to love, *hate*, is associated with Nynorsk and not with Bokmål. The results in (10) for Bokmål users show 4 occurrences of “hate Bokmål” (10a) against 224 occurrences of “hate Nynorsk” (10f). There are three hits for “I hate Bokmål” (10c) and 96 hits for “I hate Nynorsk” (96). From our knowledge of the language debate in Norway, this is expected. We “know” that many pupils and adults do have ambivalent or negative emotions associated with Nynorsk due to their school experience. The interesting fact is here – again – that Nynorsk is an emotional topic whereas Bokmål is more or less neutral. If you do have an opinion or an emotion, whether positive or negative, it is about Nynorsk and not about Bokmål. A quick Google search showed the same tendency: there was 1 hit for “I hate Bokmål” and 481 hits for “I hate Nynorsk”. But when looking at the results for the Nynorsk users we may get a little surprised. It is not surprising that there is no occurrence of “I hate Bokmål” (11c), but there are 16 occurrences of “I hate Nynorsk” (11h). Some of these texts refer to Bokmål users who hate Nynorsk, and some are written in Nynorsk to make a point, cf. politeness considerations mentioned above. So, the occurrences of “I hate Nynorsk” do not reflect Nynorsk users’ emotions. The 167 occurrences of the combination “hate Nynorsk” written in Nynorsk deal mainly with the fact that other people, i.e. Bokmål users, often hate Nynorsk.

Fond of

The use of the Norwegian expressions for *love* and *hate* are probably influenced by the English use. It has become much easier to say or write “I love” or “I hate” something. The Norwegian expression for *being fond* often implies that one actually cares a lot for something. But this is not the place to determine whether loving or being fond of is a stronger emotion in different contexts. The statistical results show that while there are three hits for “I love Bokmål” written by Bokmål users (8c), there is only 1 for “I am fond of Bokmål” (12b). Further investigation shows that this formulation is from an interview with a Nynorsk user (Levanger-avisa 1988) and can be put into the category of politeness. While being known as a Nynorsk user, the interviewed person stated that he was fond of Bokmål (and Danish and Swedish) too. There are 9 hits for the phrase “being fond of Bokmål” (12a), which can be both Bokmål and Nynorsk since there is no genuine Bokmål or Nynorsk word that would identify it

without checking the actual texts. In comparison, there are 273 occurrences of “being fond of Nynorsk” (12f), which can also be Bokmål or Nynorsk. However, 46 occurrences state clearly “I am fond of Nynorsk” written in Bokmål (12f), i.e. 46:1 in favor of Nynorsk, which is in line with the 32:3 result “I love Nynorsk” versus “I love Bokmål” written by Bokmål users. Nynorsk users on their part do not often state that they are fond of Bokmål, 1 hit (12k), whereas being fond of Nynorsk is more frequent, 31 hits (12o). The statistical result shows – again – that emotions are more likely associated with Nynorsk than with Bokmål. A quick search on Google strengthens this claim: there was only one Bokmål user who wrote “I am fond of Bokmål” compared to 1220 hits for the search “I am fond of Nynorsk”. There were no Google hits for the phrase “I am fond of Bokmål” written by a Nynorsk user, whereas there were 729 hits for “I am fond of Nynorsk”. Interestingly, there is only 1 occurrence of “I am not fond of Nynorsk” written in Bokmål in the newspaper corpus (12j) while there are 96 clear statements “I hate Nynorsk” (10c). In this respect, there is not much politeness to find in the newspaper corpus. In comparison, there are 4 instances of “I am not fond of Bokmål” written by Nynorsk users (12n), and no instances of “I hate Bokmål” (11g) written by a Nynorsk user.

Like

When it comes to *liking*, which may be considered a much less controversial expression in this context, the results are similar to those commented on above. The combination “like Bokmål” (13a) is much more frequent (28 hits) than “love Bokmål” (8 hits (8a)) or “being fond of Bokmål” (9 hits (12a)). Here, it has to be taken into account that the Norwegian verb *liker* (present tense) potentially could reflect both Bokmål and Nynorsk users. However, there are only 4 explicit occurrences of “I like Bokmål” written in Bokmål. In comparison, there are 408 occurrences of “like Nynorsk”, which again could reflect both Bokmål and Nynorsk writers. But there are 74 clear statements by Bokmål users that they like Nynorsk (13g). There is also a very high number of combinations with *ikke* (not) (13h and 13i). Then there are 35 explicit statements saying “I do not like Nynorsk” (13j). Even though there are twice as many Bokmål users who express that they like Nynorsk, there are quite many who explicitly say that they do *not* like Nynorsk (still only a third of the number that states “I hate Nynorsk” (10h). In comparison, two Nynorsk users express that they like Bokmål (13l) whereas there are 77 for the phrase “I like Nynorsk” written in Nynorsk. There are also – as with the results for Bokmål – relatively high numbers for combinations with *not*, i.e. do not like Nynorsk (13r and 13s). In these cases, there is usually a discussion on whether *other* people like Nynorsk or not. There are 19 clear instances written in Nynorsk that state “I do not like Nynorsk” (13t). But most of these are references to other people who do not like Nynorsk and not the view of the writer. The verb *like* as an emotional expression displays a greater variety of results, but the main impression is clear: there are more occurrences of someone liking or maybe not liking Nynorsk in both Bokmål and Nynorsk texts, whereas there are comparably fewer occurrences of liking and not liking Bokmål. The emotions are – again – on the side of Nynorsk and not of the side of Bokmål. A quick search on Google supports this: while there were 10 hits for the Bokmål phrase “I like Bokmål” there were 399 hits for the Bokmål phrase “I like Nynorsk”, and there were 278 hits for the Bokmål phrase “I do not like Nynorsk”. For Nynorsk users, the results were 1 hit for «I like Bokmål» and 4 hits for «I do not like Bokmål», and 206 hits for “I like Nynorsk» and 85 for “I do not like Nynorsk”.

Prefer

Preferring something is a much more modest way of expressing emotions compared to *loving*, *hating*, *being fond of* or *liking*. It is also a much more “technical” term, i.e. it can be used in more objective texts and references to third persons. This is reflected in the results of the search. There are 346 occurrences of “prefer Bokmål” (14a), telling us that the topic of who would prefer Bokmål or Nynorsk is debated. But there are only 9 explicit occurrences of “I prefer Bokmål” (14c). There is an almost equally high number of occurrences for “prefer Nynorsk”, 298 (14f). These do probably belong to the same kind of texts

where the relationship between Bokmål users and Nynorsk users is discussed. There are only 7 explicit occurrences of “I prefer Nynorsk” written in Bokmål (14g). In the newspaper corpus, then, there is a balance. A quick search on Google, however, yields 113 hits for “I prefer Bokmål” and only 6 for “I prefer Nynorsk” written in Bokmål. The newspaper search for the Nynorsk versions also shows a balance, but it also shows that it does not seem to be equally important to discuss whether someone prefers one or the other language. There were 76 occurrences “prefer Bokmål” (15a) and 57 occurrences of “prefer Nynorsk” (15f). There was only 1 occurrence of “I prefer Bokmål” (15c) written in Nynorsk and 3 occurrences of “I prefer Nynorsk” (15h). One might ask whether the verb *prefer* is not “strong” enough to express the emotions of a Nynorsk user. Three Nynorsk users *prefer* Nynorsk (15h), while 77 *like* Nynorsk (13q), 31 are *fond of* Nynorsk (12o), and 29 *love* Nynorsk (9h).

At the end of the survey, some other expressions and combinations were investigated. Whereas three Bokmål users explicitly chose to write “I hate Bokmål” and 96 wrote “I hate Nynorsk”, there were no occurrences of “I dislike Bokmål” (16a) and only three occurrences of “I dislike Nynorsk” (16g). On the other hand, there were a few more (8) occurrences of “many dislike Nynorsk” (16k). There are no occurrences of combinations with *dislike* in Nynorsk texts. The verb *loathe* expresses a rather strong emotion. There was one occurrence written in Bokmål, “I loathe Nynorsk” (17c), but no other combinations and no occurrences in Nynorsk texts. The search results 18) to 21) applied the quantifiers *all* and *many* to investigate whether some writers would choose to externalize their emotions to a third person, possibly to achieve a rhetorical effect. There were 6 occurrences of “all/everybody hate(s) Nynorsk” (18d), and 4 occurrences of “many hate Nynorsk” (20d), functioning as some kind of excuse for not liking Nynorsk oneself, and 3 occurrences of “all/everybody prefer(s) Bokmål” (18g) as a mass argument for Bokmål as the “better” language. All in all, the search for combinations with third person quantifiers was not as fruitful as expected. Apparently, it is relatively easy to express the personal opinion and emotion instead of referring to unidentified others.

Conclusion

In this survey, we have investigated how users of the Norwegian written varieties Bokmål and Nynorsk may express their emotions about their own or the other written language in public newspaper debates. The results show clearly that the majority language Bokmål can be considered neutral when it comes to personal feelings about the language. Simply said, most Bokmål users neither love nor hate Bokmål. Emotions regarding language are, first of all, triggered in the context of a debate on Nynorsk. Nynorsk, on the other hand, is a clear topic for both positive and negative emotions. A survey like this shows that there is a clear mismatch between Bokmål and Nynorsk as objects for emotions. Possible explanations for this can be found in the power imbalance between the two written languages, where Bokmål is the de facto default Norwegian written language and, therefore, does not need to be defended in any way. Nynorsk, on the other hand, may be perceived as a “threat” to Bokmål users due to demands at school and the feeling of underachievement and possibly shame in a grading context, which may extend into adult life. Nynorsk users, representing a minority language or lesser used language, frequently need to defend themselves as individual users of Nynorsk, and they also feel they have to defend the existence of Nynorsk itself. The ambivalence in this survey may perhaps be expressed by the statistical generalization that both Bokmål users and Nynorsk users like, love or hate Nynorsk, whereas neither Bokmål users nor Nynorsk users feels anything particular for Bokmål. Nynorsk may be an identity, whereas Bokmål is, first of all, a more or less neutral communication tool.

References

- Austin, J. L. (1962). *How To Do Things With Words*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Bauman, R., Scherzer, J. (eds.) (1974). *Explorations in the Ethnography of Speaking*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- BeTranslated (2017). *What Makes a Language Sound Beautiful or Ugly?* <https://www.betranslated.com/blog/makes-language-sound-beautiful-ugly/>. Accessed April 14, 2023.
- Bourdieu, P. (1991). *Language and Symbolic Power*. Edited by John Thompson. Cambridge, UK: Polity Press.
- Chomsky, N., Smith, N. (2000). *New Horizons in the Study of Language and Mind*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press. doi: 10.1017/CBO9780511811937.
- Dagbladet (2006). Gudleiv Forr. *Bokmålets far*. April 27, 2006, p. 2.
- De Cillia, R., Ransmayr, J. (2019). *Österreichisches Deutsch macht Schule. Bildung und Deutschunterricht im Spannungsfeld von sprachlicher Variation und Norm*. Wien, Köln, Weimar: Böhlau.
- Edwards, D. (2009). *Emotion*. In M. Wetherell, S. Taylor, S.J. Yates (2009). *Discourse Theory and Practice. A Reader* (pp. 236-246). The Open University Press. Los Angeles, London, New Dehli, Singapore, Washington DC: Sage Publications.
- eSafety (2023). *Trolling*. <https://www.esafety.gov.au/young-people/trolling>. Accessed April 14, 2023.
- Fairclough, N. (1989). *Language and Power*. London: Longman.
- Fredrikstad Blad. (2007). Magne Aasbrenn. *Grammatikktime for Julsen*. September 21, 2007, p. 53.
- Grepstad, O. (2020). *Languages in Norway: A story by numbers*. In Språkfakta 2020. Tala. Forteljingane. Dokumenta. Language in Norway: A story by numbers. Volda: Grepstad skriveri, 563-612.
- Grundy, P. (2000). *Doing Pragmatics*. Second Edition. London: Arnold.
- Halliday, M.A.K. (1978). *Language as social semiotic. The social interpretation of language and meaning*. London, New York, Melbourne, Auckland: Edward Arnold.
- Halliday, M.A.K. (1985). *An introduction to functional grammar*. London, New York, Melbourne, Auckland: Edward Arnold.
- Hamar Arbeiderblad. (2013). Johannes Fauske Aschim. *Nynorsken språkår*. March 12, 2013, p. 23.
- Hareli, S., Parkinson, B. (2008). What's social about social emotions? *Journal of the Theory of Social Behaviour*, 38(29): 131-156.
- Haugan, J. (2017). Language diversity in Norway and the question of L1 and L2. *Beyond Philology. International Journal of Linguistics, Literary Studies and English Language Teaching*, 14(1), 181-204.
- Haugan, J. (2019). When the first language feels like a second language: Challenges for learners of Norwegian Nynorsk. *Beyond Philology. International Journal of Linguistics, Literary Studies and English Language Teaching*, 16(1): 141-164.
- Haugan, J. (2022). When the linguistic L1 context is linguistic diversity – Norwegian language policy and education. *Educational Role of Language Journal*, 2(8): 22-40.
- Haugen, E. (1966). *Language Conflict and Language Planning: The Case of Modern Norwegian*. Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University Press.
- Herbert, C. (2015). Human emotion in the brain and the body: Why language matters: Comment on “The quartet theory of human emotions: An integrative and neurofunctional model” by S. Koelsch et al. In *Physics of Life Reviews*, 13: 55-57.
- Herbert, C., Bendig, E., Rojas, R. (2019). My Sadness – Our Happiness: Writing About Positive, Negative, and Neutral Autobiographical Life Events Reveals Linguistic Markers of Self-Positivity and Individual Well-Being. *Front. Psychol.* 9(2522). doi: 10.3389/fpsyg.2018.02522.
- Hognestad, A. (2018). *Følelser*. Oslo: Flux Forlag.
- Jahr, E. H. (2015). *Språkplanlegging og språkstrid. Utsyn over norsk språkhistorie etter 1814*. Oslo: Novus Forlag.
- Kast, V. (1991). *Freude – Inspiration – Hoffnung*. Olten: Walter Verlag.

- Kemper, T.D. (1978). *A social interactional theory of emotions*. New York: Wiley.
- Klassekampen (2013). Ingrid Fiskaa. *Ein kveikande kveld*. October 23, 2013, p. 2.
- Kövecses, Z. (2003). *Metaphor and emotion: language, culture, and body in human feeling*. New York: Cambridge University Press.
- Krashen, S. D. (1986). *Principles and practice in second language acquisition*. Oxford: Pergamon Press.
- Leary, M. R. (2000). Affect, cognition, and the social emotions. In J. P. Forgas (ed.). *Studies in emotions and social interactions, second series. Feeling and thinking: The role of affect in social cognition* (pp. 331-356). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Leech, G. N. (1983). *Principles of Pragmatics*. London: Longman.
- Levanger-avisa (1988). *Et møte med Slapgard*. December 24, 1988, p. 12.
- Lovdata (2021). *Lov om språk* (Act relating to Language). <https://lovdata.no/dokument/NL/lov/2021-05-21-42>. Accessed April 14, 2023.
- Mey, J. L. (2001). *Pragmatics. An Introduction*. Second Edition. Malden, MA; Oxford, UK: Blackwell Publishers.
- Milroy, J., Milroy, L. (2012). *Authority in Language. Investigating Standard English*. Fourth edition. London and New York: Routledge.
- Nasjonalbiblioteket (2023). Newspaper search: <https://www.nb.no/search?mediatype=aviser>. Accessed March 23, 2023.
- Normann-Eide, T. (2020). *Følelser. Kjennetegn, funksjon og vrangsider*. Oslo: Cappelen Damm Akademisk.
- Nyeng, F. (2006). *Følelser i filosofi, vitenskap og dagligliv*. Oslo: Abstrakt Forlag.
- Sanden, G. R. (2020). The second-class Norwegian: marginalisation of Nynorsk in Norwegian business. *Current Issues in Language Planning*, 21(2): 202-228.
- Searle, J. R. (1969). *Speech Acts: An Essay in the Philosophy of Language*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Searle, J. R. (1977). A classification of illocutionary acts. In A. Rogers, B. Wall, J.P. Murphy (Eds.), *Proceedings of the Texas Conference on Performatives, Presuppositions, and Implicatures* (pp. 27-45). Washington, D.C.: Center for Applied Linguistics.
- Tangney, J. P., Salovey, P. (1999). Problematic social emotions: Shame, guilt, jealousy, and envy: In R. M. Kowalski and M. R. Leary (eds.) *The social psychology of emotional of behavioral problems: Interfaces of social and clinical psychology* (pp. 167-195). New York: American Psychological Association. <https://doi.org/10.1037/10320-006>
- Trudgill, P. (1984). *On Dialect. Social and Geographical Perspectives*. New York, London: New York University Press.
- Valderas, I. (2023). *Are There Ugly Languages?* <https://www.skriptorzigila.com/post/are-there-ugly-languages>. Accessed April 14, 2023.
- Verschueren, J. (1987). Pragmatics as a theory of linguistic adaptation. In: *Working Document #1*. Antwerp: International Pragmatics.
- Verschueren, J. (1999). *Understanding Pragmatics*. London: Arnold.
- Vest-Telemark Blad (1991). *-Hemningslaust forelska i nynorsk*. August 6, 1991, p. 5.
- Vikør, L. (1975). *The New Norse Language Movement*. Oslo: Novus.
- Walton, S. (2015). Kva er nynorsken? In Eiksund, H. and Fretland, J.O. (Eds.). *Nye røyster i nynorskforskinga* (pp. 16-33). Oslo: Samlaget.
- Wierzbicka, A. (1999). *Emotions across languages and cultures: Diversity and universals*. New York: Cambridge University Press.
- Wikipedia. *Emotion*. <https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Emotion>. Accessed April 14, 2023.
- Østlandets Blad (1996). Øyvind Graham. *Spynorsk mordliste*. July 3, 1996, p. 2.

Re-conceptualizing the knowledge base for non-native language teachers to cope with negative emotions

ISSN 2657-9774; <https://doi.org/10.36534/erlj.2023.01.04>

Xiaojun Kong*, Chenkai Chi**

*Independent Researcher, kxj0726@hotmail.com

**University of Windsor, chi3@uwindsor.ca

Abstract

When non-native speakers become second language teachers, emotions play a significant role in the teacher-learning process and throughout their professional lives. However, few teacher education programs explicitly relate emotions to teachers' knowledge bases to improve their social-emotional skills. Due to the dynamic nature of a knowledge base, teachers can always take an inquiry stance to continuously examine their teaching practices and beliefs. Therefore, this paper takes an inquiry stance to discuss negative emotions in non-native language teachers' narratives and how they can overcome the potentially negative effects of such emotions by reconceptualizing their personal knowledge base to reinforce the effects of positive emotions and minimize the effects of negative emotions in their teaching practice. As a preliminary study, it aims to raise awareness for teachers to develop social-emotional skills through knowledge-base re-conceptualization and to advocate for reform of language teacher education.

Keywords: *emotions, social-emotional skills, language teacher education, knowledge base, non-native teachers*

Introduction

The process of non-native speakers' learning to become second language teachers is emotionally charged (Richards 2020). Teacher learners inevitably experience changing emotions when they learn to become teachers, and managing such emotional levels in their daily teaching is a necessary lesson (Anttila et al. 2016, Teng 2017). Although research has suggested that developing emotional skills is beneficial to teachers at different developmental stages, few teacher education programs explicitly address emotional skills development (Madalinska-Michalak 2015), and emotional competences are not in many teachers' knowledge bases. Thus, some teachers fail to recognize sources of and cope with negative emotions, and have suspicion of their teacher identities (Teng 2017). Therefore, it is important to understand the role of emotions in teachers' teaching practices and to integrate social-emotional skills learning as a new component in teachers' knowledge base so that teachers have ample resources and skills to cope with their emotions when needed.

Due to the dynamic nature of language teaching and learning, the knowledge base of language teachers is not static or neutral (Johnson 2009). According to Tarone and Allwright (2005), teachers in different developmental stages require different proportions of training and education. Even teachers who are at the same career or developmental stage require "an integrated presentation of the knowledge and skills" suitable for teaching (Tarone and Allwright 2005, 14), due to their diverse prior learning experiences and cognitive abilities. Therefore, knowledge base is "a heuristic device" (Reagan and Osborn 2002, 20) through which teachers can take an inquiry stance to regularly (re)examine their classroom practices, identify gaps impeding their teaching effectiveness, learn how to fill those gaps, and continuously reconstitute and reconceptualize their own knowledge base over time (Tarone and Allwright 2005).

Trying to equip a solid knowledge base as passive technicians is not enough for teachers to

implement effective practice in their classrooms (Kumaravadivelu 2006). Therefore, this paper takes an inquiry stance—identifying problems behind emotions and exploring possible solutions from a practitioner’s perspective—to discuss negative emotions in non-native language teachers’ teaching practices. It also elaborates what resources can be used for teachers to identify and manage such emotions to minimize the effect of negative emotions in their teaching practice by re-conceptualizing their personalized knowledge base.

Theoretical background

Various frameworks have been proposed by scholars to understand knowledge base; however, one important aspect has been ignored: teachers’ emotional knowledge base. Faez (2011) summarized and compared several scholars’ knowledge base frameworks in various domains, and those frameworks comprise the types of information and expertise that language teachers require to perform effectively in the classroom, for example, language proficiency, civilization and culture, language analysis, the teacher-learner, the social context, the pedagogical process, etc. Shulman (1987) provided a fundamental framework of the knowledge base by categorizing teachers’ knowledge into the following modules: content knowledge, pedagogical (content) knowledge (including evaluation of students’ learning and appropriate adjustment to teaching practice), curriculum knowledge, and knowledge of students, teaching contexts, and educational ends. Although different categories were used, Lafayette’s (1993), Day’s (1993), and Richards’ (1998) frameworks emphasized the importance of similar domains, such as content, pedagogical, and pedagogical content knowledge, in language teaching practice (as cited in Faez 2011). Thus, compared with cognition, emotions received limited attention in these frameworks (Richards 2020, White 2018).

Emotion plays a significant role in shaping the teaching practice. Teachers’ emotional wellness contributes to student success, teaching effectiveness, job satisfaction and healthy school system (Dreer 2021, Haldimann et al. 2023). According to Richards (2020), emotions are prompted by relations and interactions between teachers and students and by the social contexts in which the process of teaching and learning occurs. This means that emotions positively or negatively shape the way teachers design, implement, and reflect on their teaching practice and how they interact with students, colleagues, and parents.

Thus, enhancing teachers’ ability to develop emotional competences will enable them to enlarge the effect of positive emotions and minimize the effect of negative emotions while meeting their students’ needs and improving learning outcomes (Agudo 2018).

Language teachers’ beliefs about themselves, their students, and their instructional activities can be attributed to their language learning and teaching experiences and can influence classroom practice (Xu 2012). Moreover, the beliefs brought by teachers into their teacher education process have a significant impact on the way they learn, the learning outcomes, and what kinds of teachers they will become (Richardson, 1996). Negative emotional experiences of teaching lead to negative beliefs, which have a negative influence on the formation of teachers’ professional identities (Richards 2020). Although negative emotions are inevitable in non-native language teachers’ practice (Dewey 2015, Song 2018), re-conceptualization of the knowledge base can turn the negative feelings of teaching positive; for example, teachers who have negative beliefs about their students, themselves, and teaching may be encouraged to undertake continual professional growth, which is enhanced by teacher agency and professional confidence to overcome the obstacles encountered (Freeman 2018).

As English language teaching pedagogy and institutional discourse have evolved, the need for including emotions in teachers’ professional development has arisen. Francis et al. (2018) suggested that developing authentic and relevant course content emotionally engages students and connects new knowledge to their prior experience. This indicates that language learning involves more than simply teaching technical and discrete skills; language teachers should also be able to provide students with

access to social practices (Gee 2015). Moreover, in the field of English language teaching, the dominant institutional discourse solidifies native-speaker-based norms (Dewey 2015). Non-native English-speaking teachers need linguistic, cognitive, and emotional resources to challenge the dominant native speaker discourse in English teaching and learning (Rodriguez de France et al. 2018). Previous research on social-emotional learning has focused on how it supports students' academic success and teachers' professional careers; however, little research has been conducted to discuss social-emotional development from teacher educators' perspectives (Soutter 2023).

Freeman (2018) argued that with the changes in the language teaching and learning field, the current knowledge base should expand from the traditional knowledge base, which includes the content, teachers, learners, pedagogy, and issues of teacher education, and urged that the theoretical knowledge base should be integrated with teachers' own classroom practices. In the following section, we examine teachers' practice with negative emotions and discuss how re-conceptualizing a knowledge base can help teachers raise awareness and enhance their knowledge and skills to "develop and maintain an emotionally-managed classroom" (Richards 2020, 227).

Selected quotes from the published articles

This paper employs a textual analysis approach to discuss emotional struggles in teachers' narratives and how they can be overcome if teachers raise awareness and develop social-emotional skills. Narratives in this section were extracted from published papers narrated by non-native language teachers. "Non-native English speaking teachers" and "emotions" were key words for the initial selection, and the number of citations was important for reference. Five quotes were selected. The narrators include a pre-service teacher, who is a non-native English speaker, and non-native English speaking teachers, beginning, and experienced, in the EFL or ESL context. Each quote contains at least two types of negative feelings. Negative emotions analyzed in this section include irritated, humiliated, stressful, challenged, afraid, unsure, uncomfortable, guilty, embarrassed, unconfident, alone, and the feeling of distrust. This is a preliminary study with the hope of subsequent empirically based studies; therefore, the discussions below aim to highlight the importance of social-emotional skills in teacher education and suggest how teachers can develop such skills through knowledge-base re-conceptualization, rather than providing generalizable results.

The following quote (number 1) was narrated by a pre-service teacher studying in an English teacher education program at a university in Mainland China. This quote highlights the teacher's experience of a failure to achieve teaching objectives, leading to feelings of irritation, as well as the experience of diligently preparing a course to avoid feelings of humiliation.

I think my English proficiency is not good enough. I really want to do my best in every lesson. However, I often got irritated because I was not able to achieve my goals or meet the standard that I set before class. I always practiced my English lessons before the commencement of the class because I did not want to lose face before my students. (as cited in Teng 2017, 124)

The following quote (number 2) was narrated by a teacher in a Hong Kong secondary school. This quote highlights the challenges the teacher faces in explaining the use of passive voice to her students, leading to feelings of uncertainty and stress and a search for effective teaching strategies.

It's easy if you ask them to rewrite the sentences, because they find it easy to follow. However...they just don't know when we are supposed to use passive voice and when we are supposed to use active voice. And one of the students even asked me, "Miss Wong, who do we have to use passive voice in our daily life?" And I find this question difficult to answer, ha, and I "Oh, I'll tell you next time..." And then I asked my colleagues "Why do we teach and use

passive voice?" And no one can give me the correct answer. And then I go home and think about it. But even now I don't really know how to handle that student's questions. I finish the worksheets with them and they know how to rewrite the sentences. But I don't know how to explain them. It is very stressful. (as cited in Andrews, 2001, p. 76)

The following quotes (number 3) was narrated by a teacher in an Inner-London school. These quotes highlight the teacher's experience of identity negotiation and development and indicate how she endured to overcome the feelings of under confidence and isolation.

I think I began to feel more comfortable <laughter> with being NNS [non-native speaker], like I understand there_ there are other people like- as me, with the same background (those things) and being, I don't know, effective teachers. So I think I feel a little bit more confident and comfortable with that, yeah.

I became aware not only of new "content"—what is the whole issue all about, but also found a new perspective [sic] to look at things, in a different way that I'm used to. E.g., caring not for the accuracy and/or idiomaticity of students' language, but also considering their desire to express their identities in L2, get across their meaning, etc. I also realized that I'm not alone. That there is NNEST [non-native English-speaking teacher] and other teachers going through similar experiences as me. (as cited in Reis, 2015, pp. 38–39)

The following quote (number 4) was narrated by a beginning teacher in Dongguan Middle School, Guang Dong province, China. This quote highlights the teacher's experience with sharing his teaching methodology with colleagues and reflects the difficulty that novice teachers have in building mutual trust within the professional community.

I didn't mean to show off. I would like to share, but I am afraid of standing out. Some teachers implemented my method, yet not as successful as in my class. They doubted my way. I know it. I don't know why it didn't work in their classes, but I knew why it did in mine. First, I know my students well. It is for them. Second, I am very sure I can succeed. But I can't explain this to my colleagues. You know, as a new teacher, you'd better listen rather than talking. So I try not to do things differently from others. For example, I don't have to take a nap at noon. But I dare not to stay in the office to work. I am afraid my colleagues may say that I am working too hard. (as cited in Xu, 2013, p.384)

The following quote (number 5) was narrated by an experienced EFL teacher studying in a Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages (TESOL) program at a UK university. This quote highlights the teacher's experience with inadequate course preparation, resulting in being doubted and corrected by students, leading to feelings of stress, guilt, and embarrassment.

I always feel stressed if the material is not familiar to me such as new texts or when it is difficult to explain and I don't have enough time to prepare it...or when students' faces show they are confused about what I'm talking or students correct my mistakes then, I'm stressed. (as cited in Mousavi 2007, 36)

Discussion

Quotes analysis. In quote 1, "not good enough," "irritated," "not able to," and "not want to lose face" showed that the teaching practice created an emotional struggle for the teacher. Her worries about

English proficiency showed that a good command of English involves demonstrating a high level of proficiency in the four language skills (listening, reading, writing, and speaking), which is a prerequisite for being a qualified language teacher. Her failure to achieve the learning goals showed that she might possess pedagogical knowledge, but she did not deliberately integrate both content and pedagogical knowledge to optimize students' language learning (Reagan and Osborn 2002).

In quote 2, "difficult," "don't know," and "stressful" imply emotional struggle. This showed that non-native English teachers are familiar with the language structures (grammar) that were explicitly taught when they learned English; however, they may not be familiar with the underlying systems of the language that are not explicitly elaborated upon in English classes (Andrews 2001). The teacher's desire for colleague support did not help resolve the problem she encountered, which implies that sometimes practitioners need support from experts or authorities in one discipline through dialogic mediation (Johnson 2009).

In quote 3, from the teacher's use of the positive words "began to feel more comfortable," "a little bit more confident," "a new perspective," and "realized that I'm not alone," it can be inferred that the teacher overcame the negative feelings of being uncomfortable, unconfident, and alone through identity negotiation. Canagarajah (2005, as cited in Selvi 2014) noted that the majority of English teachers globally are non-native English-speaking teachers. Non-native speakers of English are not inferior to native speakers of English. Teachers and students whose first language is not English have different advantages when it comes to English teaching and learning (Boecher 2005, Liu 2001).

In quote 4, the words/phrase "afraid," "doubted," "don't know why," "can't explain," and "differently" demonstrate this novice teacher's uncertainty about his professional identity and a lack of emotional understandings of his relationships with his colleagues (Xu 2013). He needed emotional skills to identify the source of his uncertainty and then enhance his ability to systematically theorize his teaching experience.

In quote 5, the words/phrase "stressed," "not familiar," "difficult," "don't have enough time," "confused," and "correct my mistake" demonstrate the teacher's attempt to relate the emotional struggle to inadequate course preparation and less familiarity with new materials. However, no evidence shows that the teacher intentionally explored the source of stress when confused or corrected by the students. The word "stress" is overly broad and general. The teacher needed an emotional tool to identify and specify the origin and source of negative feelings. Worried about being considered incompetent by students leads to feelings of guilt and embarrassment, which originate from inadequate English proficiency.

Integrating social-emotional skills into language teachers' knowledge base. According to the Collaborative for Academic, Social, and Emotional Learning, (CASEL) (August, 2019) framework for systemic social and emotional learning (SEL), there are five core competences in SEL: 1) self-awareness, to recognize one's emotions and influence; 2) self-management, to regulate one's emotions and behavior; 3) social-awareness, to take perspective of others; 4) relationship skills, to establish and maintain healthy relationships with others; and 5) responsible decision-making, to identify, analyze, and solve problems (pp. 1-2).

It is notable from all the selected quotes that the teachers had already recognized their emotions, although sometimes, they did not express emotions in a straightforward way. They had the ability to control negative emotions, such as irritation, and did not redirect them to students. However, they need skills to manage negative emotions, for example, effective stress management skills, to mitigate stress and maintain overall physical and mental health. In quotes 2 and 5, the narrators both mentioned stress. Emotional knowledge and skills will help them to identify different sources of stress in their teaching practice. For the narrator in quote 2, an expanded knowledge base will support the teacher in engaging in continuing professional development and relieving her stress. For the narrator in quote 5, an expanded knowledge base will support the teacher with course preparation skills and increase efficiency

in becoming familiar with new materials.

According to Wolff and De Costa (2017), the negotiation of emotion-related challenges contributes to teacher identity development. Emotional knowledge and resources allow non-native English speaking teachers to interrogate their professional identities in a positive way, given the linguistic resource tools that are available to them. For the narrator in quote 1, an expanded knowledge base with the inclusion of emotional knowledge will support the pre-service teacher's realization of the ideal professional identity and ease her feelings of irritation and humiliation. For the narrator in quote 3, an expanded knowledge base supports the teacher's professional identity development and overcomes the feeling of isolation. For the narrator in quote 4, an expanded knowledge base will support the teacher in gradually acquiring experience as a teacher, and professional development, including peer coaching and participating in an effective professional community, will equip him with the required skills (Johnson 2009).

The above analysis of the teacher's narratives shows that, with the development of emotional knowledge and social-emotional skills, teachers will be able to identify and manage their emotions, recognize the sources of negative emotions, and utilize available resources to overcome challenges in their teaching practice through knowledge-base re-conceptualization.

Advocacy for reform of language teacher education. Although the sources of negative emotions are included in the language teacher education program, teachers need emotional knowledge and skills to intentionally relate negative emotions to the sources. The sources include, but are not limited to language proficiency, pedagogical content knowledge, professional identity development, peer coaching, and professional community participation. Integrating social emotional skills into teacher education curriculum will guide and promote teacher-learners' emotional learning and help them to re-conceptualize their knowledge base using emotional tools.

Limitations and future research

This study is a preliminary study with a hope for capture related educational stakeholders' attention in terms of insufficient support for teachers' social emotional skills and knowledge. Subsequent interviews will be conducted. Due to limited related literature on this topic, only a small number of quotes is selected. Nevertheless, the selected quotes cover 12 types of negative emotions, and their narrators represent different teaching contexts and professional developmental stages. Future research can be embarked upon to adopt empirically based research methods to provide qualitative and quantitative data on this topic on a larger scale to suggest pedagogical implications for teacher education programs.

Closing reflections

Due to the dynamic nature of language teachers' knowledge base, it is important for them to take an inquiry stance to design effective curricula, pedagogies, and assessments for students and justify what kind of knowledge base makes their language teaching effective. Inquiry-based approaches can prepare teachers to build a personalized knowledge base for their own contexts and classes so that they can be reflective practitioners and transformative intellectuals while meeting their students' needs, improving learning outcomes, and bridging the gap between theory and practice (Kumaravadivelu 2003). While doing so, language teachers can take emotions into account and explicitly relate the lack of knowledge and skills behind emotions to knowledge-based conceptualization in teacher education programs and continuing professional development. Teacher educators can design curricula that include social-emotional knowledge and skills to help teachers and teacher-learners with the conceptualization process.

References

- Agudo, J. D. D. M. (2018). *Emotions in Second Language Teaching: Theory, Research, and Teacher Education*. Springer.
- Andrews, S. (2001). The language awareness of the L2 teacher: its impact upon pedagogical practice. *Language Awareness*, 10(2): 75-89.
- Anttila, H.K., Pyhältö, T.S., Pietarinen, P. (2016). How does it feel to become a teacher? Emotions in teacher education. *Social Psychology of Education*, 19(3): 451-473.
- Boecher, Y. (2005). Native and nonnative English-speaking teacher distinctions: From dichotomy to collaboration. *CATESOL Journal*, 17(1): 67-75.
- Collaborative for Academic, Social, and Emotional Learning (August, 2019). *CASEL's Framework for Systemic Social and Emotional Learning* (pp. 1–7). Measuring SEL Frameworks Briefs. Retrieved from: <https://measuringSEL.casel.org/wp-content/uploads/2019/08/AWG-Framework-Series-B.2.pdf>.
- Dewey, M. (2015). Time to wake up some dogs! Shifting the culture of language in ELT. In Y. Bayyurt and S. Akcan (Eds.), *Current Perspectives on Pedagogy for English as a Lingua Franca* (pp. 121-134). De Gruyter Mouton.
- Dreer, B. (2021). Teachers' well-being and job satisfaction: The important role of positive emotions in the workplace. *Educational studies*, 1-17.
- Faez, F. (2011). Points of Departure: Developing the Knowledge Base of ESL and FSL Teachers for K-12 Programs in Canada. *The Canadian Journal of Applied Linguistics*, 14(1): 29-49.
- Francis, L., Torrez, C. A., Krebs, M. (2018). 'Hold Strongly to One Another': The Development of an Indigenous Teacher Preparation and Professional Development Program. In P. Whitinui, O. Mclvor, and C. Rodriguez de France (Eds.), *Promising Practices in Indigenous Teacher Education* (pp. 221-235). Springer.
- Freeman, D. (2018). Arguing for a knowledge-base in language teacher education, then (1998) and now (2018). *Language Teaching Research*, 24(1): 5-16.
- Gee, J. P. (2015). *Social linguistics and literacies: Ideology in discourses* (5th Ed.). Routledge.
- Haldimann, M., Morinaj, J., Hascher, T. (2023). The role of dyadic teacher-student relationships for primary school teachers' well-being. *International journal of environmental research and public health*, 20(5): 4053.
- Johnson, K. E. (2009). *Second language teacher education: A sociocultural perspective*. New York, NY: Routledge.
- Kumaravadivelu, B. (2003). *Beyond methods: Macrostrategies for language teaching*. Yale University Press.
- Kumaravadivelu, B. (2006). *Understanding language teaching: From method to postmethod*. Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Earlbaum Associates.
- Liu, J. (2001). Confessions of a nonnative English-speaking professional. *CATESOL Journal*, 13(1): 53-67.
- Madalinska-Michalak, J. (2015). Developing emotional competence for teaching. *Croatian Journal of Education*, 17(2): 71-97.
- Mousavi, E. S. (2007). Exploring 'teacher stress' in non-native and native teachers of EFL. *English Language Teacher Education and Development*, 10, 33-41.
- Reagan, T. G., Osborn, T. A. (2002). *The foreign language educator in society: Toward a critical pedagogy*. Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- Reis, D. S. (2015). Making sense of emotions in NNESTs' professional identities and agency. In Y. L. Cheung, S. B. Said, and K. Park (Eds.), *Advances and Current Trends in Language Teacher Identity Research* (pp. 31-43). Routledge.
- Richards, J. C. (2020). Exploring Emotions in Language Teaching. *RELC Journal*, 53(1): 225-239.
- Richards, J. C. (1998). The scope of second language teacher education. In *Beyond training* (pp. 1-30). Cambridge University Press.
- Richardson, V. (1996). The role of attitudes and beliefs in learning to teach. In J. Sikula (Ed.), *The*

- handbook of research in teacher education* (2nd ed., pp. 102-119). Macmillan.
- Rodriguez de France, C., Scully, A., Mclvor, O. (2018). Beyond the classroom: The impact of a required indigenous education course in the lives of pre-service teachers. In P. Whitinui, O. Mclvor and C. Rodriguez de France (Eds.), *Promising Practices in Indigenous Teacher Education* (pp. 87-102). Singapore: Springer.
- Selvi, A. F. (2014). Myths and misconceptions about non-native English speakers in the TESOL (NNEST) movement. *TESOL Journal*, 5(3): 573-611.
- Shulman, L. S. (1987). Knowledge and teaching: Foundations of the new reform. *Harvard Educational Review*, 57(1): 1-22.
- Song, J. (2018). Critical approaches to emotions of non-native English speaking teachers. *Chinese Journal of Applied Linguistics*, 41(4): 453-467.
- Soutter, M. (2023). Transformative social-emotional learning for teachers: Critical and holistic well-being as a marker of success. *Journal of Teaching and Learning*, 17(1): 7-30.
- Tarone, E., Allwright, D. (2005). Second language teacher learning and student second language learning: Shaping the KB. In D. J. Tedick (Ed.), *Second language teacher education: International perspectives* (pp. 5-23). Lawrence Erlbaum Associates Publishers.
- Teng, M.F. (2017). Emotional development and construction of teacher identity: narrative interactions about the pre-service teachers' practicum experiences. *Australian Journal of Teacher Education*, 42(11): 117-134.
- White, C. J. (2018). The emotional turn in applied linguistics and TESOL: significance, challenges and prospects. In: Martinez Agudo (Ed.) *Emotions in Second Language Teaching: Theory, Research, and Teacher Education* (pp. 9-34). Springer.
- Wolff, D., De Costa, P. I. (2017). Expanding the language teacher identity landscape: An investigation of the emotions and strategies of a NNEST. *The Modern Language Journal*, 101(S1): 76-90.
- Xu, L. (2012). The role of teachers' beliefs in the language teaching-learning process. *Theory and Practice in Language Studies*, 2(7): 1397-1402.
- Xu, Y. (2013). Language teacher emotion in relationships: A multiple case study. In X. Zhu and K. Zeichner (Eds.), *Preparing Teachers for the 21st Century* (pp. 371-393). Springer.

The importance of teacher awareness of student mental health in the EFL classroom

ISSN 2657-9774; <https://doi.org/10.36534/erlj.2023.01.05>

Aneta Naumoska*, Ivona Smilevska**

*Ss. Cyril and Methodius University, Blaze Koneski Faculty of Philology;
naumoska.an@gmail.com

**Ss. Cyril and Methodius University, Blaze Koneski Faculty of Philology; smilevska.ivona@hotmail.com

Abstract

The primary goal of this paper is to present, examine and exemplify the versatility and inclusiveness of the term 'mental health', i.e. the role of mental health as an integral component and affective factor in learning English as a foreign language. The most common mental health disorders and their early signs and symptoms are listed and described. Furthermore, the importance of teacher awareness of student mental health in the EFL classroom is elaborated as well as what and how much teachers should know about mental health and bullying so as to recognize and address them if need arises. It can even be said that the COVID-19 pandemic and school closures exacerbated this issue, and a suggestion to move forward could be building student resilience. Not only do teachers but also parents and guardians play a crucial role in their children's education, so how they can help protect their children's mental health has been additionally discussed. This paper will enrich the existing pool of theory on student mental health with the results and discussion from research conducted via interviews among 50 EFL teachers from various high schools in Skopje (North Macedonia), concerning their views on teacher awareness in respect to student mental health in the EFL classroom. The interview responses show an optimistic trend of increase of teacher interest in student mental health and empathy for students, albeit lack of institutional support. It is hoped that this paper will open avenues of thought for EFL teachers to probe even more into mental health in the EFL classroom. It is also important to acknowledge that while the overarching objective is to foster and promote mental health awareness among all educators across the board, this paper distinctly accentuates the significance within the domain of teaching EFL. This emphasis stems from the authors' perspective: one being an aspiring EFL teacher, and the other currently holding the position of an Assistant Professor (tertiary education). The aspiration is to highlight EFL teachers as influential figures capable of catalyzing transformative change for the future.

Keywords: *mental health, bullying, resilience, students, awareness, EFL classroom*

Introduction

The concept of *mental health* has been a hot topic of many discussions in ELT especially in the past few years. The World Health Organization (2022) defines *mental health* as "a state of complete physical, mental and social well-being and not merely the absence of disease or infirmity; a state of well-being in which the individual realizes his or her own abilities, can cope with the normal stresses of life, can work productively and fruitfully, and is able to make a contribution to his or her community." Moreover, UNICEF (2022) writes that "mental health is an integral component of health and well-being, influencing academic, social and economic outcomes across the lifespan; it is a basic human right that exists on a

complex continuum.” Our emotional (happiness, interests, approach to things), psychological (our own personality, character, ego, cognitive processes), and social (contributions to society, social cohesion and coherence) well-being represent important components of mental health, affecting how we relate to other people, how we handle difficulties and challenges, and how we make the right choices, which is why it is imperative to look after it.

Looking after one’s mental health, protecting it and promoting it can create the needed balance between daily responsibilities and a healthy mindset, while also creating an environment that supports mental health conversations and rejects stigmas. Apart from treatment and counseling, which play a strong role in student recovery journey, having inspiring people surrounding them in their social life and schooling can help create a healthy mindset. There are in fact many factors and triggers that can affect student mental health. The National Alliance on Mental Illness estimates that almost 1 in 5 young adults experience mental health problems each year. Moreover, with the start of the COVID-19 pandemic, it is safe to assume that the percentage of young adults with mental health problems is even higher (NAMI n.d.).

The first two decades of life is a critical period for the development of foundational competencies that can shape a learner’s mental health trajectories. At this stage of rapid development and learning, children and adolescents are highly susceptible to environmental influences. Experiences and environments can in fact harm mental health (UNICEF 2022). This is the reason why we chose, in particular, EFL teachers in high school (students aged 15-18) to be participants in the research further described in this paper.

I. Common mental health disorders (states)

Mental disorders all differentiate in the intensity of the effect they have upon students. They are characterized by a combination of abnormal thoughts, perceptions, emotions, behaviours, and relationships with others. Some common mental health disorders are anxiety disorders, mood disorders, psychotic disorders, and eating disorders (MedCircle 2020).

a) Anxiety disorders

The fearful anticipation of further danger or problems accompanied by an intense unpleasant feeling (dysphoria) or physical symptoms is known as an *anxiety disorder* and is a common occurrence in both children and adolescents (Youth.gov 2022). Anxiety can be defined as a mental and physical state characterized by specific emotional, physical, cognitive and behavioural symptoms; an adaptive reaction which mobilizes the organism and helps it defend, attack or avoid an anxiety stimulus; characterized by feelings of tension, apprehension, nervousness and worry (Král’ová 2016, 3; Spielberger 1972, 482). Anxiety disorders are responsible for affecting students’ energy levels, concentration, optimism and view on life, dependability, mental ability, performance, and overall physical health. It can make normal situations feel as though they are life-threatening due to persistent and excessive worry and fear, like socializing, public speaking or simply going outside one’s comfort zone. It can affect the relationships students form with their families, friends and teachers, and with that, their impending future.

Mental health professionals identify generalized anxiety disorder (GAD), panic disorder, and social anxiety disorder as some of the types of anxiety disorders all accompanied with feelings of intense fear. The essential feature of GAD is excessive anxiety and worry about a number of events or activities, often accompanied by restlessness, being easily fatigued, having difficulty concentrating, irritability, and disturbed sleep patterns. Students with panic disorder experience spontaneous panic attacks (attacks of sudden short-lived anxiety) in relation to a certain situation or event, without any apparent cause. They often take action to avoid being in certain situations to prevent those feelings, which may develop into agoraphobia (Breier et al. 1986). These unexpected panic attacks can be very traumatizing, which tends to leave students in fear of a recurring attack. Social anxiety disorder, also referred to as social phobia, is

characterized by an intense fear of social situations that results in considerable distress and fear of being judged by others and being embarrassed or humiliated, hence leading to avoidance of social situations (Liebowitz et al. 1985).

Anxiety when associated with learning a foreign language is termed *foreign language anxiety (FLA)*, related to the negative emotional reactions of learners towards foreign language acquisition (Horwitz 2001). FLA is generally viewed as a complex and multi-dimensional phenomenon of self-perceptions, beliefs, feelings and behaviours related to foreign language learning; causes being, among others, limitations to learner self-expression, negative self-evaluation as a learner, and threat to learner self-identity (Horwitz, Horwitz and Cope 1986, Young 1991). Nowadays, *mental health* being the umbrella term, ever since the 1980s when Krashen (1981) hypothesized that affective factors (anxiety, motivation and self-confidence) correlate with success in foreign language learning, one of the most examined affective variables in the field of EFL learning has been in fact FLA.

b) Mood disorders

Major depressive disorder, or depression, is a type of mood disorder characterized by low or irritable mood or loss of interest or pleasure in almost all (learning) activities, which causes inability to concentrate, lack of energy, feelings of hopelessness, and even physical aches and pains (Vantage Point 2022). Another mood disorder is bipolar disorder or manic depression, with significant changes in mood, concentration and energy, swinging between extreme happiness and severe depression.

c) Psychotic disorders

Psychotic disorders affect the mind and are characterized with distortions in thinking and awareness, emotions, and sense of self. Schizophrenia is a disorder that makes people interpret reality abnormally. It is characterized by a combination of symptoms such as hallucinations and delusions, disordered thinking and paranoid behavior that affects students' daily functioning. Schizo-affective disorder is a mental disorder that is a combination of both schizophrenia symptoms, like delusions or hallucinations, and symptoms of a mood disorder, like depression or mania (MedCircle 2020).

d) Eating disorders

There are different types of eating disorders, each having a unique set of symptoms, but all of them are characterized with severe body image and food issues. Anorexia nervosa is a disorder that causes people to eat fewer calories, restricting food intake to a point of self-starvation to achieve weight loss. Bulimia is an eating disorder that includes self-induced vomiting, laxative use, or excessive exercise as an attempt to get rid of ingested food. Binge-eating disorders develop as a coping mechanism after a stressful situation (Ibid).

Having a mental health disorder does not imply a student has done something wrong in their lives up to that point or that they are broken or unfixable. A mental health condition is not a result of an isolated situation or event but rather multiple, linked situations. It can be a result of genetics, family or environmental influence, a traumatic childhood, a biochemical process in the brain, etc. Recovery is always possible, especially if diagnosis and treatment are started early, thus the significance of EFL teachers being aware of the comprehensiveness and range of affective factors influencing a student's learning process and viewing students as human beings.

II. Bullying

Bullying is when people repeatedly and intentionally use words or actions against someone or a group of people to cause distress to their well-being. These actions are usually done by people who wield influence or power over someone else, or who want to make someone else feel less powerful or helpless. Bullying is repeated and unwanted aggressive behavior caused with the intent to potentially

hurt, embarrass, and offend a person's self-worth (Australian Human Rights Commission 2011). With the rise of modern technology, a new form of bullying (*cyberbullying*) has risen to the surface, which can seriously harm students' mental health as it happens online during or after school hours, reaches a wider audience, and is often done without any acknowledgement by parents. Harmful information can be uploaded without any consent, and cliques are formed to spread lies and rumours, make threats and put students at great risk online. Bullying happens for various reasons – it can stem from someone who is deeply insecure about themselves and likes to point out other people's problems in a way to help themselves feel better; others bully because they like to be socially dominant and accepted by their peers as a person of power. When bullying is not stopped, discussed, or challenged by anyone, especially teachers, it can create an unsafe and damaging environment where such behaviour is seemingly accepted.

The U.S. Department of Health and Human Services (2022) notes three types of bullying:

- **Verbal bullying** – Name-calling or writing hurtful things about someone to tease, taunt or threaten them.

- **Social bullying** – Also referred to as *relational bullying*, involving hurting someone's reputation or relationships by publicly embarrassing them or excluding them from cliques on purpose. This type of bullying is not easily noticed by EFL teachers since it is conducted out of their sight, however perceptive teachers might pick up on subtle clues in the EFL classroom (e.g. students' body language).

- **Physical bullying** – It involves physically hurting a person's body by hitting, pinching, spitting, or pushing them, in addition to taking a person's private possessions and breaking them, as well as making mean and rude hand gestures.

The ongoing cycle of bullying can have short-term and long-term negative effects on the victim's mental health. It can be a very traumatic experience for everyone involved, which is why it is imperative to address this as early as possible. Both teachers and parents can work together to ensure safety and prevent future bullying, raise awareness on the subject, and educate students to report such behaviour. Bullied teens are more likely to experience depression, anxiety, negative learning outcomes, and sometimes long-term damage to their self-esteem and confidence. They might experience feelings of loneliness, hopelessness, helplessness, isolation, rejection, shame and in some extreme cases, they might develop suicidal thoughts (Australian Human Rights Commission 2011).

Research on the consequences of bullying has found that children and adolescents who have been bullied can experience negative psychological, physical, and academic effects on their mental well-being (Youth.gov 2022). The psychological negative effects of bullying can be very traumatic and difficult to overcome. The most common ones are depression, anxiety, low self-esteem, self-harming behaviour, alcohol and drug use, aggression and involvement in violence or crime. The ongoing stress of bullying may lead to disturbed sleep patterns, dizziness, stomachaches and headaches, heart palpitations, chronic pain and somatization, which can occur when psychological issues are converted into physical symptoms. The negative academic effects of bullying are the most obvious indicator that a student might be struggling with mental health issues, which need addressing, e.g. not attending classes, having bad grades and a bad attitude towards learning. This cycle of bullying and poor mental health is not always inevitable, but it can be prevented if teachers and parents learn how to notice bullying and help students by diffusing the situation.

III. The importance of student mental health awareness for the EFL classroom

Students should be made aware that mental health well-being is more important than perfect academic performance and that their self-worth is not measured based on good grades and positive teacher feedback (praise). As a background concept, mental happiness plays a crucial role in the gradual rise of academic progress (Ferdous and Shifat 2020). EFL teachers' attitudes towards mental health can help shape students' perception of mental health disorders, demolish and reject mental health stigmas,

encourage open conversation, provide a safe environment, and help students empathize with others. Teachers need to also be aware of their own prejudices and labelling practices against people with mental health disorders, and not force such attitudes on their students. Having educational trainings in relation to mental health at schools affects students' health positively and helps them gain a new perspective about life, which in turn enhances a pattern of positive thinking in adolescents. It is of crucial importance for schools to be very sensitive when providing these services to students (World Health Organization 2022).

a) What should EFL teachers know about student mental health?

High school students spend most of their time either at home or at school, therefore it is inevitable that teachers or parents will encounter signs of disturbed mental health amongst some. By recognizing such signs and symptoms of disturbed mental health, teachers and parents can make a huge difference. These signs and symptoms vary from person to person, depending on the disorder and can be often dismissed as typical and normal adolescent behavior, which is why it is crucial for both parents and teachers to notice them at an early stage so they can be diagnosed properly and observed closely.

Common signs of mental health illness in young adults can include the following (NAMI n.d.):

- Excessive worrying or fear;
- Feeling excessively sad or low;
- Confused thinking or problems concentrating and learning;
- Extreme mood changes, including uncontrollable 'highs' or feelings of euphoria;
- Prolonged or strong feelings of irritability or anger;
- Avoiding friends and social activities at all cost;
- Difficulties understanding or relating to other people (empathy);
- Changes in sleeping habits or feeling tired and with low energy;
- Changes in eating habits, such as increased hunger or lack of appetite;
- Difficulty perceiving reality (delusions or hallucinations, in which a person experiences and senses things that do not exist in objective reality);
- Inability to perceive changes in one's own feelings, behaviour or personality ('lack of insight' or anosognosia);
- Multiple physical ailments without obvious causes (such as headaches, stomachaches, vague and ongoing 'aches and pains');
- Inability to carry out daily activities or handle daily problems and stress.

The warning signs for mental health problems differentiate for everyone but if there are questions or concerns about a student's behavior, both teachers and parents need to know who to turn to, such as the school principal, school psychologist, administrator, or a social worker.

b) How can EFL teachers recognize early signs of disturbed mental health in students?

In today's modern world, students are expected and pressured to have their futures planned out by the time they graduate high school (with good grades), while still trying to figure out and process life around them, manage relationships with peers, and deal with society's standards and the tough prejudices of social media. With such big expectations comes a lot of pressure and stress, which they are unprepared for.

NAMI (Ibid) states a few symptoms of disturbed mental health in young adults that may include the following:

- Changes in school performance;
- Excessive worry or anxiety;
- Hyperactive behavior;

- Frequent nightmares;
- Frequent disobedience or aggression;
- Frequent temper tantrums.

Some of these symptoms can be easily spotted if it is constant, repeated behavior and should be addressed by the teacher immediately. They can be noticed in students' academic performance, regular low grades, reacting negatively or with apathy to most activities, tasks and homework in the EFL classroom, irregular attendance to classes, sitting alone and not socializing with peers, etc. Disturbed mental health can also make students hyperventilate, bite their nails, express feelings of irritation, anger and distress, have trouble concentrating, have visible panic attacks, and withdraw from the class and teacher.

There are four main factors that contribute to poor mental health in students, those being:

- **High academic expectations** – Set either by their family or themselves. Students feel stressed by the overload of information they need to learn and the pressure to succeed with a high grade. Most are also anxious that a poor grade in English will ruin their future, especially since English is learned as a foreign language from kindergarten in North Macedonia.

- **Modern technology** – Social media platforms allow teenagers to stay connected and close from the comfort of their homes. Outdoor sports are replaced with video games, potential risks of online dating are not regularly discussed, there is risk of exposure to upsetting content and cyberbullying, etc.; all of which contribute to poor mental health. Popular social media platforms (Instagram and Facebook) put a lot of pressure on the 'perfect' body image and lifestyle, which leads to constant comparison with unrealistic goals.

- **COVID-19** – The pandemic has been and will continue to be responsible for many mental health problems, such as depression, anxiety, agoraphobia, post-traumatic stress disorder (PTSD), etc., as young people have been unable to attend school and see their friends and family (Hapsari 2021).

- **Peer pressure** – It can detrimentally impact student school performance, leading to distractions and a decline in expected educational outcomes. To mitigate this, students must develop self-awareness, surround themselves with positive influences, and foster open communication with their EFL teacher in order to navigate the challenges posed by negative peer pressure. By doing so, students can maintain their individuality, make informed decisions, and thrive educationally in a supportive environment (Jain 2023).

For a student to approach their EFL teacher and ask for help can often be very difficult and challenging as they might feel like a burden and not wish to bother their teacher with their problems. This is the case in North Macedonia because student mental health is to this day considered a taboo subject, discussed behind closed doors, and at an institutional (administrative) level employees are neither familiar with nor welcoming to this subject. A safe and open environment, though, can play a crucial role in helping a student deal with their problems, regardless of how insignificant these problems may seem in their eyes. Teachers should educate themselves first on this subject and then teach their students to recognize mental health issues, as well as productive ways to deal with these issues, encourage well-being and a healthy mindset, and help students access online mental health resources. In addition, teachers can take steps to be culturally sensitive, and work with both students and their families to make sure the students are receiving the best help available. This is how a positive classroom culture that values diversity of thought and character traits is promoted.

c) What role should parents have in their child's (mental health) education?

As a parent, you want to make sure your child's learning environment is set up, so they are not only academically successful but mentally healthy and unburdened as well. Grades and positive feedback (praise) should not be the primary focus at parent-teacher meetings, but rather teachers should take their time to discuss student mental well-being in the classroom. Educating parents about mental health

awareness, early signs and symptoms, help programs and common disorders among teenagers is a good first step for their role in their child's education and well-being. Parents can encourage, motivate, and even influence their children to do well in school. Parents should also be aware of what their child's teacher is and should be doing to help and support them, how they are progressing and reacting to what is taught to their children, what they should not be doing and discussing, and what they as parents can do to help.

INcompassing Education (2022) discusses the role parents should have in their child's education:

- **Monitor children's progress at school** – Parents should constantly monitor and be aware of their child's academic performance, school attendance, behaviour and teacher's evaluation.

- **Coordinate with teachers** – Parents should ask for feedback on not only their child's academic performance, but also on their emotional and social growth.

- **Attend parent-teacher (PT) meetings** – PT meetings are important for discussing and developing programs that support and encourage students' motivation to learn.

- **Have one-to-one talks** – Open communication is essential in every relationship, whether it is between a parent and a child or a teacher and a parent. An open conversation should be encouraged to help solve problems and discuss their solutions.

- **Participate in school activities** – Parents should often participate in their child's school activities or homework as a way of getting to know the relationship their child has built with the school, the environment they created, how they interact with each other, how they react and deal with difficulties, etc.

- **Be a role model for learning** – Parents are children's role models in every way. By encouraging learning and offering constant guidance, parents can help create a healthy relationship between children and education.

- **Connect with what your child learns to everyday life** – As a way of fostering creativity, curiosity, and a desire to learn.

A supportive learning environment should be created – one that safeguards mental health and all learners feel included, supported and valued. Effective integration of mental health in high schools can improve educational outcomes; increase learners' mental health literacy; promote learners' social and emotional learning; and help identify at-risk learners and provide support (UNICEF 2022). Students need to have a sense of belonging to help them feel connected with their peers and accepted by their teacher. Promoting resilience and developing competence in the classroom is extremely helpful for overcoming current and future mental health challenges they might face. When students feel safe and heard at school, they also feel free and comfortable to speak up on bullying, harassment, or a mental health struggle. A continuous flow of positive feedback on their accomplishments, no matter whether they are big or small, reinforces a positive attitude towards school, supports good mental health, and builds confidence and self-esteem. Teaching students to help others encourages healthy social behaviours, positive recognition, and friendships. Finally, providing mental health support programs and establishing a crisis support team builds a healthy point of view for conversations about mental health, ensures safety, and demolishes stigmas.

d) Developing student mental health and bullying awareness in high schools

Establishing an open line of communication helps students form a deeper connection with the teacher, encourages trust and a safe environment where students may find it easier to admit they are being bullied and seek help from their teachers. Thus, it is crucial for every high school EFL teacher to be educated on how to effectively respond to and treat cases where bullying occurs. Teachers should have the chance to participate in seminars and workshops on student mental health so they can afterwards transfer their knowledge to their students. High schools could include anti-bullying programs in their curriculum as a way of raising awareness and educating students on this subject. EFL teachers should

take time to regularly discuss bullying and student mental health with their students. These subjects may be sensitive for some students and triggering for their mental health, which is why it is important not to put students on the spot to talk about it but rather have them open up when they feel comfortable to do so. Teachers should always emphasize where students can seek help if they are being bullied and how they can protect themselves.

In addition, EFL high school teachers can encourage students to practice language skills by introducing educational activities that cover the subject of bullying and its effects on mental health. For example, an anti-bullying lesson in an EFL classroom could begin with a reading activity: a text about bullying that covers all the important vocabulary. The text can be from the point of view of a victim of bullying, describing the everyday challenges of going to school to face their bully. As the students are silently reading the text about bullying, the teacher writes the key vocabulary on the board. After reading the text, the teacher can engage the students in a discussion about bullying. Types of questions to ask students would be: Have you ever been a witness to bullying? How do you think the bullying affected the victim? How could you have helped the situation? Why do students bully? How should teachers prevent bullying? What can parents do to help? For homework, teachers can ask students to write a paragraph about bullying starting with the sentence: "I care about raising awareness on bullying because..." This lesson's aim would be awareness-raising of school bullying in the context of vocabulary expansion or even a grammar focus (conditional sentences, e.g. If I were in this situation...)

This example of a lesson shows how the topic of mental health can be integrated into an EFL lesson. In this regard, EFL teachers have an active role in shaping students' knowledge and attitude about mental health. Schools are the best place to start the mental health conversation and develop comprehensive programs because they are the strongest social and educational institution and have a profound influence on children. Additionally, schools are crucial in building self-esteem and a sense of competence, so when teachers are actively involved in these programs, their teaching can reach and help many future generations (Hendren et al. 1994).

e) Conversations about mental health in the ELT classroom

Educating ourselves as teachers is the first step to understanding the importance of mental health awareness, and then it becomes our responsibility to transfer the same knowledge to our students and future generations. Talking openly and freely about mental health in the EFL classroom not only demolishes stigma and misinformation but also nurtures a healthy mindset, a willingness to learn and perform well and encourages students to help each other be and do better. Bryson (2022) describes five tried-and-tested methods for teachers to promote mental health inside the EFL classroom: listen and be flexible; offer community support and resources; practice mindfulness; draw; and get outside. Mental health awareness is an important topic for all teachers, who are often the first line of defense for their students. Since students spend 5 days a week at school, it just makes sense to have mental health awareness become part of the school subjects. Teachers can educate the students on the symptoms of mental health issues, provide a safe environment, encourage good health, and help students access mental health resources. They can also teach positive behaviours and encourage helping others.

In 2019, the Department of Education's officials in Florida (USA), together with First Lady Casey DeSantis, proposed what can be considered a life-saving curriculum initiative concerning statewide schools to have students from grades 6 to 12 take at least five hours of mandatory mental health lessons per week (Rode 2022). Students would receive education aimed at helping them identify signs and symptoms of disturbed mental health, and education on how to find the right resources to help themselves and others. The initiative would allow school districts to choose what they wanted to teach their students and highlight issues of bullying, substance abuse and suicide prevention. If the teaching material was too advanced, school districts could also choose to hire professionals and counselors to help guide them through the subject of student mental health. The initiative first came into debate after

a school shooting happened in Florida that resulted in multiple casualties, including two student survivors who out of guilt and disturbed mental health, took their own lives. The question remains whether this could have been prevented if this policy had been implemented at a much earlier stage, teaching and encouraging students to reach out for help or notice signs of disturbed mental health in their peers. Concerning the sensitivity of this subject, it is of crucial importance to do anything to help students rather than do nothing. Raising awareness of student mental health will not only help demolish stigma but also may help save lives.

f) Moving forward through resilience

Capstick (2018) quotes the '3RP Regional Refugee and Resilience Plan' when writing that "resilience is the ability of individuals, households, communities, and societies to withstand shocks and stresses, recover from them and work with national and local government institutions to achieve transformational change." The main objective of early psychological research into resilience was to identify the individual personality traits and wider factors of adverse life circumstances, and then to identify the processes that could underlie positive adaptation. Research by UNICEF (2016) has uncovered three underlying influential factors: the community, the family, and the individual. The Cambridge Dictionary defines *resilience* as the quality of being able to return quickly to a previous good condition after problems. James and De Laurentiis Brandão (2019, 3) state that how resilience is conceptualized is in fact complex, viewing it as "a cyclical construct, involving dynamic processes of interaction over time between person and environment."

In ELT there has been a particular focus on learners building individual resilience, reflecting increasing concerns on learners' mental health. Although the concept of *resilience* is not a novelty in ELT, during the COVID-19 pandemic it definitely gained traction and permeated the period of school closures. The emergent definition as a learner's ability to withstand adversity and crisis has since been developed, as resilience is now viewed in its multidimensional nature – with an increasing use of the term *academic resilience* – including not only coping strategies for learners but also ways to achieve good educational outcomes despite unavoidable adversity. In addition to a language skills focus, today's context inevitably entails equipping learners with a set of broader skills, such as successful self-management, linking study skills to developing self-awareness, well-being development, and making them better decision-makers, which are several teaching aims that EFL high school teachers should strive towards. Resilience from a learner's perspective thus takes center stage, especially how it will prepare students for entering the workforce in their near future.

How can EFL teachers help build their students' academic resilience? This can be done through raising discussions about the importance of the overall context and the big picture in life, life-long learning, diversification of their skills, having a critical stance, breaking things down into manageable baby steps, planning and prioritizing, strategizing, organization and communication skills, self-reflection, finding their unique voice, essential work-life balance (even nutrition and healthy habits), dealing with inevitable deadlines and stress, procrastination, the imposter syndrome, reconsidering failure, teamwork and collaboration (or 'buddying up'), and creating a strong network of friends for both mental support and professional exchange.

IV. Methodology

a) Research tool

We gathered qualitative data and gained insight into the level of awareness, knowledge and interest on the topic of student mental health among 50 EFL teachers from various high schools in Skopje (North Macedonia) and with varied years of teaching experience. This was achieved through doing interviews (in

the time frame between March and June 2022) in order for us to profoundly understand the teachers' opinions, beliefs, attitudes and suggestions for including mental health into the EFL classroom with the purpose of demolishing stigmas. The interviews were conducted in a flexible open-ended format, allowing each teacher to take extended turns, followed up with responses further probing their thoughts (Kasper 2015). The research participants were informed beforehand of the specifics so they could fully understand the terminology, their role and their further contribution. We were aware of the time-consuming and energy-consuming nature of this research tool, however the responses provided us with much food for thought on the current prevalent beliefs and how they could be applied for future changes, hopefully in the high school curriculum for EFL. The broadly formulated six questions were the following, and teachers were asked for specificity on their part:

Q1: Do you think it is beneficial for EFL teachers to discuss mental health regularly in the classroom? Explain why.

Q2: What resources, activities, techniques, or methods can EFL teachers use to teach and support student mental health?

Q3: What would you do if a student approaches you asking for help regarding their mental health?

Q4: What should EFL teachers know about mental health?

Q5: What should high schools do to raise awareness of student mental health?

Q6: How do you help build student resilience in the EFL classroom?

We were both well aware that in North Macedonia there is lack of (institutional) support for EFL teachers when it comes to bringing awareness to this topic in the EFL classroom since it is still largely considered a stigmatized taboo subject unworthy of attention. Teachers and parents therefore are not generally capable of early detection of a disturbed mental health symptom in a student, which only leads to more difficulties the student will face in adulthood. It is precisely with this reflection in mind that we started delving into student mental health. In the following section, the responses from the six questions will be discussed.

b) Discussion of responses

Q1: Do you think it is beneficial for EFL teachers to discuss mental health regularly in the classroom? Explain why.

Having regular discussions about the subject of mental health during any class can greatly benefit both students and teachers as it can help bring awareness to the topic, dispute stigmas and encourage students to ask for help when needed. Simultaneously, in an EFL classroom setting, students can practice active speaking and listening and expand their vocabulary.

The feedback we received from teachers on Q1 was in favour of them having regular mental health discussions during EFL classes. Specifically, 46 teachers agreed that with these discussions they can nourish their student's mental well-being. 5 teachers even said they had already introduced this topic during their classes during the COVID-19 pandemic. One teacher said: "As a teacher with 20 years of teaching experience, I noticed that 1 in 5 teenagers have a diagnosable mental health disorder that is severe enough to impair how they function at school or in the community." Another teacher added: "By listening, teachers can create an opportunity to encourage students to seek help if needed. Everyone experiences mental health issues at some time in their lives, especially youths, and it is vital not to underestimate the importance of discussions if students need a safe space to talk. I usually start the conversation by telling them that I have noticed that they don't seem their usual self and describe the changes I have personally noticed in their mood or behaviour. Then, the conversation proceeds to flow naturally." On the other hand, 4 teachers decisively stated that they don't see any benefit of having these discussions during their EFL classes, justifying their opinions by saying they are EFL teachers, not trained psychologists.

Q2: What resources, activities, techniques, or methods can EFL teachers use to teach and support student mental health?

To clarify, our intention was to find out how teachers can help raise awareness of this subject through teaching EFL, not introduce it through preaching or imposing their own opinions regarding student mental health.

82% of the interviewees agreed they would start with a speaking activity in their EFL classes and have a weekly discussion about the subject of student mental health. Some added that such a warm-up activity had been extremely important during the COVID-19 pandemic, when schooling was conducted online. Activities such as watching and then discussing TED talks, doing role-plays and group work tasks were mentioned as well. Furthermore, the resources/links they would mostly rely on and share during class were articles published by the World Health Organization or written by established mental health professionals. Showing empathy and willingness to listen were amongst the most notable benefits of this. A teacher stated: "Speaking activities are the most effective ones. We can discuss certain age-appropriate and contemporary issues through games or even Agony Aunt (authentic samples). Students find it easier to relate to unknown peoples' problems if they are reluctant to share their own opinion or experience." Another teacher said: "Students should be encouraged to do self-reflection and try to reflect on the mistakes and successes from the previous week at school. I consider student self-reflection as part of mental health."

Furthermore, concerning the COVID-19 pandemic, one teacher said: "The pandemic has affected the mental health of millions of students across the world. We are teaching students remotely, so we should take as many steps as we can to ensure that they have access to the mental health resources they need. We should encourage positive, reflective thinking; we should use interactive remote learning tools in our lessons and remind them that this too shall pass. There are many things we can do as teachers to address our students' mental health issues during this challenging time. We should try to engage students in our EFL classes by adding interactivity and motivating them through use of smart learning tools". For example, one activity could be to view life through pink-tinted glasses. Students would have to write in the Zoom chat box a few 'bright spots' or things they liked that day, things they were grateful for. Another example would be for students to write down their own 'three circles of control'. They would need to focus on what they can control on the inside, instead of all the factors on the outside that they simply cannot change. Thinking of all the things they do have control over right now will make students feel more empowered. The majority of teachers interviewed agreed on the point that bringing structure to digital lessons would definitely bring ease to students' minds since routine and structure can provide relief in these uncertain times. 18% of the interviewees, however, agreed they would not teach and support student mental health during their EFL classes.

Q3: What would you do if a student approaches you asking for help regarding their mental health?

Taking into consideration our personal experiences in high school, this question was of great importance to both of us. Bullying was a topic that was never discussed in high school in our day, let alone its negative effects on student mental health. When approaching our respective EFL high school teachers, who we had both considered to be educated, and asking for help regarding our mental health, we were advised to "simply forget and move on".

The feedback we received on this sensitive question showed that most high school teachers tend to use the same approach, i.e. 32 teachers thought that active listening is the most important thing they can do in such a situation. They continued saying they would also try to offer their advice on the specific problem and then refer the student to the school psychologist for additional professional consultation. Some also added that having the student's parents be present should be mandatory during that

consultation. One teacher said: “I think that the key is simply listening and showing understanding, so I let students know that I’m supportive for them. Paraphrasing what they have said back to them can also be helpful to reinforce my understanding for the certain situation. Parents should be informed so we can both join forces to help that student through mutual collaboration. My high school has wonderful psychologists who are always there for the students.” Another teacher added: “Whatever method you choose to practice, be sure that you are cognizant of how you can increase the teen's sense of self-worth. Praise them often for their hard work, don't put them on the spot in front of their peers, and give them the opportunity to answer questions aloud when possible. The results won't be far off.”

However, 4 teachers remained distanced from this question saying their job as an EFL teacher is language-related only and they would not try to help the student in need but rather suggest who else can address their issue. One teacher even said: “I have so many problems of my own that I don't want to try fixing students' problems on top of mine.”

High school students with mental health struggles find it very difficult to open up in front of a teacher and ask for help regarding their struggles, so when they do open up, regardless of our educational background or beliefs, it is of crucial importance to just listen and be present when they share their personal struggles since they came to us because they trust us and believe we can help them.

Q4: What should EFL teachers know about mental health?

With this question, we were interested in finding out the level of interest EFL teachers have for learning more about this topic as well as understanding what they as teachers believe they should know about mental health.

We were positively surprised to find out that the responses of 46 EFL teachers were that they would want to be educated on early signs and symptoms of disturbed mental health in students and how to recognize and carefully act upon them. A teacher said: “Everything. We as teachers know that our students' mental health has a great impact on their overall behaviour, socialization, learning process and achieving of academic success”. In the words of another teacher: “We are not specialists on mental health, but having basic knowledge would be advantageous for the students we teach. It is often a relief for them to know that we're aware that they are going through a tough time and are willing to listen and be there to help if needed. Teachers should be knowledgeable about management of mental health crises.” Moreover, many teachers agreed they would want to know where they can turn to when the problem is out of their realm of expertise. According to a teacher: “I think ELT teachers should be equipped with an arsenal of online resources for student mental health, but we should never forget to consult the professionally trained colleagues and always ask for their help when needed.”

However, few teachers responded that they should not spend time learning about student mental health when it is not in their job description and they are not qualified for that, hence demonstrating narrow-mindedness.

Q5: What should high schools do to raise awareness of student mental health?

School is a place where students socialize, learn, and grow in a safe environment. Having mental health awareness classes, seminars or discussions can shape future generations to better understand themselves and the world around them, boost their social skills, help them grow emotionally, and recognize early signs of disturbed mental health in themselves or others. These discussions can help in ending stigma by openly talking about mental health and not treating this subject as a taboo one.

The research concluded that 46 teachers believe that schools should provide regular training courses, seminars, campaigns and support groups for student mental health awareness. One teacher added: “First of all, I believe schools should make mental health known, and organize social clubs in the school for students to share their ideas and thoughts, as well as have more panels, presentations, and guest lecturers to talk about the importance of communication about mental problems”. They shared the

opinion that schools should invest in trainings for teachers: “Just talking about mental health issues is a massive step in the right direction. Sometimes students and families view those with mental health issues as outsiders and do not realize that most people struggle with such issues. We need to broaden the definition of mental health so that our students and their families understand that depression, anxiety, and other conditions are common and nothing to be ashamed of. Talking about mental health issues normalizes it and helps reduce stigma. When they hear someone else share a story that is similar to theirs, they will start to think they are not so strange themselves”.

Q6: How do you help build student resilience in the EFL classroom?

The majority of interviewees responded that pre-pandemic they had never previously touched upon this concept with their students. Some would openly talk to their students about starting to be able to focus on their life passions and intellectual indulgences in spite of the pandemic, while others through critical reading and literature would provoke raw discussions on different historical contexts and contemporary realities, relating it to the pandemic-induced isolation and alienation. Some would try to motivate their students by sharing inspirational or success stories, helping them see the big picture and in a safe online environment leading students to reflect on positive future outcomes, while others drew on personal experiences to introduce challenging topics that students were facing, thus trying to relate the content they teach to the actual context in which they teach. It is a widely held opinion among the interviewees that online teaching does indeed offer limited possibilities of interaction, but it has also enabled students to write their thoughts in the Zoom chat box, hence articulating their fears and frustrations in writing rather than uttering them, and this in turn helps to channel the discussion and directly address issues related to strengthening of students' resilience. Some also noted that being a resilient model and radiating optimism (although sometimes challenging) works wonders for students.

According to the EFL teachers, the following characteristics (in order of importance) ideally brought about academic resilience in students to help with their future employability: adaptability, flexibility, persistence, determination, toughness, perseverance, endurance, patience, focus, unwavering motivation, tenacity, grit, preparedness, curiosity, resourcefulness, mindfulness, progress, and personal growth.

V. Conclusion

In this paper, the topic of including regular student mental health discussions in the EFL classroom was discussed and thoroughly examined. We argued why we believe such discussions are a necessity and beneficial for nurturing a healthy mindset and worldview. Furthermore, the importance of teacher awareness of student mental health in the EFL classroom was elaborated, especially what and how much teachers should know about student mental health and how they can recognize the early signs and symptoms of impaired mental health. Some of these symptoms can be easily spotted if it is repeated behaviour and should be addressed by the teacher immediately to avoid serious damage to one's health. Some of the key factors contributing to students' impaired mental health were described as well as tips for improving and maintaining mental health inside and outside the EFL classroom, which teachers should be familiar with. The role of parents in their children's education and how they can help protect their children's mental health has also been briefly mentioned. Educating both teachers and students on mental health awareness will help diminish stigma towards mental health, prevent misinformation and prejudice. In this regard, teachers have an active role in shaping students' knowledge and attitudes about mental health and bullying. Schools are the best place to start mental health and bullying conversations and develop comprehensive programs because they are the strongest educational institutions and have profound influence on many children. Additionally, schools are crucial for building student's self-esteem and a sense of competence, and when teachers are actively involved in these programs, their teaching can reach and help many future generations.

We conducted research among EFL teachers from various high schools in Skopje (North Macedonia), concerning their awareness in respect to student mental health awareness in the EFL classroom, the responses of which are discussed in Chapter 5. What could be concluded from this research is that, fortunately, the majority of EFL teachers in Skopje are open to having regular mental health discussions during their classes and are themselves invested in learning more about this subject so as to help their students. The only drawback of this research was the lack of inclusion of high school teachers from other cities in North Macedonia, which could be a starting point for further future research. The interview responses show an optimistic trend of increase of teacher interest in student mental health and empathy for students, albeit lack of institutional support. It is hoped that this paper will open avenues of thought for EFL teachers to probe even more into mental health in the EFL classroom.

In conclusion, students need to have a sense of belonging to help them feel connected with their peers and accepted by their teacher. Promoting resilience in the EFL classroom is extremely helpful for overcoming current and future mental health challenges students might face. When students feel safe and heard at school, they also feel free and comfortable to speak up on bullying, harassment, or a mental health struggle. A continuous flow of positive feedback on their accomplishments reinforces a positive attitude towards school, supports good mental health, and builds confidence and self-esteem. Teaching students to help others encourages healthy social behaviours, positive recognition, and strong friendships. Finally, providing mental health support programs in high schools and establishing a crisis support team builds a healthy point of view for conversations about mental health, reassures safety, and demolishes stigmas.

References

- Australian Human Rights Commission. (2011). *What is bullying? Violence, Harassment and Bullying Fact Sheet*. <https://humanrights.gov.au/our-work/commission-general/what-bullying-violence-harassment-and-bullying-fact-sheet>. Accessed on 16 April 2023.
- Breier, A., Charney, D. S., Heninger, G. R. (1986). *Agoraphobia with panic attacks: development, diagnostic stability, and course of illness*. *Archives of General Psychiatry*, 1029-1036.
- Bryson, E. (2022). *Five Ways to Promote Mental Health in the English Language Classroom*. <https://ellii.com/blog/how-promote-mental-health-in-the-classroom>. Accessed on 1 July 2023.
- Capstick, T. (2018). Key Concepts in ELT: Resilience. *ELT Journal*, 72(2): 210-213.
- Ferdous, A. U., Shifat, N. F. (2020). Dealing with Mental Health in Online Learning: A Retrospect on ELT Teachers and EFL Learners during COVID-19 Pandemic. *REILA: Journal of Research and Innovation in Language*, 2(3): 101-107.
- Hapsari, C. T. (2021). Distance Learning in the time of Covid-19: Exploring Students' Anxiety. *Journal of English Language Teaching: ELT Forum*, 10(1): 40-49.
- Hendren, R., Birrell Weisen, R., Orley, J. (1994). *Mental Health Programmes in Schools*. Geneva: Division of Mental Health, World Health Organization.
- Horwitz, E. K. (2001). Language anxiety and achievement. *Annual Review of Applied Linguistics*, 21, 112-126.
- Horwitz, E. K., Horwitz, M. B., Cope, J. A. (1986). Foreign language classroom anxiety. *The Modern Language Journal*, 70, 125-132.
- INcompassing Education. (2022). *The Role of Parents in Education*. <https://incompassinged.com/2017/08/04/the-role-of-parents-in-education/#:~:text=Parents%20serve%20as%20the%20first,and%20useful%20learning%20can%20be>. Accessed on 28 May 2023.
- Jain, I. (2023). *The Impact of Peer Pressure on Students' Academic Performance*. <https://fairgaze.com/fgnews/the-impact-of-peer-pressure-on-students-academic->

performance.html#:~:text=In%20conclusion%2C%20peer%20pressure%20can,a%20decline%20in%20a%20academic%20outcomes. Accessed on 5 July 2023.

- James, G., De Laurentiis Brandão, A. C. (2019). *ELT Teachers' Stories of Resilience: ELT Research Papers*. London: British Council.
- Kasper, G. (2015). Conducting Interviews. In J. D. Brown and C. Coombe (Eds.), *The Cambridge Guide to Research in Language Teaching and Learning* (pp. 209-216). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Kráľ'ová, Z. (2016). *Foreign Language Anxiety*. Nitra, Slovakia: Constantine the Philosopher University.
- Krashen, S. D. (1981). *Second Language Acquisition and Second Language Learning*. Oxford: Pergamon Press.
- Liebowitz, M. R., Gorman, J. M., Fyer, A. J. (1985). *Social Phobia: Review of a Neglected Anxiety Disorder*. *Archives of General Psychiatry*, 729-736.
- MedCircle. (2020). *The Most Common Mental Disorders: What You Need to Know*. <https://medcircle.com/articles/most-common-mental-disorders/>. Accessed on 17 June 2023.
- NAMI National Alliance on Mental Illness. (n.d.). *About Mental Illness: Warning Signs and Symptoms*. <https://www.nami.org/About-Mental-Illness/Warning-Signs-and-Symptoms>. Accessed on 21 April 2023.
- Rode, D. (2022). *Florida Schools to Require at Least 5 Hours of Mental Health Classes*. <https://www.boredteachers.com/post/florida-schools-to-require-at-least-5-hours-of-mental-health-classes>. Accessed on 2 July 2023.
- UNICEF. (2022). *Five essential pillars for promoting and protecting mental health and psychosocial well-being in schools and learning environments: A briefing note for national governments*. New York: UNICEF Education Section.
- UNICEF. (2016). *Language Education and Social Cohesion (LESC) Initiative*. Malaysia: UNICEF East Asia and Pacific Regional Office.
- U.S. Department of Health and Human Services. (2022). *What is Bullying?* <https://www.stopbullying.gov/bullying/what-is-bullying>. Accessed on 13 April 2023.
- Vantage Point. (2022). *Mental Health Treatment*. <https://vantagepointrecovery.com/mental-health-treatment/#>. Accessed on 10 March 2023.
- World Health Organization. (2022). *Mental Health*. <https://www.who.int/news-room/fact-sheets/detail/mental-health-strengthening-our-response>. Accessed on 21 February 2023.
- Young, D. J. (1991). Creating a Low-Anxiety Classroom Environment: What Does Language Anxiety Research Suggest? *The Modern Language Journal*, 75(4): 426-439.
- Youth.gov. (2022). *School Based Mental Health*. <https://youth.gov/youth-topics/youth-mental-health/school-based>. Accessed on 3 June 2023.

Affect behind the use of anglicisms among adolescents in North Macedonia - causes and consequences

ISSN 2657-9774; <https://doi.org/10.36534/erlj.2023.01.06>

Izabela Celevska*, Biljana Naumoska-Sarakinska**

*Ss Cyril and Methodius University, N. Macedonia; izabela_celevska@hotmail.com

**Ss Cyril and Methodius University, N. Macedonia; biljananaumoska@ffl.ukim.edu.mk

Abstract

As the most effective means of communication, language is open to numerous changes to adapt to its users. English both influences other languages, and is influenced by them, most often the former than the latter, especially in the area of enriching their word stock. As things change in society, and in life, the users' needs change, too; new phenomena appear, resulting in new words entering a given language. This integration is interesting to study in more detail as it may provide an insight into the reasons and the consequences to the target language at hand. This paper looks at a small-scale study carried out among adolescents in N. Macedonia, with the aim to see how much anglicisms feature in their everyday speech, and why. Though the frequent use of anglicisms is nothing bad, awareness should be raised as it might result in the source language becoming less familiar to its native speakers, and eventually fading away.

Keywords: *anglicisms, adolescents, loanwords, language planning, language use, affect*

Introduction

Language, as a means of communication, is inevitably prone to a number of changes in the name of meeting the (communicative) needs of its users. As their needs change, languages change and adapt as well. These changes may be of various types, such as the appearance of new words into the lexicon to describe new phenomena that have become an integral part of a given society, or conversely, the disappearance of other words, which no longer figure in our modern world. In addition, the lexicon of a given language may be enriched by new words not because the target language does not have its own equivalent(s), but for other (extralinguistic) reasons, such as affective factors, which are, in fact, emotional factors that may also play a role.

In this context, we may note that adolescents, the focus of our study, are greatly influenced by their environment, and their peers in particular, which fosters a need to 'fit in'. As such, this would include speaking in a way and using words and expressions common among this age group, and due to the global lingua franca status that English enjoys, it is no surprise that anglicisms¹ are so prevalent.

New words may enter a given language in different ways - they may be newly coined, or may have been borrowed from another language, with certain adjustments made so as to meet the various morphological, phonological, and syntactic rules of the target language. This process of integration in the source language is interesting to analyze further, as it provides an overview of a number of changes that may result from both a linguistic and a cultural point of view. These changes are not necessarily negative in nature as they tend to lead to economy of expression, and to an overall simplification in terms of

¹ Anglicism is loosely defined as a word or construction borrowed from English by another language.

communication, yet awareness needs to be raised as they might ultimately result in the source language becoming less familiar to its native speakers.

The new words that become a part of the lexicon of a given language may do so in two ways - through borrowing, and being adapted into the target language, or through various word formation processes in the target language (Veleva 1997). Though borrowing words and adapting them to meet the rules of the target language is nothing new and is a phenomenon present in all modern languages, care should be taken as to how this is all carried out, especially in terms of the developmental aspirations of the target language, the actual need for this, as well as the expressive and communicative capacities of the language in question.

The impact of English on other languages worldwide is a global phenomenon, which Macedonian is not immune to, especially bearing in mind the fact that English has become a firmly fixed presence in Macedonian society and in communication among people, in general. As such, a number of developed countries have formed various institutions to counter the effects of English on their own language, mainly in order to protect them and to secure their future in the long run (Gruevska-Madzoska 1997).

It goes without saying that English has had a great impact on Macedonian in a number of linguistic areas, such as lexicology, syntax, and morphology, among others, which is one of the main reasons behind our decision to conduct a small-scale study concerning the use of anglicisms among the group most prone to this influence - adolescents².

It would be impossible to find a 'pure' language, that is, a language without any loanwords or traces of other languages, which is understandable since languages are shaped by their users, and people are connected in different ways. English itself is a mixture of a number of languages, containing loanwords from French, Italian, Greek, Latin, and so on. In that context, Macedonian is no different, consisting of words borrowed from Turkish primarily, but also from a number of other international languages, such as English. Thus, borrowing words from other languages and adapting them into the target language is common practice in enriching a language, and the point of this study is not to defend the importance of 'language purification', but rather to take a closer look into the use of anglicisms in Macedonian, and the reasons for it, especially if there is already an existing equivalent for that word.

Literature review and theoretical background

Upon closer study of how adolescents communicate amongst themselves, we will undoubtedly observe that anglicisms make a frequent appearance and that the Macedonian used in communication is heavily influenced by the interference of these linguistic elements. This is true not just in terms of speech, but also in terms of written expression. It is becoming increasingly common to hear English loanwords used with Macedonian affixes or other Macedonian stylistic and grammatical elements, thus adapting them to the target language of the communicative act.

This aligns with what renowned Macedonian linguist Blaže Koneski noted previously, that new words are accepted by users much more readily if they 'fit in' with the characteristics of the linguistic system of the target language (Koneski 1986). A great number of loanwords have entered the Macedonian language in this way, especially from Turkish, though we have yet to see whether the English loanwords will be able to assimilate fully, especially those that have competition from a Macedonian equivalent.

Here, we have further issues to study, such as the reasons why the (English) loanword would be used instead of the Macedonian equivalent, and what the potential consequences of this would be concerning the future of the language. Thus, if we take the word *hate* (v.), which has a perfectly acceptable Macedonian equivalent - *мрази*, we would need to see why the loanword *xejma* would be used instead. The same goes for the word *vibe* (v.), which may be translated as *вибрура; жува*, equivalents which

² Adolescent is defined by the World Health Organization as anyone between the ages of 10 and 19. For our purposes, we limited our respondents to the age group of 13 to 19.

admittedly do not fully convey the meaning of the original, and thus we now have *вајба* in use by adolescents. The situation is the same with the word *mute* (v.), nowadays frequently used as *мјутна* instead of the accepted (зо) *исклучи микрофон(от)*, (зо) *исклучи звук(от)*, translated as *turn(ed) off the mic*, *turn(ed) off the volume*, and so on.

Hence, it will be interesting to delve deeper and see why these anglicisms are used by adolescents instead of the perfectly acceptable Macedonian equivalents - is it because they would like to sound cooler, smarter, more educated, to fit in, to show their creativity, or is it something else instead. This is what this study will attempt to uncover - the reasons why adolescents would choose a word that has not yet made its way into the official Macedonian dictionary, an English loanword, over its Macedonian equivalent.

It is important to consider the possible consequences of the overuse of anglicisms in a given language, in our case, Macedonian. Canadian linguist Kramer, for example, sees the influx of English loanwords into Macedonian as a threat to the language, likening them to either 'vitamins or viruses'. On one hand, loanwords may certainly enrich the target language, but, on the other hand, should they enter in an uncontrolled fashion, they may serve to dampen its authenticity. Bearing in mind our starting premise, that language is prone to change and open to different influences, it goes without saying that this is a normal occurrence; however, care needs to be taken that the loanwords that come into a language do not cause chaos in it and that a certain balance is established and maintained.

The use of anglicisms in a given language is nothing new; it is a topic that has been greatly studied and written about. The influx of English loanwords in Macedonian is a hot issue amongst the linguists of the country, not just now, but going back several decades. Bearing in mind that there is no native-English speakers community in Macedonia, we may note that the influence exerted by English on Macedonian comes indirectly from social media, the movie and music industry, as well as computers and technology, among others, and is not the result of any natural linguistic and/or social interactions, a predicate also asserted by Kirova and Petkovska (2013, 242). Our exposure to English is constant and consistent, yet it is mainly passive and one-sided.

The mass media in Macedonia may help to alleviate this to a certain extent in that they may directly 'speak' to the younger generation through various interactive shows, magazines, and advertisements, where they will use and 'promote' Macedonian words rather than English loanwords.

Koneski (1987, 71-78), for example, notes that Macedonian does not lean toward linguistic purism, citing the number of international words that have become a part of it. Yet, he also cautions on the importance of moderation in accepting words from other languages and making sure that those that do make their way into Macedonian are in accordance with its needs, paying special attention to the capacities of expression that Macedonian offers before accepting loanwords at the expense of a perfectly acceptable existing Macedonian equivalent.

Minova-Gjurkova (2003), another prominent Macedonian linguist, shares Koneski's view concerning moderation in accepting loanwords into Macedonian and notes the general recommendation of using Macedonian words instead of loanwords whenever possible, as well as coming up with Macedonian equivalents, in this way enriching the domestic vocabulary for a more natural way of communication and expression. As regards the changes taking place in standard, literary Macedonian, she places special emphasis on the lexical changes involved, as well as on the importance of language planning, concluding that Macedonian is adapting to the influences of English and is essentially becoming shaped by it (2008).

Macedonian linguist Venovska-Antevska (Jovanoski 2011), on the other hand, feels that there is no need for strict rules concerning loanwords, nor for their exclusion from the target language, noting that they should adapt and adjust to the forms of the existing lexemes and within the general framework of the Macedonian linguistic system. In any case, special care should be taken to ensure that the loanwords help in enriching the target language and do not 'corrupt' it.

Carrying out a study to determine the frequency of anglicisms in mass media, specifically in journalism, Chilean linguists concluded that it is a widespread phenomenon, and that readers attached such great significance to these loanwords that they went on to incorporate them in their own linguistic repertoire (Gerding, Fuentes, Gómez and Kotz 2014).

Rosenhouse and Kowner (2008) carried out a study on English loanwords in 12 different languages, concluding that the three most frequent reasons why they were 'borrowed' were: 1. the need for the introduction of new terminology and new concepts; 2. the tendency to emulate the dominant group; and 3. the tendency to create special jargon to be used amongst 'closed' groups. They also noted the different means of communication through which the English loanwords enter the language, such as direct communication, mass media, as well as the education system. As for the factors that allow for the acceptance of these loanwords into the language, they mentioned modernization and economic development, ethnic and linguistic diversity, prestige, nationalism, culturological threat, national identity and the existence of various language institutions and establishments. We shall return to these conclusions when we analyze the reasons provided by our respondents when justifying their use of anglicisms.

Direct borrowing of words is but one way a language can expand its lexicon with international vocabulary. Another way is when expressions are accepted into the target language by being more or less literally translated from the source language, also known as calques. Andersen (2020) notes that a significant segment of linguistic borrowing does not simply happen at the lexeme level, but rather on a more complex level in discourse, such as in longer phrases and expressions, idioms, and so on. Examples of this in Macedonian, noted by Smirnova (2016) as well, are the English expressions *black Friday* and *happy end(ing)*, where the former has been translated word-for-word as *црн петок*, whereas the latter, besides the word-for-word translation *среќен крај* - can also be found as *хепи енд*, that is, it is simply transcribed into the Cyrillic alphabet. There are numerous other examples that can testify to this phenomenon.

It is evident that a number of linguists are interested in further researching this occurrence, and the reasons and potential consequences of anglicisms entering their standard language. Furiassi, Pulcini and Gonzalez (2012), the editors of *Anglicization of European Lexis*, include a variety of studies concerning the impact of English on a lexical level on different languages, such as German, Norwegian, Serbian, and Armenian (Callies, Onysko and Ogiermann 2012, Graedler 2012, Andersen 2012, Prčić 2012, Galstyan 2012). In fact, these studies helped us to define the theoretical framework of our research, as well as to determine which approach to take in carrying it out in our attempt to uncover the reasons for the use of anglicisms by adolescents in North Macedonia, and the impact of this on Macedonian.

In addition, other studies were consulted concerning the impact of English at the lexeme and phrase level on various other European languages, such as Danish, French, Spanish, Polish, and Italian (Gottlieb 2012, Solano 2012, Oncins-Martínez 2012, Fiedler 2012, Rozumko 2012, Gaudio 2012, Fusari 2012), which contributed to the development of our research and provided us with potential future directions this study could take.

Golakov (2011) notes that the English loanwords that have made their way into Macedonian have resulted in a number of changes in its lexis, as well as in Macedonian culture, in general. He also notes that there are changes in terms of music-related words, which is an area we incorporated in our research to determine if this is true among the Macedonian adolescents.

Zdanavičiūtė (2017), on the other hand, notes that a significant part of the English loanwords that have made their way into French are from the field of technology. We feel that the situation in Macedonian is similar, and as such, we also decided to incorporate the category of technology in our research, combining it with video games, to see whether our conclusions will align.

Methodology

The following section provides more details concerning how the study was carried out, our starting research question and hypotheses, the methods and techniques applied, as well as information concerning the survey that the respondents were asked to fill out.

The survey was conducted online as it was carried out during a period of Covid-imposed restrictions, when physical contact was limited. This may undoubtedly have had an impact on the results, and these issues are looked at in greater detail in the Discussion section where the research limitations are discussed. However, one advantage we may mention in regards to conducting the survey online is that it facilitated our access to respondents and it allowed us to reach a greater number than if the survey had been carried out in-person. In that context, we may here note that we received 156 responses, which were analyzed in our research.

The survey was sent across primary and secondary schools across the whole territory of the country. The target group was adolescents who study English as a foreign language in school as a core subject, starting from the age of 9-10 until the end of their secondary education, which is at the age of 18-19. The main criterion was that the respondents have had contact with the English language since the categories of anglicisms were chosen to reflect their everyday life and to test vocabulary that may not necessarily be a part of the school curriculum, such as the categories technology/video games and social media. Since the respondents' proficiency and grammatical competence were not the focus of our study, the criterion of additional exposure to English through private classes, English clubs, or the like was not applied.

Though the World Health Organization sub-classifies adolescence into three categories - early, middle and late adolescence, we decided to put all the respondents together, from 13 to 19 years of age, to get a general insight into the issue. Thus, everyone received the same survey, with the same instructions, which, we hoped, would allow us to see, among other things, whether the difference in age plays a role in terms of the speakers' use of anglicisms in their everyday communication.

Besides the question concerning their age, the survey also contained a question concerning the respondents' gender, as well as where they were from, which was intended to help us determine whether the gender and/or region played a role in terms of the general frequency of use of anglicisms, or even more specifically, in terms of the categories the anglicisms belonged to. Our aim was to see what similarities and differences would surface, and what, if any, conclusions we would reach since some factors which affect language and influence language variation are age, gender, and culture, among others.

In the actual creation of the survey we followed the principles set by Dörnyei and Taguchi (2010), although we did make various adjustments and modifications to the said principles due to the fact that our survey was disseminated via Google Forms, and not in hard copy.

We followed their 'guidelines' in terms of the length and duration of the survey - they note that a survey should not exceed four to six pages, and the time spent on it should not exceed more than 30 minutes (Dörnyei and Taguchi 2010, 12-13), and our survey, though longer than four pages, still falls within the acceptable limit set by the authors. In addition, the duration of our survey is also within what is deemed acceptable as our estimated time to complete it is approximately 20 minutes.

We also followed the principles in terms of the actual construction of questions, including both open-ended and closed-ended ones, making sure that they are worded in a similar fashion, that they are of similar length, and so on. Concerning the type of questions used, open- and closed-ended, we analyzed the possible advantages and drawbacks, as well as the various factors that play a role in their use, in that open-ended questions offer the respondents the freedom to formulate their own answers, which may then open up new perspectives and shed light on new ways of dealing with the issue, whereas the

closed-ended questions are better at standardizing the answers (Dimitrov, Mitreva and Serafimova 2017).

The survey itself consisted of 30 pairs of anglicisms and their Macedonian equivalents, and the respondents needed to choose which of the two options they would use in their everyday communication. The words were set in a sentence so as to provide a more authentic discourse context as opposed to simply having them as pairs of words standing on their own. In addition, each pair of sentences, one containing an anglicism and the other its corresponding Macedonian equivalent, asked the respondents to explain their choice, either by choosing one of the options provided or by providing their own explanation. Among the options provided were the following: it sounds more natural; I hear/use it more often; this is how my friends talk, and so on. The words that were selected came from different categories, such as music, sport, video games, social life, i.e. areas close to the interests of adolescents.

As to the results analysis techniques, once the survey was completed by the respondents, the results were coded and analyzed. The coding of the results allowed us to retain the respondents' anonymity, and the analysis offered us a percentile look in terms of the use of anglicisms by the adolescents, categorized by city/town, as well as the most frequently offered reasons for its use. Thus, we had a more concrete answer concerning our research question, as well as confirmation, or dismissal, of our hypotheses.

The analyses of the results are both qualitative and quantitative, helping us to achieve our aim to gain greater insight into the use of English loanwords in the everyday communication of adolescents in North Macedonia, to see how common they are in various areas of life, as well as the reasons behind their use.

Concerning our research questions and hypotheses, the starting question of our research was *Why are anglicisms used by adolescents in North Macedonia?* The hypotheses we set out from were that anglicisms are used instead of Macedonian words as a result of the speakers' constant exposure to English, whether from social media, movies, books, series, video games, and so on, as well as due to the notable absence of Macedonian words from the said areas. Another possible reason that may play a role is the speakers' insufficient knowledge and mastery of their mother tongue, creating the belief that they can express themselves better and more clearly in English, since Macedonian, as they see it, does not contain the words they need. Lastly, we may also note the adolescents' need to fit in with their peers, leading to the affect behind the use of anglicisms, and eventually determining potential benefits or consequences, positive or negative, imposed by it. We shall see the answers to our research question and our hypotheses in the section that follows.

Results and discussion

From the results received, we may note that the respondents tend to choose the sentence with the anglicism as opposed to the sentence containing a Macedonian equivalent, with the most common explanation, among 52% of the respondents, being that they have either heard it more often or used it more often. They also mention that the sentence containing the anglicism would be how their friends talk (15%), as well as because it sounds more natural to them (over 30%). It is interesting to mention that in 11 cases they explain their choice of the sentence containing an anglicism as they do not understand the other sentence, that is, the sentence with the Macedonian equivalent.

By looking at these results, we see that the surrounding environment and the increasing presence of English in every sphere of life do affect adolescents' language use, up to the point that certain anglicisms do not sound foreign to them at all. It is also noticeable that peers or friend groups, in particular, affect language use and word choice among adolescents, undoubtedly due to their need to fit in and be accepted, something that is of great importance in this stage of their life.

Due to the quantity of analyzed results, only several examples with particular importance will be discussed in this section. Out of the 30 pairs of sentences, eight pairs stood out due to the fact that the

number of respondents' choices leaned heavily toward one sentence - either the sentence with the anglicism or with the Macedonian equivalent.

When the four pairs of sentences, where the sentence containing the Macedonian equivalent was predominantly chosen, are taken into consideration, it becomes clear that the respondents do not accept all anglicisms without selection. Based on their answers, it is evident that they do not accept certain anglicisms if they perceive a slight difference in meaning when contrasted with the Macedonian equivalent, or if the sentence does not sound natural to them.

On the other hand, some anglicisms have become so accepted that they feel more natural to the respondents than the Macedonian equivalent. This can be seen from the four pairs of sentences where the predominant choice was the sentence, which contained the anglicism. Though some of the respondents chose the particular sentence because that is how their friends talk, the majority of them stated that the reason for their choice is that the sentence sounds more natural to them. These examples illustrate that the respondents feel very comfortable with certain anglicisms, not even registering them as foreign.

From the analysis of the results, we may establish that our adolescents prefer to use a sentence containing an anglicism even when they have the option to convey the same meaning with a Macedonian equivalent. The most notable difference can be seen in the technology/video games category, where out of ten examples; the adolescents opt for an anglicism in seven. The popularity of anglicisms is quite significant in this category and that can be seen from the respondents' answers in the pairs of sentences where the choice of an anglicism prevails, especially in one case, with the word *level*, where 79.5% of the adolescents opt for the anglicism option over its Macedonian equivalent.

Thus, *level* (n.) is simply transcribed by the respondents as *левел* and it is used instead of the Macedonian equivalent *ниво*, as contrasted in the survey in the pair of sentences *Кoj ти е најтежок левел на Супер Марио?* and *Кое ти е најтешко ниво на Супер Марио?*, translated as *Which level in Super Mario is the most difficult for you?*

In terms of parts of speech, it seems that anglicism verbs are favored over their Macedonian counterparts. In this category in particular, from the five verbs provided, the respondents predominantly chose the anglicisms *mute*, *ban*, *game* and *report*, modified and adjusted to the Macedonian grammatical rules as *мјутни се*, *банира*, *гејмаме* and *рипортна*, respectively, instead of their respective Macedonian equivalents *исклучи го микрофонот*, *ми забрани да играм*, *играме видеоигри* and *пријави*.

The verb *mute*, for example, appeared in the pair of sentences *Исклучи го микрофонот, многу врева има* and *Мјутни се, многу врева има*, which can be translated as *Turn off your microphone, there is a lot of noise* and *Mute yourself, there is a lot of noise respectively*; while the verb *game* appeared in the sentences *Ќе гејмаме по часови?* and *Ќе играме видеоигри по часови?*, which can be translated as *Are we going to play videogames after class?*

Considering the answers received in terms of the reasons regarding their choice, it becomes clear that adolescents are heavily influenced by English, opting for anglicisms because they are more familiar to them and they hear them more often than their Macedonian counterparts. The reason for this may be that English is more dominant due to its global omnipresence in all areas of life, and, as such, it would be impossible for it to be excluded from any scientific, economic or political spheres (Gjurkova 2002).

Consequently, it is evident that the usage of anglicisms among adolescents can be expected and accepted to a certain extent since modern society strives to shape language in order to meet the needs of modern-day life, and adolescents need to be well-equipped to acquire (scientific) knowledge and develop certain criteria which will affect their relationship with the world surrounding them (Aleksova 1993). However, some moderation is, nevertheless, required regarding the usage of anglicisms, especially when a comprehensive, all-encompassing equivalent already exists in the mother tongue.

Our research also contained an open-ended question asking the respondents to note the effect they felt the use of anglicisms had on Macedonian, with a follow-up question asking them to elaborate on their answer. Almost 35% of the survey participants felt that the usage of anglicisms had a positive effect on Macedonian, with some elaborating that anglicisms made it easier to express oneself, as well as that using them improved the actual expression by making it sound better, more interesting, or even more polite. In addition, some ascribed the positive effect to the fact that they felt the anglicisms helped to enrich Macedonian, as there were cases where Macedonian lacked a suitable equivalent.

When we analyze the reasons provided by our respondents, we see that they align with the conclusions reached by Rosenhouse and Kowner regarding the reasons for English loanwords in a given language - the respondents mention that they use anglicisms because no such words exist in Macedonian, or because their friend group uses them. Those respondents who stated that the use of anglicisms has a negative effect on Macedonian believe that this will, over time, lead us to forget Macedonian words, thus putting our language in jeopardy of eventually dying out. Some even go as far as to state that as a result of the constant use of anglicisms they have already forgotten some Macedonian words, and they feel that a foreign language, in this case, English, has been given precedence over the mother tongue, which is wrong.

We may close this section by summarizing the conclusion we reached as regards our research question and hypotheses. As noted previously, our research question was *Why are anglicisms used by adolescents in North Macedonia?* From the results received, we can ascertain that the main reason for this is the respondents' constant exposure to them, making them sound more natural than their Macedonian equivalents. In addition, they noted that this is how their friends speak, as well as that the English loanwords are shorter, and, as such, easier to utter.

Thus, our hypotheses were confirmed - anglicisms are used instead of their Macedonian counterparts due to the speakers' constant exposure to the English language, whether from social media, movies, books, series, video games, and so on, as well as due to the notable lack of Macedonian words from the said areas. In fact, the respondents themselves admit that their preference to use anglicisms is the result of modernization and technological advances, which have caused changes in how they speak, and, in particular, in their choice of lexis. As such, it is easier for them to express themselves and to understand each other by using these loanwords rather than their Macedonian equivalents. In addition, the need to fit in with peers is evident and understandable; if they are surrounded by friends who use anglicisms, it goes without saying that they, too, will use anglicisms.

In terms of potential implications, it is obvious that our, sometimes, blind acceptance of anglicisms into Macedonian without considering the long-term consequences may eventually result in neglecting and rendering obsolete certain words with Slavic roots and origins (Smailovikj 2017). This is supported by the fact that some of the respondents noted this very phenomenon - that they tend to use anglicisms due to the fact that they have forgotten their Macedonian equivalents as a result of their infrequent use.

Bearing in mind that the best way to safeguard the culture of a nation is to protect its language (Kasapovska 2008), it is of vital importance to think about the consequences that this constant use of anglicisms is bound to have on the Macedonian language, and, as such, on the Macedonian culture. Language policy and effective language planning are crucial in protecting a country's national identity, as this is what the survival of a language depends on (Nikolovska 2012, 2020). Taking this into account, it would be wise to devise and implement stricter measures aimed at protecting the Macedonian language and its use in the country, and in this way maintain it, and the Macedonian culture, in the long run.

Certain pedagogical implications emerge from the research conducted, and a number of conclusions may be reached from the results. Having been made aware of the fact that adolescents tend to use anglicisms instead of their Macedonian equivalents, as well as having noted their reasons for doing so, we may suggest that one way to deal with this would be to have teachers raise awareness of this tendency, as well as of the consequences that will inevitably follow. This may be eventually followed up

by taking the time to come up with suitable Macedonian equivalents, which will allow the students to see that there are options available to them and that they just need to take a moment to think of the word they need.

Finally, addressing the limitations of the study and the various potential directions for further research, we are aware that like all research, this study, too, has its own set of limitations and areas that may be improved on. One such limitation here is the fact that the study was carried out in written format and not done orally, which may pose an issue in terms of the authenticity and spontaneity that speech offers. By asking the respondents to write out their responses, they had the chance to think about the options, and reflect on them in greater detail, while in speech, they would answer reflexively.

In addition, since the survey was carried out online, the respondents may not have taken it very seriously, since they did it under no (adult) supervision. This might have made some of them feel a bit too free in answering the questions, which was reflected in the sometimes silly responses received.

The survey was conducted in standard Macedonian, which may also be seen as an issue, in that it may have inadvertently directed some of the respondents to use a more formal register and, as such, to use a Macedonian equivalent instead of an anglicism, which they would use, in all probability, in everyday speech. This limitation ties in what was mentioned previously, concerning authenticity and spontaneity.

Bearing these points above, it would be beneficial for future research to be carried out using an interview format as well, so as to retain the authenticity and spontaneity factors that only speech can offer. Furthermore, there might be more detailed research carried out concerning various grammatical, phonological, transcription, and other changes that anglicisms undergo when they enter Macedonian. However, as this was a preliminary, small-scale study, we are certain that these points will be addressed in due time.

Conclusion

Our survey looks at the use of anglicisms in the everyday speech of adolescents in North Macedonia, as well as the reasons for this phenomenon. As noted earlier, the term 'anglicism' refers to a word, or any other form or construction, borrowed from English into another language, in our case, into Macedonian, and we included only those words that had still not officially entered the digital Macedonian dictionary. Our respondents were adolescents in the 13 to 19 years of age group, the age group where the influence of English is the most evident.

Our research consisted of an online survey consisting of both open-ended and closed-ended questions, upon the analysis of which we were able to reach certain conclusions. Our research question was answered in that we confirmed that the reason why the respondents used anglicisms instead of the Macedonian equivalents was due to the fact that they were more frequently heard, as noted in one of our hypotheses.

The results received from the survey are significant in determining the future steps and measures that need to be taken so as to protect and further develop and expand the use of Macedonian. Effective language planning is essential in securing the future of Macedonian, as "the lexicon of the standard language should be enriched with words from different dialects throughout the country, new words should be created through the use of various derivational processes, and words should be borrowed from other languages only on an as-needed basis" (Koneski 1982, 56-57).

We may conclude that though change in language is natural and normal, the influence that English exerts over Macedonian may justifiably be a cause of concern. For this reason it is of vital importance that the mother tongue is preserved as much as possible, as the great influx of foreign words, especially English ones, may inevitably result in a reduction and even a loss of its expressive potential. However, linguistic purism can only go so far, and the complete rejection of any foreign words is a narrow-minded and conservative approach, especially in this time of globalization.

References

- Aleksova, G. (1993). Za primenata na lingvostilistichkiot metod vo nastavata po makedonski jazik, *Prv nauchen sobir na mladi makedonisti*. 9–14.
- Andersen, G. (2012). *Semi-automatic approaches to Anglicism detection in Norwegian corpus data*. In C. Furiassi, V. Pulcini, F. Rodríguez González (Eds) *The Anglicization of European Lexis* (pp. 111-130). Amsterdam/Philadelphia: John Benjamins.
- Andersen, G. (2020). Three cases of phraseological borrowing: A comparative study of as if, Oh wait and the ever construction in the Scandinavian languages, *Ampersand*, 7, 100062, <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.amper.2020.100062>.
- Callies, M., Onysko, A., Ogiemann, E. (2012). *Investigating gender variation of English loanwords in German*. In C. Furiassi, V. Pulcini and F. Rodríguez González (Eds) *The Anglicization of European Lexis* (pp. 65-89). Amsterdam/Philadelphia: John Benjamins.
- Dimitrov, N., Mitreva, E., Serafimova, M. (2017). *Metodologija na nauchnoistrazhuvachka rabota (nauka i praktika)*. Shtip.
- Dörnyei, Z., Taguchi, T. (2010). *Questionnaires in Second Language Research: Construction, Administration, and Processing* (Second ed.). Routledge.
- Fiedler, S. (2012). *Der Elefant im Raum...: The influence of English on German phraseology*. In C. Furiassi, V. Pulcini, F. Rodríguez González (Eds) *The Anglicization of European Lexis* (pp. 239-259). Amsterdam/Philadelphia: John Benjamins.
- Furiassi, C., Pulcini, V., González, R. F. (2012). *The Anglicization of European Lexis (Not in series)*. John Benjamins Publishing Company.
- Fusari, S. (2012). *Anglicisms in the discourse of Alitalia's bailout in the Italian press*. In C. Furiassi, V. Pulcini F. Rodríguez González (Eds) *The Anglicization of European Lexis* (pp. 325-342). Amsterdam/Philadelphia: John Benjamins.
- Galstyan, A. (2012). *Anglicisms in Armenian: Processes of adaptation*. In C. Furiassi, V. Pulcini, F. Rodríguez González (Eds) *The Anglicization of European Lexis* (pp. 149-166). Amsterdam/Philadelphia: John Benjamins.
- Gaudio, P. (2012). *Incorporation degrees of selected economics-related Anglicisms in Italian*. In C. Furiassi, V. Pulcini, F. Rodríguez González (Eds) *The Anglicization of European Lexis* (pp. 305-324). Amsterdam/Philadelphia: John Benjamins.
- Gerding, C., Fuentes, M., Gómez, L., Kotz, G. (2014). Anglicisms: An active word-formation mechanism in Spanish, *Colombian Applied Linguistics Journal*, 16(1). 40-54.
- Golakov, K. (2011). Globalizirani Sloveni – problemi i perspektivi, so primeri od makedonskiot jazik. Zbornik na nauchni trudovi, *Vtora megjunarodna nauchna konferencija „Kulturen dijalog: Istok – Zapad (Kultura, Slavjanstvo i Ekonomija)*, 2.
- Gottlieb, H. (2012). *Phraseology in flux: Danish Anglicisms beneath the surface*. In C. Furiassi, V. Pulcini, F. Rodríguez González (Eds) *The Anglicization of European Lexis* (pp. 169-198). Amsterdam/ Philadelphia: John Benjamins.
- Graedler, A. L. (2012). *The collection of Anglicisms: Methodological issues in connection with impact studies in Norway*. In C. Furiassi, V. Pulcini, F. Rodríguez González (Eds) *The Anglicization of European Lexis* (pp. 91-109). Amsterdam/Philadelphia: John Benjamins.
- Gruevska-Madzoska, S. (1997). Jazikot na biznismenite. *Tret nauchen sobir na mladi makedonisti*.
- Gjurkova, A. (2002). Prestizhot i jazicite, *Makedonski sociolingvistichki i filoloshki temi*. Sovet za makedonski jazik na RMakedonija, Skopje, 109–117.

- Jovanoski, M. (2011, May 7). *Makedonskiot jazik bez sovremeni leksemi?!*. Deutsche Welle. <https://p.dw.com/p/118o1>. Accessed on 19 February 2023.
- Kasapovska, B (2008). Pomodarstvo, trend ili potreba, *Shesti nauchen sobir na mladi makedonisti*. 41–50.
- Kirova, S., and Petkovska, B. (2013). Anglicizmite kako direktni zaemki vo makedonskiot jazik. *Nauka i globalizacija*, 8(1), Pale, Istochno Sarajevo, Republika Srpska. DOI 10.7251/NSFF1408241K
- Koneski, B. (1982). *Gramatika na makedonskiot literaturni jazik*. Kultura Skopje.
- Koneski, B. (1986). *Istorija na makedonskiot jazik*. Kultura Skopje.
- Minova-Gjurkova, L. (2003). *Stilistika na sovremeniot makedonski jazik*. Skopje: Magor.
- Nestoroska, B. (2018). *Idiot i moron se najkoristenii anglizmi vo „bombite“, pokazha istrazhuvaneto na kanadskata lingvistka Kramer*. Sakam Da Kazham. <https://sdk.mk/index.php/kultura/idiot-moron-se-najkoristenii-anglizmi-vo-bombite-pokazha-istrazhuvaneto-na-kanadskata-lingvistka-kramer/>. Accessed on 19 February 2023.
- Nikolovska, V. (2012). *Kultura na izrazuvanje*. Skopje: Ministerstvo za kultura na Republika Makedonija.
- Nikolovska, V. (2020). Jazik i jazici (sociolingvistički aspekti na postoenje na jazikot/apologija na postoenje na eden jazik). *Pogledi za makedonskiot jazik, Zbornik na trudovi*. Institut za makedonski jazik „Krstev Misirkov“, Skopje. 425–435.
- Oncins-Martínez, J. L. (2012). *Newly-coined Anglicisms in contemporary Spanish: A corpus-based approach*. In C. Furiassi, V. Pulcini, F. Rodríguez González (Eds) *The Anglicization of European Lexis* (pp. 217-238). Amsterdam/Philadelphia: John Benjamins.
- Prčić, T. (2012). *Lexicographic description of recent Anglicisms in Serbian: The project and its results*. In C. Furiassi, V. Pulcini, F. Rodríguez González (Eds) *The Anglicization of European Lexis* (pp. 131-148). Amsterdam/ Philadelphia: John Benjamins.
- Rosenhouse, J., Kowner, R. (2008). *Globally speaking: motives for adopting English vocabulary in other languages*. Clevedon, UK, Multilingual Matters.
- Rozumko, A. (2012). *English influence on Polish proverbial language*. In C. Furiassi, V. Pulcini, F. Rodríguez González (Eds) *The Anglicization of European Lexis* (pp. 261-277). Amsterdam/ Philadelphia: John Benjamins.
- Smailovikj, H. (2017, December 17). *Jazichen purizam i jazichna „dembelaana“*, Net Media Grup DOOEL Skopje. <https://lokalno.mk/jazichen-purizam-i-jazichnadembelaana/>. Accessed on 19 February 2023.
- Smirnova, M. (2016). Čto novogo v makedonskoj frazeologiji (k voprosu ob angloamerikanizmah v sovremennom makedonskom jazyke). *Zborot zbor otvara, Zbornik na trudovi*. Univerzitet „Sv. Kiril i Metodij“ – Skopje, Filološki fakultet „Blazhe Koneski“. 289–294.
- Solano, R. M. (2012). *Multi-word loan translations and semantic borrowings from English in French journalistic discourse*. In C. Furiassi, V. Pulcini, F. Rodríguez González (Eds) *The Anglicization of European Lexis* (pp. 199-215). Amsterdam/Philadelphia: John Benjamins.
- Veleva, S. (1997). Neki karakteristiki na imenkite shto oznachuvaa lica. *Tret nauchen sobir na mladi makedonisti*. 41–48.
- Zdanavičiūtė, A. (2017). *New Anglicisms in the French Language Related to the Internet Usage* (Bachelor Thesis). Vilnius University, Institute of Languages.

**Emotions in language learning and use - 6th International pedagogical and linguistic conference,
Ulm University, Germany**

ISSN 2657-9774; <https://doi.org/10.36534/erlj.2023.01.07>

Helena Liwo

Ateneum Academy in Gdańsk, Poland; helenaliwo@gmail.com

The significance of language and speech in human functioning is enormous. The human society developed speech as a means of communication and, consequently, the relationships based on language. Language also determines a person's social situation, providing an opportunity to take on specific and professional roles. In this case, it serves as a foundation or necessary tool to enter the social network and occupy a specific position within it.

On the other hand, language is an attribute of individual human activity. It plays a crucial role in the creation of human subjectivity. Constructing a subject means giving meaning and internalizing linguistic concepts, as well as discovering one's own personal relationship to these concepts. The subject's experiences in these relationships become a path to self-identification and, consequently, to the acquisition of one's identity (Liwo 2012, 195).

Given the importance of language for human condition the ways of mastering implementing it become an intriguing issue. Does language therefore appear in the human mind imperceptibly as "gifted tool" (Grabias 1994), enabling the understanding of the world and communication within it? Or are there mechanisms of its acquisition and functioning that have been the subject of research for years? Linguistic skills are perceived on one hand as specific competencies achieved based on innate human abilities, emphasized by nativist theories. On the other hand, they are the result of human brain activity, emphasized by neurobiological positions (Grabias 2019). Contemporary trends in research on child language development highlight the importance of mental, motor and sensory activity in this process, reflecting the cognitive position (Porayski-Pomsta 2019, 78-79).

Acquiring and implementing the language is possible thanks to the interaction of multiple biological, psychological and social processes. The biological processes refer to the efficient functioning of the hearing organ, the central nervous system and the musculoskeletal system, responsible for auditory perception of speech, the learning process of language, and its implementation at the respiratory-articulatory level. On the other hand, psychological and social processes involve the activation of language and communication competences synonymous with the ability to master the language system and construct utterances based on grammatical norm, as well as their use in the communication process, considering relevant social, situational and pragmatic rules (Grabias 1994, 190-195). Therefore speech is a function of multiple functions (Tłokiński 1986), which highlights its complex and synergistic profile and emphasizes the importance of each element in effectively mastering and communicating through language.

One of the factors shaping and representing language are emotions. Their significance can be observed already in the early stages of speech development. Preverbal behaviours that emerge in infants are consists of non-verbal emotional content, which the child expresses through various melodic vocalizations, accompanied by non-verbal elements such as facial expressions, gestures, eye contact and touch. During this process, the child imitates the adult environment, which communicates with the infant through emotion „exaggerations”, carried out with contrasting intonation, pace and voice

intensity, excessive emphasis, or elongation of certain sounds, creating a distinct prosodic layer of speech for the child. The emotional factor is also reflected in the diminutives and short forms created by adults, as exemplified by diminutive verbs (Milewski 2011, 30-33). However, it is prosody that constitutes the most emotionally expressive factor of speech. It enables the recognition and communication of emotions, as evidenced by changes in the acoustic characteristics of the voice (Śmiecińska 2020, 316-317). This emotional dimension of prosody is noticeable in the linguistic course of human life.

Expressing and understanding emotions can also be examined from a linguistic, psychological and cultural perspective. The first one refers to the encoding of emotions in the language of a particular community, resulting in specific emotional dictionaries. The psychological aspect relates to an individual's learning of emotions while the cultural aspect emphasizes the importance of cross-cultural differences in the conceptualization of emotions (Stępień-Nycz 2019).

The reflections presented above only outline the extensive area of emotions in human language functioning. This perspective became the main theme of the 6th International Pedagogical and Linguistic Conference (ERL VI), which took place on June 13-14, 2023, at the Institute of Psychology and Education, Ulm University in Germany. Several dozen people from Europe, Asia and the United States participated in the conference. Distinguished specialists, conducting research on various aspects of language learning and use, were invited to give lecture.

Prof. Judith Kroll from the University of California addressed the topic of bilingualism and its significance for a child's cognitive development. As the researcher demonstrated, bilingualism is also a factor that supports optimal cognitive-linguistic condition and prevents neurodegenerative diseases in adults. Prof. Reinhard Perkonig, representing the University of Essex, Australian Catholic University, and the University of Munich, discussed the influence of emotions, particularly anxiety, on the learning process and academic achievements. The importance of emotional content in language learning, directing attention and memory during word processing, was presented by Prof. Johanna Kissler from Bielefeld University. The process of acquiring concrete and abstract concepts by the human brain was presented by Prof. Markus Kiefler from Ulm University.

In addition to the invited lectures, presentations were given by the other participants of the conference. They addressed, among other things, the role of emotions in language learning. Krystanka Bozhinova from the American University in Bulgaria discussed the issue of migrants' attitudes towards acquiring the language of the country they have immigrated to. It can be perceived through both negative emotions (a „hostile” language) or positive emotions (a „friendly” language), which has an impact on its acquisition.

An extremely current topic was addressed in the presentation by Prof. Cornelia Herberich from Ulm University. It focused on the relationship between mental health and verbal self-disclosure in the context of teaching and higher education. The motivation to conduct research on this issue was the increasing prevalence of remote education and communication since the Covid-19 pandemic.

The emotional dimension of a language can also be observed in the realm of language propaganda. In this case, as emphasized by Małgorzata Pilecka from the Ateneum Academy in Gdańsk, the use of thought stereotypes based on the emotional dimension of social roles and tasks in children's literature builds the desired civic and national identity.

An interesting aspect concerning the correlation between emotions and language in poetic texts has been addressed by Korean researchers (Hyelin Lee, Miji Song and Jeonghee Ko). „Reading” poetry requires references to an emotional vocabulary that enables an understanding of its subtle and metaphorical content. Developing this area in young children can be a key to their satisfying interaction with poetry. Poetry can also serve as a foundation for environmental education, as emotionally saturated words depicting the beauty of nature foster pro-environmental attitudes. This relevant issue has been presented through examples of classic Korean poetry by Ensun Jeong, Sujin Lee and Min-kjy-Kang from Seoul National University. Emotions also play a role in motivating children to learn to read, as

emphasized in the presentation by Nektarios Stellakis (University of Patras, Greece). The experience of joy in shared reading and discussing the content, supported by an adult's emotional way of narrating, enhances a child's interest in independent reading.

Both invited lectures and presentations given by conference participants were accompanied by discussions related to the topics discussed. The issues presented during the conference revealed not only the emotional aspect of learning and using a language, but also emphasized the multidimensionality of this subject. The interdisciplinary nature of a language is clearly evident in its sphere. To fully understand it, the knowledge of the biomedical mechanisms of its formation and functioning, linguistic and educational methods of its acquisition, as well as individual and social language behaviour are necessary. Importantly, the emotional phenomenon of a language remains an undiscovered field.

References

- Grabias S. (1994). Language in teaching the deaf. Principles of programming a communication system. In S. Grabias (Ed.), *Deafness and language* (pp. 190-195). Lublin: UMCS Pub.
- Grabias S. (2019). Language in the process of interaction. Biological and social determinants of language behavior. In M. Kielar-Turska and S. Milewski (Eds.), *Language in the course of life* (pp. 60-99). Gdańsk: Harmonia Universalis Pub.
- Liwo H. (2012). (Non)hearing as a new subject of surdologopedy. In E. Kantowicz and A. Leszczyńska-Rejchert (Eds.), *Stereotypes and old age and disability* (pp. 193-213). Toruń: „Akapit” Pub.
- Milewski S. (2011). *Adult speech directed at infants. A phonostatical-phonotactic study*. Gdańsk: Harmonia Universalis Pub.
- Porayski-Pomsta J. (2019). Child speech as a subject of psycholinguistic and sociolinguistic research. In M. Kielar-Turska and S. Milewski (Eds.), *Language in the course of life* (pp. 100-138). Gdańsk: Harmonia Universalis Pub.
- Stępień-Nycz M. (2019). Emotions in language. Communicating and interpreting emotions expressed in the course of life. In M. Kielar-Turska and S. Milewski (Eds.), *Language in the course of life* (pp. 449-467). Gdańsk: Harmonia Universalis Pub.
- Śmiecińska J. (2020). Development of prosodic competence in children. In M. Wysocka, B. Kamińska and S. Milewski (Eds.), *Prosody. Aquisition research, disorders, therapy* (pp. 306-331). Gdańsk: Harmonia Universalis Pub.
- Tłokiński W. (1986). *Speech. Overview of problems for psychologists and education*. Warsaw: PWN Pub.

The impact of language socialization in the context of family, education, and sojourn on emotional, psychological, and identity responses to language learning

ISSN 2657-9774; <https://doi.org/10.36534/erlj.2023.01.08>

Adrienn Fekete
University of Pécs; fekete.adrienn@pte.hu

Abstract

The paper examines the impact of language socialization in the context of family, education, and sojourn on multilingual learners' emotional, psychological, and identity responses to language learning and use. Since language and culture are interwoven in second language acquisition (SLA) (Kramsch, 1998), learners respond to language learning and use on the levels of language and culture, shaping learners' linguistic, cultural, and social identities on the individual and on the collective levels alike. This classroom research is a qualitative case study involving four cohorts of learners in a multicultural classroom: 1) students having learned English only in the formal context of education, 2) learners having grown up in a multicultural and multilingual environment speaking several languages including English, 3) a learner raised bilingually by a non-native second language (L2)-speaking parent, and 4) a multilingual learner learning languages in formal contexts but also experiencing sojourn. Data were collected via a linguistic autobiography (an unstructured essay) written by the fourteen participants. The findings point out that negative experiences associated with unfavorable teaching methods, discriminative educational practices, or bullying lead to negative emotional, psychological, and identity responses to learning. Learners experience 'language socialization shock' when a sudden change occurs in their language socialization processes – irrespective of whether the change is positive or negative. In an effort to attain positive experiences and self-fulfillment via language learning and use, learners rid themselves of the old socialization context haunted by negative experiences by moving on to a new socialization context or by learning a different foreign language through which they can 'start over'. The findings also point out some of the long-term psychological and social effects of raising bilingual children by non-native L2-speaking parents and the impact of multilingual and multicultural socialization contexts on learners' linguistic and life choices that transform their lives.

Keywords: *language ecology, language socialization, identity, emotions, bilingualism, multilingualism, multicultural classrooms, psychological well-being, language learning, sojourn, classroom research*

Introduction

The impact of socialization plays a vital role in learners' and teachers' emotional and identity responses to language learning. Being exposed to a new language (L2) and a new culture (C2) (embedded in the L2), learners develop new linguistic and cultural identities. Moreover, through interactions with peers, teachers, and the broader community of L2 speakers, learners develop a sense of (not) belonging to a novel community, which shapes their social identities as well. These interactions provide learners with opportunities to negotiate their various identities and navigate the subtleties of social dynamics. Identity, therefore, is constructed and co-constructed in social interactions with others (De Fina and

Georgakopoulou 2012), making identity construction a subjectivity in-process (Kramsch 2009) and a process never completed (Hall 1996). Identity construction in the process of second language acquisition (SLA) is accompanied by various emotional responses, pointing out the embodied nature of SLA (Damasio 1994, Fekete 2020a). Positive linguistic, cultural, and social experiences associated with SLA can enhance learners' motivation and thus facilitate their participation in learning and their investment in their identities, possibly leading to higher attainment (Dewaele 2013, Norton 2001). By contrast, negative experiences related to language learning are likely to generate negative emotional responses to L2 learning.

However, life is more complex than that. In the 21st century, English speakers are using English as lingua franca (ELF) and as an intercultural language (Fekete 2022) to communicate, share information, release feelings, and negotiate identities. The present research was conducted in a multilingual and multicultural classroom where the students came from five different countries and from diverse academic backgrounds, spoke different languages, and belonged to multiple cultures and communities. The only thing they had in common was their English knowledge enabling them to participate in an English instruction university program in a non-English speaking country. Therefore, intercultural communication was a key feature of the classroom discourse. As the teacher of the course, I expected different responses to classroom inputs and stimuli due to the diverse backgrounds of the learners. To make learning more meaningful, engaging, and effective, I decided to map students' past language socialization experiences that may be responsible for their diverse responses and behaviors in the classroom; therefore, it was beyond my research goal to conduct an ethnographic study scrutinizing classroom interactions and social relations.

Most studies on language socialization examine socialization processes in immigrant settings (see for example, Cho 2016, Lynch 2023, von Essen 2023), in study-abroad contexts (see for example, Isabelli-García 2017, Isabelli-García et al. 2018, Jackson, Sin Yu, Sun 2019, Szentpáli Ujlaki 2008) and only a few examine classrooms as a site for second language (L2) socialization (see for example, Dragoescu Urlica 2019, Dumalo 2020, Nagao 2014, Ortaçtepe 2015). However, these studies do not focus on how past (formal and informal) learning experiences can shape learners' present responses to language learning and use. For this reason, the study's ecological perspective fills this research gap by pointing out connections and cause-and-effect relationships between past, present, and possible future processes. More specifically, the paper reveals how the research participants' different L1 and L2 socialization as well as changes in their micro-and macro-environment led to different emotional and identity responses to the various languages they speak and to the various cultures they belong to, justifying the applicability of the language ecological perspective in the study.

Literature review

Socialization and enculturation

Socialization is a process through which young individuals and novices become accepted members of a community as they learn the rules of accepted (and expected) social behavior and cultural practices. In the process of socialization new members of a given community are expected to learn and follow "appropriate forms of sociality and competence" as well as "familiar and novel ways of thinking, feeling and acting with others across the life span" (Ochs and Schieffelin 2017, 1). Language socialization is crucial in the socialization process of novices in which "routine indexical associations between verbal forms and socio-cultural practices, relationships, institutions, emotions, and thought-worlds" are deduced (p. 1). Language socialization, therefore, takes place in homes, schools, workplaces, religious institutions, sports, media use, as well as in cultural, artistic, medical, legal, political, and professional practices (Ochs and Schieffelin 2012, 2). In the same vein, language learning constructs and shapes the individual's personal and collective identity stemming from versatile socialization processes (Ochs and Schieffelin 2017, 6).

Similarly, individuals become cultural beings in the process of enculturation, which shapes how people think and act similarly in each culture (Sussman 2002). The micro- and the macro-environment of the individual including, for instance, family, friends, education, the workplace, media, and spare time engagements, teach individuals to follow the ways of behavior, thinking, and speaking that other people in each community and in each country follow. These learned perspectives settle on people like invisible glasses, acting upon how they perceive and make sense of the natural and human phenomena surrounding them. Enculturation becomes complete before one comes of age. The cultural perspectives learned in the process construct and shape the person's identity. These cultural processes along with the emotional and identity responses associated with them remain invisible to the individual unless they encounter a new culture or a new language in which new cultural perspectives are inherently embedded. By consciously or unconsciously comparing the two cultures in the process of foreign language (FL) learning, individuals become aware of their L1 culture and identity. Since language is a fundamental medium of socialization and enculturation, language and culture are intertwined in language learning (Kramsch 1998), including the L1 and any other additional languages. Therefore, learning an L2 shapes and constructs learners' linguistic, cultural, and social identities, since with the new language comes a new consciousness as well (Lacan 1977). In the paper, I use the terms socialization and enculturation interchangeably, as they refer to the processes and experiences encountered by novices in a new real or imagined community.

Language ecology

More recently, the ecological perspective has gained momentum in various academic fields including psychology, anthropology, and L1 socialization. Consequently, SLA has also been linked to and studied from the perspective of language socialization, linguistic anthropology, and then language ecology (Ochs and Schieffelin 2017, 2-9). The ecological perspective; therefore, has become a bridge to link SLA to language socialization (Kramsch 2002, Kramsch and Steffensen 2017, 3). The major tenets of language ecology provide a holistic look at learners and their learning environments proposing that the language, the learner/speaker of the language, and the environment cannot be separated from one another, nor can they be examined in isolation. Instead, they should be scrutinized as a dynamic and interacting relationship (Kramsch 2002, Kramsch and Steffensen 2017). Language and language use, therefore, are perceived as naturally emerging from interactions between individuals and the individual and their environments. Thus, language learning has a mediating function in education and in society between different cultures (Kramsch and Steffensen 2017, 1).

Ecological linguists seek to learn about how natural and social processes act upon linguistic patterns and how these patterns, in turn, affect natural and social phenomena. Educators and linguists taking on an ecological stance take a keen interest in how adolescent and adult L2 learners socialized in their L1 culture perceive second language socialization (SLS). The ecological view of SLA is dynamic, temporal, and is characterized by changes. It is also a multiscalar approach considering not only the individuals learning/speaking the language but also the educational, social, and historical context in which they learn and utilize their languages. Regarding the learner's biographical timescale, the learner being taught the L2 is also the former child having been socialized in the L1 and the future adult wishing to use his/her languages in multiple ways (Steffensen and Kramsch 2017, 5-6). The study draws on the language ecological perspective, as it examines language learners and their language learning experiences in their complexity and entirety, shedding light on their linguistic, cultural, and emotional responses to languages over time and in response to environmental stimuli.

Identity and emotions in SLA

Identity construction is crucial for the individual in perceiving themselves as unique and distinct from other individuals as well as in recognizing similarities between themselves and others (Rummens 2003).

Language plays a key role in the individual's social, cultural, and linguistic identity construction. Therefore, learning an L2 shapes the individual's cultural, social, professional, and linguistic identity construction in versatile ways. Consequently, identity is constructed and reconstructed in interactions, and in the practical and material processes of identification (Jenkins 2008, 201). Identity is inherently linked to both the micro- and the macro-context of the individual; thus, it emerges and is produced and shaped in and via social interactions; therefore, identity is understood as social behavior characteristic of an individual or a group (De Fina and Georgakopoulou 2012, 156-159). Finally, identity now is perceived as a perpetually changing, diverse, heterogeneous, and often fragmented, incomplete, or contradictory entity (Hall 1996, Kramsch 2009, Norton 2013).

The post-structuralist view of L2 learning perceives successful learning as a transformative and highly emotional experience (Fekete 2020b, Kramsch 2009). Success in SLA is, thus, understood as how meaningfully language learning is lived by learners and how it shapes and transforms their lives. This points out the embodied nature of language learning involving learners' brain, mind, and body (Damasio 1994, Fekete 2020b, Kramsch 2009).

Language learners invest in their identities by learning and using a new language, which points out their desire for self-fulfillment via languages (Kramsch 2009). Some learners cherish the linguistic, emotional, and psychological transformation offered by the new language and the social/cultural perspectives embedded in it. Learners desiring to fulfill themselves via language seize the transformative potential of the new language to become a 'different' person in the L2 and consequently dispose of the linguistic and cultural constraints implanted in their L1 and L1 culture. Fekete (2020b) coined the term the *language learner's imagined L2 habitus* to point out how some learners speak, think, and act differently in the L2 compared to how they would do so in their L1. However, other learners may reject the transformative potential of the L2 and choose to draw on the familiar meaning-making processes of their native language and culture. These learners find that their linguistic, social, or cultural identities are endangered by the transformative potential of the new language and the social and cultural perspectives that come with it. This only pinpoints the magnitude of the threat imposed by the transformative potential of SLA on the integrity of the learner's identity (Kramsch, 2009).

Fekete (2018) has pointed out that more meaningful and transformative experiences associated with SLA are linked to intrinsic and integrative motivation, pointing out a connection between motivation and emotions. She (2020b) has also found that learners' powerful emotions include desire, freedom, and pain experienced in the process of English language learning and socialization. These emotional responses are in line with the findings of other studies (Kramsch 2019, Ótrott 2022) confirming the recurring nature of these emotions.

Language socialization and language learning/teaching

Language socialization is an integral part of socialization. In SLA, the L2 socialization of one language learner differs from that of other learners or native speakers. Hence, L2 learners' identity construction drawing on L1 linguistic, emotional/psychological, social, and cultural experiences is not a clean slate; thus, their past experiences as former children acting upon their social, cultural, and linguistic identity are to be borne in mind when teaching them the new language which is intertwined with L2 cultural, social, historical, and ideological dimensions.

In the past, the examination of how English speakers with different linguistic and socio-cultural backgrounds who have been exposed to diverse (language) socialization and enculturation processes make meaning in English language exchanges was an under-researched field in English applied linguistics. In this globalized world, English language interactions occurring between native English speakers and non-native English speakers or between non-native English speakers shed light on the versatile backgrounds of English speakers. Moreover, the interlocutors' past experiences, future goals, desires, dreams, and anxieties also affect these interactions and consequently act upon their moment-by-

moment identity construction. This impacts their language learning processes and, oftentimes, their decisions shaping their present and future lives via language. Therefore, it is not surprising that research exploring language learners' emotional and identity responses to SLA has gained momentum in the past twenty years (Fekete 2016, 2020a, 2020b, 2022, Kramsch 2009, Norton 2013, Pavlenko 2003, Pavlenko and Blackledge 2004).

More recently, Horváthová (2022) explored young learners' cognitive, emotional, and social responses to learning English via picture books. Chaparro (2020) looked at the interactional dynamics of a multilingual and multicultural kindergarten classroom with learners of versatile backgrounds using ethnographic discourse analysis. Regarding university students, Dumlao (2020) explored how English teacher trainees at a Thai university negotiated competence and identity in oral academic activities with many students developing identities characterized by struggle, resistance, and inactivity. Nagao (2014) pointed out the paramount role that active participation plays in the socialization of a Japanese student at an Australian university. Fekete (2020b) examined Hungarian English majors' linguistic and cultural identity responses to language learning from a language ecological perspective. This approach pointed out how learners' various past L1 and L2 socialization processes led to very different identity responses pointing out some special cases. These differences could only be explained by the holistic look afforded by the ecological perspective that takes into consideration learner's various timescales including their past experiences shaping their present and future identities, emotions, goals, and aspirations. In the field of teaching English for specific purposes (ESP), Dragoescu Urlica (2019) proposed an eco-linguistic approach to communication in natural/health sciences. Later, the author and her colleagues proposed an eco-holistic perspective for developing English learners' communicative competence in the field of life/natural sciences (Dragoescu Urlica et al. 2022b) as well as an ecosemiotic perspective in communicative language teaching and learning (Dragoescu Urlica et al. 2022a).

Regarding teachers' identities shaped by different socialization contexts, Uştuk (2021) examined how teachers socialized in conflicting educational cultures experienced and handled identity conflicts. Similarly, Ortaçtepe (2015) explored how two Turkish teachers reconstructed their linguacultural identities after moving to the U.S.A. Fekete (2021) pinpointed how a drastic change in the educational context due to the COVID-19 pandemic affected teachers' identities. Despite the fact that the participating teachers came from various countries, the sudden shift from (traditional) offline education to online education fundamentally changed teachers' self-perception and thus their identity construction that was characterized by success and self-fulfillment in offline education and by struggle, anxiety, and a sense of loss in online education. In the same vein, the online environment impacted learners' psychological and identity responses negatively resulting in a general tendency characterized by enhanced anxiety and decreased intrinsic motivation and willingness to communicate levels (Fekete, in press). These recently published papers indicate the growing academic interest in the various applications of the ecological perspective in the broader field of education.

Raising bilingual children by non-native L2-speaking parents

This section is a good example of how emerging themes inform the literature review in qualitative case study research. I have sometimes heard anecdotes from friends and colleagues about children raised bilingual by non-native English and German-speaking parents in Hungary. English and German have been the most important foreign languages since the 1990s; therefore, it is not surprising that highly proficient, non-native English and German-speaking parents toy with the idea of raising bilingual children in a monolingual environment by either or both of them speaking to the children in the L2 in an effort to facilitate their children's L2 acquisition in a way that an L1 is acquired and thus preventing critical period hypothesis to kick in in L2 learning. This raises not only linguistic issues such as perpetuating non-native pronunciation and fossilized mistakes (Lozano-Martínez 2019) but also psychological matters between parents and children that can have a long-term effect on the children's

language learning trajectory and on the parent-child relationship. Upon hearing these stories, I was always intrigued by how such linguistic decisions become family matters shaping social relations within the family. In one anecdotal case, which was supposed to be the basis of a Ph.D. dissertation but was never completed and submitted, the data collected pointed out how the child was manipulating the Hungarian mother, who was only speaking to the child in English, to get what she wanted when showing willingness to speak in English with her. Therefore, English use by the child became an effective tool to manipulate the mother who as an insider did not detect the problem. The mother-researcher was only pointed out this issue by another researcher (an outsider), as her insider (and emotional/intimate) perspectives as a mother hampered her objective judgment as a researcher. Thus, when this topic was raised by Tamara in her linguistic autobiography, I decided to learn more about what empirical research findings say about raising bilingual children by non-native L2-speaking parents.

Bowlby (1985) (cited in Lozano-Martínez 2019) proposed that the kind of attachment that is established between the primary caregiver (e.g., parent) and the child may determine the psychological and mental health of the child and the caregiver pointing out the long-term implications of family dynamics. In a fully quantitative study conducted by Lozano-Martínez (2019) with 735 Spanish families out of whom 45.7% used at the time of the research or had at some point used English in the family for some time, the statistical analyses indicated that such mental health concerns were not perceived as a problem by over half of them. The challenges, however, addressed in the research included expressing emotions in English, insufficient vocabulary, sounding non-native-like (i.e., not sounding natural when using English), fluency issues, social isolation in the L1 speaking environment, and sustaining the use of English consistently over the years. The results indicated that these challenges were more saliently raised by families of lower English proficiency levels. Therefore, the higher English proficiency levels the parents reported, the less they worried about such linguistic and social issues. However, the study being quantitative did not explicate why and how parents and children were or were not concerned about mental health or linguistic issues. Also, the results of the study should be interpreted with caution, as no information was provided on participant selection criteria, and it was not explained what parents meant by using or having used English (and for how long) in the family. Although the discussion of the results is often lacking in the study, it does point out important aspects to consider in this research area and the results can be construed as a tentative starting point to compare findings with.

A thesis written by an Italian university student (di Laurea 2015) pointed out that only 15% of the children involved in a questionnaire study examining raising bilingual children by non-native L2-speaking parents preferred speaking in the L2 while 85% favored using the mother tongue, Italian. This finding is in line with the above anecdote I heard as well as with Tamara's case in the research, pointing out 1) children's unwillingness to speak the L2 with their non-native L2-speaking parent in a monolingual environment and possibly their feeling of social exclusion/alienation in the L1-speaking, monolingual environment.

Most studies that I found on the topic addressed bilingualism by parents speaking two different native tongues and there is very little empirical research on raising bilingual children by non-native L2-speaking parents. The one by Lozano-Martínez (2019) outlines some insights but fails to provide the details of family dynamics, attitudes, and emotions. Therefore, the present study sheds light on some important aspects of raising children by non-native L2-speaking speaker parents. However, general conclusions cannot be drawn from a single case; rather, it stresses the L2 gains and benefits experienced by the child but it also stands as a cautionary tale about the potential psychological and educational drawbacks such a decision may entail and its possible consequences for the future.

Background to research

Research context

The research was carried out at a Hungarian university, offering two different programs to English majors: a five-year MA program in English teacher education and a BA + MA program in English Studies (3+2 years) in compliance with the Bologna education system. In the English teacher education program, the language of instruction is English, but all participants are Hungarian because the program is only recognized within Hungary. The students have a high proficiency level in English but do not have the opportunity in the classroom to interact with international students using English as a lingua franca. Such communication for them is limited to their leisure activities. On the other hand, the BA and MA programs are available to both Hungarian and international students, allowing authentic ELF use in the classroom. International students can be full-time students living in Hungary or visiting students spending only one semester in Hungary on scholarship. The courses in the BA/MA programs for visiting students are elective, while they are mandatory for full-time students. The *Intercultural Communication* course taught by the author is compulsory for full-time BA students and elective for visiting students.

The two different educational systems contribute to different language socialization processes in the two cohorts at the university; moreover, students' diverse backgrounds also result in very different language socialization processes. In the past, I oftentimes observed that despite the linguacultural diversity of the students attending this BA course, Hungarian and international students tended to stick to their own cultural groups and did not seek out interactions with other students. Nevertheless, during the research period, this tendency gradually changed resulting in more and more intercultural communication between students of diverse linguacultural origins.

Research questions

The paper answers one complex research question:

How do the participants' past language socialization experiences shape their emotional, psychological, and identity responses to language learning and use?

Participants

The study involved fourteen students who attended the course called *Intercultural Communication*. The students came from various countries, including Hungary, Indonesia, Ukraine, Spain, and Bosnia-Herzegovina. Approximately half of the students were international (N6), while the other half were Hungarian students (N8). The cultural microcosm of the classroom included five different countries. The gender distribution in the class was balanced, with eight female and six male students. The age range of the participants was between 21 to 25. All Hungarian students and one international student were enrolled in the full-time BA program in English Studies, three international students were enrolled in the same program in their home country, and two international students majored in a different subject at their home university. Save one full-time student, all international students took the course as an elective.

Regarding languages, all participants had learned English in formal settings achieving a C1 proficiency level in the language by the time of the research. However, their language socialization showed great differences as indicated in Table 1.

Table 1. Languages learned by students

Languages learned by students	Number of students
English	14
German	7
Bahasa Indonesia, Korean	2
French, Russian, Swedish, Galician, Italian, Serbian, Polish, Latin, Sundanese, Karonese, Japanese	1

International students grew up in multicultural and multilingual environments, learning both the local/ethnic language and the country's official language. In contrast, Hungarian students grew up in monolingual Hungarian families, exposed only to the Hungarian language and culture. While international students formed an international community and communicated using ELF, Hungarian students mainly interacted with Hungarian speakers and used English as a foreign language (EFL). However, during the semester, both cohorts were encouraged to engage in intercultural communication with students from various linguacultural backgrounds using ELF.

In addition to the two distinct cohorts of Hungarian and international students with different language socialization processes, two special cases must be mentioned. Tamara was born into a Hungarian family, but her father, having lived in Germany and having attained a native-like proficiency in the language, decided to talk with Tamara and her younger brother in German while the children talked in Hungarian with the rest of the family and the outside world. This had a crucial impact on the psychology of the children and on their language socialization in the family and in the educational context as well. Sarah had learned English and German as an FL in a formal school context in Hungary, but unlike other Hungarian students, she experienced a sojourn while working as an au-pair in Sweden. The experience was transformative for her. She learned Swedish and had a Swedish boyfriend while staying in the host country, and upon returning to Hungary, she took up learning Russian and decided to complete a minor in Russian as part of her BA in English Studies Program.

Research instruments and procedures

The study does not follow the ethnographic tradition usually drawn on by research into (language) socialization, as it was a classroom research project aiming to learn more about students' past experiences and thus enabling the researcher-teacher to better tailor the course to their needs. To achieve this goal, students were invited to write their linguistic autobiography discussing their linguacultural journey in life and their emotional responses to learning and speaking all the languages they had ever learned including their mother tongue. In addition to collecting data for this research, the task facilitated the participants' introspection and self-understanding, which was a reported benefit of the task and a novel approach that the students had not encountered before (personal and email communication with students). The task was described to them in speaking in class and in writing using a Microsoft Teams group that could only be accessed by the students and the teacher. To facilitate their participation in the task, they were awarded course points for their work which was calculated in their final grade. They submitted their unstructured essay via email. Students' names were only used to administer course points. For research purposes, pseudonyms are used to protect their identities.

Research methods and data analysis

Although not embedded in ethnographic research, the present classroom research project follows the qualitative research tradition which aims to provide an in-depth understanding of phenomena by focusing on subjective meanings, subtle details, and individual differences (Dörnyei 2007, Griffee 2012). This classroom project is also action research where the teacher and researcher are the same person, and this type of research is conducted with the dual purpose of improving teaching practice and publishing the findings (Nunan and Bailey 2009). The research instrument used in the study collected textual data, which were then analyzed using qualitative content analysis. Data analysis following Saldana's coding manual (2013) was an iterative process that informed the literature review of the study, as the researcher could not predict prior to the research what topics students might address in their linguistic autobiographies. Data analysis started with reading the unstructured essays followed by highlighting relevant information that was coded as follows.

1. Facts about languages including languages learned (see Table 1), the onset of learning, proficiency level achieved, and language exams passed.
2. Facts about the context of learning and/or using languages such as in school, at home, or in a different country (e.g., during a holiday, sojourn, or study abroad).
3. Information about interlocutors, for instance, with whom these languages were used.
4. Important life events that impacted learners' life including language learning and use.
5. Emotional and psychological responses to the above facts and events such as happiness, frustration, anxiety, guilt, low or high self-confidence or motivation, and so on.
6. Identity responses to all the above topics, especially first- and second-type of desire, and language learning as a transformative and life-changing experience.

In the last coding cycle, the hierarchy of themes was established to answer the research question about the participants' emotional, psychological, and identity responses, which resulted in three main themes including struggle, pain, and desire associated with different languages in three socialization contexts: family, school, and sojourn. The sojourn experience of the international students was disregarded as the long-term, future impact of their sojourn in Hungary on students' life could not be examined at the time of the research (i.e., during the sojourn). The analysis pointed out (1) how similar emotional and identity responses were caused by very different socialization contexts and processes and (2) the long-term impact of past experiences with languages and interlocutors.

Due to the low number of students, generalizations could not be made, but two groups with distinctly different socialization processes were detected including Hungarian and international students. Although all students had learned English as a foreign language in formal contexts, the linguistic and motivational profiles of the students belonging to the two cohorts were entirely different. While Hungarian students only learned the required number of foreign languages in school contexts and were socialized in monolingual Hungarian-speaking families, international students were socialized in ethnically diverse, multilingual communities in which they became bilingual or multilingual in addition to learning foreign languages later in school. Furthermore, international students (and one Hungarian student, Sarah) were all exposed to the linguacultural stimuli of at least one sojourn. How the different socialization processes of these two cohorts acted upon students' linguistic (see Table 1) and motivational profiles are discussed in a different study (Fekete forthcoming). In the present paper, the socialization processes and contexts of two special cases along with two recurring patterns detected in the research are presented in an effort to (1) point out the paramount role that context plays in language learning and use and (2) reveal how past experiences can have a major impact on language learners' linguistic and life choices that transform their lives.

Discussion of results

The emerging themes in the datasets center around the participants' identity construction shedding light on their linguistic and cultural identities both on the individual and on the collective level. Themes that emerged in the linguistic autobiographies but were related to topics beyond the foci of this paper are not discussed herein. Students' various identities were characterized by three main themes including (1) failure, (2) struggle, and (3) success/self-fulfillment. German as a foreign language was unanimously associated with failure and struggle, while English was mostly linked to success and self-fulfillment – sometimes preceded by phases of struggle. Struggle was associated with limited proficiency levels and unfavorable teaching practices negatively affecting the psychology of the learners.

Struggle associated with learning English

But now here comes the not-so-fun part. In high school, I had to learn the fundamentals of grammar [of English]. I was pretty much stressed because the academy I went to for years didn't really stress much about grammar. (Sue from Indonesia)

I was tested whether I had memorized the vocabulary at home or not and received a bad grade if I took a grammatical mistake or misspelled a word. Language learning started to look like other classes I was generally tired of, such as Math, which made me dislike English. ... [Later in high school] I can recall feeling incredibly anxious to make a grammatical mistake not only in front of the native speakers but the English teacher too. In that period of my language-learning journey, I started to connect the English language with the anxiety of performing well, of not making any grammatical errors. (Sarah from Hungary)

[The English teacher] never used indirect speech acts or applied principles of politeness in her sentences, she just gave commands and made us learn and translate seemingly useless texts at home. (Joe from Hungary)

The statements above pinpoint how L2 socialization based on unfavorable teaching practices in the context of formal education led to negative emotions, stress, low linguistic confidence, and negative attitudes towards (learning) English, ultimately causing once intrinsically motivated learners to shift towards extrinsic motivation in the process of SLA. Negative emotions in this instance are associated with learner-inappropriate teaching methods and techniques that also generate psychological conditions (e.g., anxiety, frustration, or low linguistic confidence and motivation) inconducive to successful learning. However, despite these initial hardships, these students did not give up learning English but continued their studies at university majoring in English Studies and finally became successful learners of the language.

Struggle linked to learning German

Although Tamara was a successful German learner, language learning was a major source of struggle for her. As a child, she did not enjoy having to speak in German with her father who had decided to raise his children only speaking in German to them while everyone else was speaking in Hungarian around her. Later in elementary school, being the best student in the German class made her a target of bullying. In the English class, she struggled for a while because of one teacher's unfavorable/ discriminative attitude towards her but enjoyed learning English outside school, and finally, she was placed in an advanced English group where she enjoyed learning again with a teacher she looked up to. Since her German learning was a family affair, her German use was always shaped by family dynamics and family events.

From the moment I was born my mom talked to me in Hungarian and my dad in German. I have to be honest, I did not always enjoy the situation. Though I never had any real problems with being bilingual, I did refuse to answer in German to my dad (most of the time) because I was naïve and stubborn as a child. It did not bother him that much, the point was that I was able to speak German whenever I felt like it and I understood everything I had to. ... It was very difficult for me to enjoy German classes since I already knew everything... So, she [the teacher] gave us a simple task, which was to write a sentence in German, containing the vocabulary we were learning at the time. When everyone was ready, it was time to read out loud a couple of them and I was asked to read mine as well. I did, and after I finished, my teacher sighed. Then she proceeded to scold me in front of the whole group for "using a sentence structure we will be learning next year". I was really surprised and honestly, it made me feel guilty and bad. I am being one hundred percent honest when I say I did not want to brag or show off how good I am in German. ... Most of the time I was teased for being "a nerd" when it comes to languages, so I would rather stay quiet unless I was asked. ... I haven't spoken any German in years. I am kind of ashamed of this and haven't really talked about it to anyone, but my German got really rusty in the past three years. My dad passed away in 2019,

a couple of days after I phoned him to tell him I got into university. Ever since that I have been actually avoiding German and I sort of refuse to use it at all. ... I hope to have children in the future, and I most definitely want them to be bilingual, just like me and my little brother. Unfortunately, I doubt I will be able to use German like my dad did, but I think English will work perfectly as well. (Tamara from Hungary)

Tamara's problems associated with SLA were not linguistic but rather linked to her German language socialization in the family and then in education. Therefore, environmental factors including family interactions and later classroom dynamics had a huge impact on Tamara's refusal to use German. Tamara's unwillingness to speak in German with her father resonates with the findings of di Laurea (2015); however, without a follow-up interview, the reasons for these children's and Tamara's reluctance to use the L2 remain unexplained. I think the issue of social isolation or alienation may be at play, as these children may perceive it as unnatural that their native L1-speaking parent refuses to speak in the L1 with them while showing a willingness to talk in the L1 with other people. This might make them feel special generating pride, or it might make them feel embarrassed, different, or alienated resulting in an unwillingness to speak in the L2. These linguistic and social dynamics within the family may impact the child's relationship with the other parent with whom the mother tongue may be freely used, possibly generating different bonding levels with the two parents. However, such ratiocination remains only hypothetical without empirical evidence.

The educational context in Hungary is often unprepared to receive students like Tamara who are much more proficient in the L2 than their peers – especially at lower levels such as in kindergarten and in elementary school. When these children are placed in the same language class as beginner L2 learners, formal education often becomes a source of demotivation for them. Also, being the best student may make the learner the teacher's pet, which, in turn, might make the student a target of bullying by peers. Sometimes "too smart" students, like Tamara was in that particular German class, may also be disliked by teachers. Such an awkward classroom atmosphere can make the learner demotivated and anxious, resulting in mentally giving up learning or participating in classes (Bailey, 1983) like Tamara did in language classes after a while. Therefore, parents should be made aware not only of the linguistic benefits of raising bilingual children but also of the potential challenges that the child may face in a regular school that cannot offer more advanced language classes to the child to maintain their L2 learning motivation and thus enhance their investment in learning, leading to higher attainment, positive emotional and identity responses, and ultimately a successful educational experience.

The negative emotional responses associated with German use in the family, especially after the father's passing, coupled with demotivating and stress-producing classroom dynamics in German classes drove Tamara away from German and motivated her to embrace English – a new language offering her a new identity not haunted by old, negative experiences. Tamara ended up majoring in English Studies and not using German at all either in her personal or in her academic/professional life. Instead, she embraced the transformative potential of learning English and the new identity the new language offered to her. She also chose a profession related to English by enrolling in a post-graduate Hungarian-English translation program as well as an MA program in English Studies at the same time at university. Therefore, the English language and the favorable emotional, psychological, and identity responses associated with it transformed her professional, personal, and social life and generated such favorable linguacultural, professional, and social identities in her that the German language could never have done. Despite the psychological and social hardships that she encountered, Tamara viewed her bilingual upbringing as a model to follow as a future parent raising bilingual, English and Hungarian-speaking, children. The findings pinpoint that past experiences associated with language socialization in the family and in education have long-term consequences for the individual, shaping their present life choices and future goals and thus transforming their lives.

Struggle and desire associated with English

In addition to being a source of struggle, SLA was also a source of success and self-fulfillment for the participants. Since language and culture are interwoven in SLA (Kramsch 1998), students can experience both linguistic and cultural self-fulfillment in and via a new language. Speaking ELF and becoming multicultural via English was a transformative experience for Sarah.

I was tested whether I had memorized the vocabulary at home or not and received a bad grade if I took a grammatical mistake or misspelled a word. Language learning started to look like other classes I was generally tired of, such as Math, which made me dislike English. ... [Later in high school] I can recall feeling incredibly anxious to make a grammatical mistake not only in front of the native speakers but the English teacher too. In that period of my language-learning journey, I started to connect the English language with the anxiety of performing well, of not making any grammatical errors. ... I moved to Sweden to become an au pair. ... not only the level of my English proficiency started to enhance significantly, as I could only use English to express myself, but I also started to 'think in English'. ... Influenced by the culture and the people I had spent time with, this other self was imbued with ideas of feminism, the importance of community, and positivity. What is more, while in Hungary I used to remain in my comfort zone by preferring to communicate with the circle of my friends and family, in the foreign environment by encountering people from various ethnicities and countries with diverse ideas and beliefs, I noticed that I was acting like an extrovert when I used English. (Sarah from Hungary)

Sarah's English language socialization was a typical Hungarian experience. She had learned English in formal settings and associated English learning with anxiety due to the dominant teaching method of the time being grammar-translation. Language examinations and thus teaching practices prioritized grammatical appropriateness and accuracy over communication and linguistic confidence. This idea permeated classroom activities and therefore often generated anxiety (and sometimes perfectionism and competitiveness too (Fekete, 2018) in learners. Thus, leaving behind the Hungarian environment and entering a new socialization context in Sweden that focused on successful communication and novel ideas including linguacultural diversity and intercultural communication were transformative and highly emotional experiences for Sarah. The sojourn decreased her English use anxiety and enhanced her linguistic confidence and self-efficacy. Moreover, it boosted her international posture, acquainted her with intercultural communication, and allowed her to get to know the world from different perspectives. This experience made her sensitive to issues that were more salient in other cultures than in her L1 culture. Therefore, it was not surprising that both her Hungarian culture poster and culture presentation (which were course requirements) in class addressed issues of feminism, social justice, and other social issues, as these ideas had shaped her linguistic, social, and cultural identity. The following testimony points out how these different identity types are intertwined in using different languages.

I was struggling to identify myself with either the Hungarian or the English self: I could neither entirely associate myself with my former Hungarian self, constrained both linguistically and culturally, nor assimilate with the people of a country that were also constrained by their worldview. My English self was different from the Swedish people because it adopted ideas and beliefs from various cultures. At that time, I also managed to learn Swedish on an elementary level and dated a Swedish boy, thus I was constantly struggling to identify myself. I was not satisfied with my Hungarian self nor my English (or multilingual) self and desired to be identified with the Swedish people. (Sarah)

Sarah's testimony provides evidence for a conflicted self that is struggling to find its place in the once-familiar world triggering identity responses in her. Returning home, she experienced repatriation shock and a subtractive identity response (Sussman, 2002) pointing out that "some repatriates feel as though they no longer fit into their home country" and "the once-familiar ways of behaving appear strange and cherished values seem unimportant, irrelevant or negative" (p. 6). These individuals usually find it difficult to relate to other people in their community, as they recognize in what ways they have become different from other members of their community due to the sojourn. She also experienced an additive identity response by coming home with "a secret about something that other Hungarians, people who are monolinguals, cannot comprehend" (Sarah). This may be a frustrating experience when the people around her cannot relate to her new mindset/self. By allowing these ideas to become integrated into her identities, Sarah embraced the transformative potential of SLA associated with the first type of desire.

Pain via code-switching

Code-switching by the participants was influenced by social and cultural phenomena beyond linguistics. It indexes their identification with certain languages and cultures, and it gives their lives and identities a sense of continuity and history. It also pinpoints the "fluid" nature of identity constantly shaped by the context in which the person uses the language. It also shows that various types and levels of identity such as individual, social, cultural, and national identity are in constant dialogue with one another, shaping people's thoughts, emotions, actions, and language use.

Code-switching may be driven by unconscious processes like in the case of Tamara where the intimacy of home was cherished and disrupted by the code-switching dynamics initiated by the father. Since code-switching was not her choice, it resulted in Tamara's unwillingness to respond to her father in German. It also made her isolated (by being different) in the public domain (e.g., in the playground or in school) compared to other Hungarian children who were only exposed to Hungarian at home. This also made her an outsider in the context of education due to her high proficiency level that her peers did not have and her teachers did not always appreciate.

Desire and self-fulfillment via code-switching

Code-switching may be a consciously adopted activity – a choice – when the new language is learned as a foreign language. Since identity construction signals how one is similar to other people as well as how one is different from others, code-switching may be seen as a new mode of self-expression and a new means of self-fulfillment via two languages. In this case, code-switching is used in a way to give maximum linguistic and cultural freedom to the speakers while allowing them to get rid of the linguistic and cultural constraints embedded in the two languages.

Me and my friends in Jakarta, the place where I'm from, we mixed our own mother tongue language, which is Bahasa Indonesia, with English. So, a lot of times, when we're talking with each other, a sentence can be more or less like this: "*ya tapi* I just don't feel like doing that. *Kayak buat apa nggak sih? Right?*" Which can be translated into "but I just don't feel like doing that. For what? Right?". We talked like this every day (even up until now I still do this; I can even say up to 80% of the kids who live in Jakarta, especially kids from the southern area do this mixing language thing religiously but it's clear that there's no usage of grammar whatsoever, so most of us don't really understand much about grammar. (Sue from Indonesia)

I always thought that it is hard to learn a new language, but after I learnt the Korean language, I found that there are languages that are easy to learn and comprehend. It took me 2 days to learn the alphabet and it blows my mind how easy it is to learn this language. Then my parents took us to visit Seoul, the capital city of South Korea. I got the chance to use a little bit of this language when buying souvenirs, street food, etc. It made me excited

when I saw their expression when I spoke Korean. Though my Korean was not that good, they were appreciative of it. From then on, I like to use Korean phrases in my daily conversation. For example, I rather use “싫어” (read: shireo) than use “gak mau” (Indonesian language) or “I don’t want to” (English) because it’s easier and simpler. (Amelia from Indonesia)

The testimonies of the two Indonesian students confirm the post-structural understanding of successful language learning that is not measured in terms of proficiency levels but in terms of how transformative SLA is for learners (Kramsch, 2009). For Sue and Amelia, learning English and Korean, respectively, was a transformative experience despite their limited proficiency level compared to their native language. Indonesian is used in complex and sophisticated ways depending on the context and the interlocutor; therefore, using English without considering grammatical appropriacy and politeness makes communication easier and less limiting. Switching between English and Indonesian may involve a “coolness” factor signaling to other Indonesians that these speakers are unique, and unlike non-English speaking Indonesians they are acquainted with Western ideas and thoughts embedded in a globalized Western language.

The feeling of ease and freedom for Amelia was experienced via Korean, particularly because the ease of learning it made language learning a successful and liberating experience. Moreover, a sense of uniqueness for Amelia comes from knowing and using a language that is 1) a smaller, non-lingua franca language, 2) a language that is considered difficult to learn – but it was easy for her, and 3) a language that she could use successfully despite her limited proficiency level. To experience self-fulfillment via language and a sense of uniqueness, she chose a language that is not spoken proficiently by as many people as English in Indonesia. Both students exhibited the first type of desire pointing out in what ways these learners embraced the transformative potential of SLA.

Conclusions and pedagogical implications

The findings of the paper confirmed that negative language learning experiences lead to negative psychological, emotional, and identity responses while positive experiences trigger positive responses. These experiences are part of learners’ L2 socialization processes. For most students, the fundamental socialization context is education where they learn the L2 in a formal and public domain. In the context of language classes, unfavorably teaching methods, discriminative teaching practices, and bullying are usually responsible for learners’ negative emotional, psychological, and identity responses, often leading to demotivation or giving up learning either mentally (attending classes but not participating in them actively) or physically (giving up learning altogether).

In addition, sharp changes in teaching methods, classroom techniques, and evaluation/exam practices - occurring usually when students change schools, or a new teacher arrives) – mean a sudden change in the familiar L2 socialization process. This may be experienced as ‘language socialization shock’ triggering distress in learners. If the change is too sudden, students may experience debilitating anxiety and may not be able to adapt to the changed context as expected. Learners’ feeling of lagging behind, and their inability to perform well or to meet expectations can result in learners’ motivation shifting from the intrinsic to the extrinsic end on the motivational scale.

However, language socialization shock can also be a positive experience allowing learners to rid themselves of the negative experiences associated with the old socialization context and embrace the positive experiences, emotions, and identities offered by the new socialization context. Sarah underwent this positive change when she moved to Sweden from Hungary but experienced repatriation shock when she returned to her homeland as a changed person with new, often conflicting identities. Tamara also found refuge in a new socialization context; however, she had to leave the world of German behind and start over in the realm of English. In her case, moving on to the educational context from the private

domain of the family did not provide her with solace. She found self-fulfillment, transformation, and thus success in the world of English.

Although the linguistic benefits and gains of raising bilingual children by non-native L2-speaking parents are undeniable, parents should be aware of how this form of child-rearing may have a long-term impact on the children's and on the parents' psychological and emotional responses, their bonding mechanisms, and the family dynamics altogether. Social alienation/isolation seems to be an issue if the child is raised bilingual in a monolingual L1-speaking environment where apart from the child and their parent(s), the rest of the world speaks in the L1. Related to this, the child's (un)willingness to speak in the L2 should be examined more thoroughly to find out what psychological and social processes drive her linguistic and social behavior. Furthermore, educators and teachers should be made aware of the special linguistic background of such bilingual children to sustain the continuity of their linguistic progress (and motivation) in school.

To conclude, learners' past L2 socialization experiences have an immense impact on their current language learning motivation, emotions, identities, attitudes, and their ultimate learning attainment, which then shapes their life choices and their future and thus transforms their lives. By understanding learners' L2 socialization experiences, teachers can better help learners experiencing language socialization shock by resorting to more favorable teaching practices and thus generating classroom dynamics conducive to learning.

Limitations and future directions

The study is limited in many ways. Being a qualitative case study, general conclusions cannot be drawn from the findings. The main goal of the research was to provide information to the researcher-teacher on the versatile language socialization processes and experiences of her students to better adjust the course to their needs and to enhance their motivation via introspection and self-reflection; therefore, the research is not an ethnographic study but a classroom research project. Data come from a single source, which does not allow the triangulation of the results; thus, as a future direction, making follow-up interviews with students and possibly with their family members would enrich the data and provide more details on issues that are left unexplained in this research. Finally, to arrive at generalizable findings, more participants with similar experiences (based on pre-determined selection criteria) should be involved in a quantitative or mixed methods study.

Acknowledgments

I am grateful to the participating students for sharing with me their innermost feelings, thoughts, and ideas associated with their linguistic and life journey. Without their cooperation, this research would not have been possible.

References

- Bailey, K. M. (1983). Competitiveness and anxiety in adult second language learning: Looking at and through the diary studies. In H. Seliger & M. H. Long (Eds.), *Classroom oriented research in second language acquisition* (pp. 67-103). Newbury House.
- Chaparro, S. E. (2020): Martín and the pink crayon: Peer language socialization in a kindergarten bilingual classroom. *International Journal of Bilingual Education and Bilingualism*, 26(1): 50-68. DOI: 10.1080/13670050.2020.1786495.
- Cho, H. (2016). Formal and informal academic language socialization of a bilingual child. *International Journal of Bilingual Education and Bilingualism*, 19(4): 387-407. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/13670050.2014.993303>.
- Damasio, A. (1994). *Descartes' error: Emotion, reason, and the human brain*. Putman Books.

- De Fina, A., Georgakopoulou, A. (2012). *Analyzing narrative: Discourse and sociolinguistic perspectives*. Cambridge University Press.
- Dewaele, J. M. (2013). Emotions in second language acquisition: An overview. In P. D. MacIntyre, T. Gregersen, & S. Mercer (Eds.), *Positive psychology in SLA* (pp. 9-26). Multilingual Matters.
- Dörnyei, Z. (2007). *Research methods in applied linguistics: Quantitative, qualitative and mixed methodologies*. Oxford University Press.
- Dragoescu Urlica, A. A. (2019). An Ecolinguistic Approach to Communication in the ESP Class as a Model of Learning Community. In Bogusławska-Tafelska, M. & Haładewicz-Grzelak, M. (Eds.). *Communication as a Life Process: The holistic Paradigm in Languages* (pp. 59-72), vol. 2. Cambridge Scholars Publishing.
- Dragoescu Urlica, A. A., Durau, C., Iosim, I., Lungu, M. R. (2022a). The ecosemiotic perspective in communicative teaching/learning. *Research Journal of Agricultural Science*, 54(1): 184-189.
- Dragoescu Urlica, A. A., Durau, C., Iosim, I., Lungu, M. R. (2022b). A proposal for developing eco-holistic communicative competence in students at a life science university. *Research Journal of Agricultural Science*, 54(4): 144-148.
- Dumlao, R. P. (2020). Language Socialization Through an Oral Academic Presentation in an EFL Environment: A Qualitative Study. *The Qualitative Report*, 25(2): 416-440. <https://doi.org/10.46743/2160-3715/2020.4213>.
- Fekete, A. (2016). Multilingual speakers' reflections on multilingualism, multiculturalism and identity construction. In M. Lehmann, R. Lugossy, J. Horváth (Eds.), *UPRT 2015: Empirical studies in English applied linguistics* (pp. 74-90). Lingua Franca Csoport.
- Fekete, A. (2018). *Exploring advanced English learners' multilingual identity construction from multiple perspectives*. (Doctoral dissertation, University of Pécs). Retrieved from <http://nydi.btk.pte.hu/content/exploring-advanced-english-learners-multilingual-identity-construction-multiple-perspectives?language=en>.
- Fekete, A. (2020a). A case study on advanced English learners' different second language socialization and enculturation experiences from the perspective of language ecology. In A. Fekete, M. Lehmann, & K. Simon (Eds.). *UPRT 2019: Empirical Studies in English Applied Linguistics*. (pp. 143-161) Lingua Franca Csoport.
- Fekete, A. (2020b). Desire, freedom, and pain in English learners' emotional responses to SLA: A holistic look at English learners' multilingual identity construction. *ERL Journal*, 2(4): 84-99.
- Fekete, A. (2021). Examining teachers' well-being during the pandemic: A mixed methods study on teachers' psychological, emotional and identity responses to online education. *ERL Journal*, 2(6): 46-65.
- Fekete, A. (2022). Introducing an identity based model of teaching and facilitating intercultural communication: A learner centered approach. In E. Charamba (Ed.) *Handbook of Research on Teaching in Multicultural and Multilingual Contexts* (pp. 391-430). IGI Global.
- Fekete, A. (in press). Complexity theory perspectives on changes in motivation, language anxiety and willingness to communicate in offline and online education. In M. D. Ramírez-Verdugo (Ed.) *Transversal Approaches to Bilingual and Second Language Teacher Education*. Routledge.
- Fekete, A. (forthcoming). The impact of language socialization on the language learning motivation of multilingual learners. *Lingua Didáctica*.
- Griffiee, D.T. (2012). *An introduction to second language research methods: Design and data*. TESL-EJ Publications.
- Hall, S. (1996). Introduction: Who needs 'identity'? In S. Hall & P. du Gay (Eds.), *Questions of cultural identity* (pp. 1-17). SAGE Publications.
- Horváthová, I. (2022). Social-emotional development of learners in primary level of education through "reading" wordless picture books. *Educational Role of Language Journal*, 1(7): 32-41.
- Isabelli-García, C. (2017). Second Language Acquisition and Study Abroad Learning Environments. *Elia*, 17, 273-282. <https://doi.org/10.12795/elia.2017.i17.12>.

- Isabelli-García, C., Bown, J., Plews, J. L., Dewey, D. P. (2018). Language learning and study abroad. *Language Teaching*, 51(4): 439-484.
- Jackson, J., Sin Ju, C., Sun, T. (2019). Language and (inter)cultural socialization in study abroad (SA) contexts. *The CALA 2019 Proceedings Paper*, 18(4): 550-553.
- Jenkins, R. (2008). *Social identity* (3rd ed.). Routledge.
- Kramsch, C. (1998). *Language and culture*. Oxford University Press.
- Kramsch, C. (Ed.) (2002). *Language acquisition and language socialization*. Continuum.
- Kramsch, C. (2009). *The multilingual subject*. Oxford University Press.
- Lacan, J. (1977). *Écrits: A selection*. (A. Sheridan, Trans.). Norton.
- Lynch, A. (2023). Heritage language socialization at work: Spanish in Miami. *Journal of World Languages*, 9(1): 111-132. <https://doi.org/10.1515/jwl-2022-0048>.
- Lozano-Martínez, L. (2019). Myths and challenges on raising bilingual children in English by non-native parents in Spain. *ELIA*, 19, 235-264. DOI: <http://dx.doi.org/10.12795/elia.mon.2019.i1.10>.
- Nagao, A. (2014). How Newcomer English as Second Language Learners Become Experienced Learners Through Socialization in Classroom Communities. *The Journal of Asia TEFL*, 11(2): 93-124.
- Norton, B. (2001). Non-participation, imagined communities, and the language classroom. In M. Breen (Ed.), *Learner contributions to language learning: New directions in research* (pp. 159-171). Pearson Education.
- Norton, B. (2013). *Identity and language learning: Extending the conversation* (2nd ed.). Multilingual Matters.
- Nunan, D., Bailey, K. M. (2009). *Exploring second language classroom research: A comprehensive guide*. Heinle.
- Ochs, E., Scheffelin, B. B. (2012). The theory of language socialization. In A. Duranti, E. Ochs, & B.B. Schieffelin (Eds.), *The handbook of language socialization* (pp. 1-22). Wiley-Blackwell.
- Ochs, E., Schieffelin, B. (2017). Language socialization: A historical overview. In P. Duff & S. May (Eds.), *Language socialization* (3rd ed., pp. 3-16). Springer.
- Ortaçtepe, D. (2015). EFL Teachers' Identity (Re)Construction as Teachers of Intercultural Competence: A Language Socialization Approach. *Journal of Language, Identity & Education*, 14(2): 96-112, DOI: 10.1080/15348458.2015.1019785
- Ótott, Zs. (2022). Changing lives via language learning: A case study of language majors' linguistic identity construction. In A. Fekete, K. Farkas, Lugossy, R., & K. Simon (Eds.). *UPRT 2021: Studies in English applied linguistics* (pp. 2-18). Lingua Franca Csoport.
- Pavlenko, A. (2003). "I never knew I was bilingual": Reimagining teacher identities in TESOL. *Journal of Language, Identity, and Education*, 2(4): 251-268.
- Rummens, J. A. (2003). Conceptualising identity and diversity: Overlaps, intersections, and processes. *Canadian Ethnic Studies*, 35(3): 10-25.
- Pavlenko, A., Blackledge, A. (Eds.). (2004). *Negotiation of identities in multilingual contexts*. Multilingual Matters.
- Saldana, J. (2013). *The coding manual for qualitative researchers*. Sage.
- Szentspáli Ujlaki, E. (2008). My first study-abroad experience. In R. Lugossy, J. Horváth, & M. Nikolov (Eds.), *UPRT 2008: Empirical studies in English applied linguistics* (pp. 99-119). Lingua Franca Csoport.
- Sussman, N. M. (2002). Sojourners to another country: The psychological roller-coaster of cultural transitions. *Online readings in psychology and culture* (Unit 8, Chapter 1). Retrieved from https://csivc.csi.cuny.edu/Nan.Sussman/files/publications/Online_Readings_The_Psychological_Rollerc_oaster_of_Cultural_Transitions.pdf.
- Steffensen, S. V., Kramsch, C. (2017). The ecology of second language acquisition and socialization. In P. Duff & S. May (Eds.), *Language socialization* (3rd ed., pp. 17-28). Springer.

- Uştuk, Ö. (2021). "Not Me with My American Flag": Transnational Teachers' Trajectories of Language Teacher Socialization. *The Electronic Journal for English as a Second Language*, 25(3): 1-16.
- Von Essen, M. C. (2023). Identity, language socialization, and family language policies in dialect contact: the case of Argentinean immigrants in Malaga, Spain. *Journal of World Languages*, 9(1): 133-160. <https://doi.org/10.1515/jwl-2022-0056>.

Positive anxiety as an affective component of shadowing in language learning and use

ISSN 2657-9774; <https://doi.org/10.36534/erlj.2023.01.09>

Daniela Feistritzer

Language Department (Porsgrunn Upper Secondary School), Norway
daniela.feistritzer@vtfk.no; danielaf@online.no

Abstract

Language anxiety, as an affective component of second/foreign language learning, has been studied since the 1970s. Recognized as a complex phenomenon with a significant impact on language learning and use, this paper explores the effects of positive anxiety in shadowing on language learning and use. Shadowing serves as a technique for simultaneous interpretation and second/foreign language learning. Since the 1990s, successful application of shadowing for language learning purposes has been observed in Japan. However, distinctions exist between shadowing for simultaneous interpretation and language learning, with the former involving unknown authentic audio and audiovisual texts in the student's first language, and the latter utilizing shorter sequences in the student's second/foreign language with known content. This paper presents two ethnographic instances in which the shadowing method for simultaneous interpretation was employed to enhance second language learning for adult learners and public service interpretation students. Additionally, it showcases an ethnographic example of shadowing designed for regular foreign language students—learning German, Spanish, French, English and Italian—and immigrant students learning Norwegian and English at an upper secondary school in Norway. The findings hold significance for researchers, language teachers, and learners, revealing that language learning students improved not only their listening and oral skills, but also achieved deep learning wherein language-dependent discourse, syntax, phraseology, and vocabulary were retained in long-term memory. Moreover, the research indicates that students often experienced symptoms of healthy/positive anxiety, suggesting a vital role of positive anxiety in the foreign language learning process. However, further research in this domain is needed.

Keywords: *second/foreign language learning, shadowing, positive anxiety, deep learning, listening and oral skills*

Introduction and background

Research on language anxiety began in the 1970s, primarily focusing on the disruptive and inhibiting effects of anxiety on language learning and use. In the 1980s, Horwitz et al. (1986) identified communication apprehension, text anxiety, and fear of negative evaluation as the conceptual foundations of language anxiety (Langford, 2023), differentiating it from general anxiety. MacIntyre and Gardner (1989) supported this view by demonstrating that general anxiety was not a reliable factor in foreign language anxiety.

Contemporary research portrays language-learning anxiety as a multifaceted phenomenon influenced by factors such as learners' linguistic abilities, physiological responses, self-evaluation, interpersonal relationships, and specific topics (MacIntyre 2017, 25). This perspective promotes a dynamic approach to investigating language-learning anxiety (Langford 2023).

Based on my personal experience spanning over thirty years in the fields of simultaneous interpretation, language learning, and language use, I find no need to distinguish between general anxiety and foreign language learning anxiety. Learning a new language inherently places learners outside their comfort zones, naturally inducing distress, akin to encountering unfamiliar situations beyond one's control. This distress need not be pathological; on the contrary, it can facilitate improved performance.

As both a lifelong foreign language learner and user, I resonate with the concept of healthy and positive anxiety, as defined by Norwegian organizational psychologist Paul Moxnes. The anxiety I experienced while in a managerial position was akin to the anxiety I felt during written exams, oral presentations and shadowing exercises when learning Norwegian and Spanish as an adult. My perspective on anxiety in language learning thus centers on the affective component of healthy and positive anxiety, observed both in myself and my students during shadowing exercises integral to their language learning process. This positive anxiety, which surfaced during shadowing practice, aligns with Hattie's (2023) meta-analysis of learning achievements.

Research on shadowing in second/foreign language learning has existed in Asia since the 1990s, primarily concentrating on its effects on learners' listening and pronunciation skills. The Japanese approach to shadowing involves familiar oral texts in the second/foreign language Hamada (2011a). Hamada discovered a positive correlation between students' sense of accomplishment through shadowing and the enhancement of their sound recognition skills (Hamada 2011b). Teeter (2017) confirmed that incorporating shadowing into regular English classes in Japan contributed to anxiety reduction among students.

Applying shadowing to prepare for simultaneous interpretation poses greater demands on language learning students due to various factors. Originally intended to acclimate simultaneous interpretation students to listening and speaking simultaneously, this method requires students to focus on spoken language speed, performed in their A³ or B language. Personally, experiencing this technique during my simultaneous interpretation studies at the University of Vienna in the late 1980s, where French was my C language, I ventured into shadowing tasks meant for students with French as their A or B language. Despite this being beyond my scope, I found it beneficial, improving my oral and listening skills while deepening my understanding of French. Subsequently, I applied shadowing as a compulsory exercise in a one-semester program for public service interpreters to enhance their Norwegian proficiency. This program was organized by Telemark University College and the Norwegian Directorate for Immigration.

-
- ³ A, B, C Languages (<https://aiic.org/site/world/about/profession/abc>)
 - **Interpreters' working languages** are classified according to three categories – **A, B, C**:
 - The '**A**' language is the interpreter's **mother tongue** (or its **strict equivalent**) into which they work from all their other working languages in both consecutive and simultaneous interpretation. It is the language they speak best, and in which they can express even complicated ideas. It is therefore an **active language** for the interpreter.
 - A '**B**' language is a language in which the interpreter is **perfectly fluent**, but which is **not a mother tongue**. An interpreter can work into this language from one or several of their other working languages but may prefer to do so in only one mode of interpretation, either consecutive or simultaneous (often in 'consecutive' because it is not as fast). It is also considered an **active language** for the interpreter.
 - A '**C**' language is one which the interpreter understands perfectly but into which they do not work. They will interpret from this (these) language(s) into their active language. It is therefore a **passive language**.

Later, I devised various shadowing models for language teaching and learning of English, Norwegian, German, French, Spanish and Italian in upper secondary school in Norway.

The impact of shadowing on foreign language anxiety within foreign/second language learning has gained attention in Japan. Current research highlights a positive correlation between shadowing, language anxiety, and language learning, with shadowing diminishing language anxiety while enhancing language-learning outcomes.

However, systematic research on how (positive) anxiety influences shadowing and vice versa remains lacking, warranting further exploration in this area.

Theoretical background

Positive anxiety

In his 2023 meta-analysis of learning achievement, John Hattie (2023) emphasizes the importance of educators perceiving learning from the students' perspective. He advocates for teaching students to become their own teachers and to adopt a student-centered approach where the main goal of education is to help students exceed their perceived potential. Hattie's (2023) analysis focuses on nine domains that influence learning, examining the effect sizes of various factors within each domain. These domains include student, home, school, classroom, teacher, curricula, students' learning strategies, teaching strategies and technology, school environment, and off-school strategies.

Hattie (2023) classifies emotions, alongside perseverance, confidence, student personality, emotional intelligence, well-being, and cognitive dispositions, as essential components in a student's willingness to learn. Emotions fall into four categories of dispositions: positive activating (e.g., hope, curiosity, happiness, enjoyment), positive deactivating (e.g., relief, relaxation), negative activating (e.g., anxiety, depression, stress, boredom, anger, frustration, aggression/violence), and negative deactivating (e.g., boredom, hopelessness).

Norwegian organizational psychologist Paul Moxnes (2018) distinguishes between healthy-warm and cold anxiety and pathological anxiety. Warm anxiety acts as a positive driving force that motivates individuals to tackle challenges, while cold anxiety represents a typical reaction when confronted with new demanding tasks. Cold anxiety, although initially paralyzing, can be harnessed as a positive, energizing force in a secure environment. Moxnes cites the examples of artists and athletes who transform cold anxiety into motivation when performing on stage or competing. Additionally, Moxnes suggests that, at times, increasing anxiety levels can enhance a sense of security and ultimately improve performance.

Applying Moxnes's insights to language learning students practicing shadowing reveals the necessity for a balance between anxiety and security. Students engaging in shadowing tasks must feel secure enough to willingly undertake the demanding exercise while being anxious enough to execute shadowing effectively.

Anxiety constitutes an emotional component, and emotions form one of the essential components in a student's will to learn. Alongside emotions, students also possess distinctive skills and a genuine enthusiasm for learning, both of which significantly influence the ultimate learning outcome (Hattie 2023). Consequently, the effects stemming from these components on learning outcomes manifest within the overarching context of the nine domains highlighted by Hattie. While Hattie's analysis encompasses learning in a broader sense, we deduce its applicability extends to the realm of language learning.

The study of language learning anxiety has developed specialized approaches since the 1980s. Pertinent to exploring the affective component of shadowing is Langford's assertion (2023) that educators must comprehend the interplay between anxiety, learners, learning context, required skills, and tasks. This viewpoint aligns with Hattie's perspective, emphasizing the crucial role of positive teacher-student relationships and teacher authority in empowering students' learning process.

Horwitz et al. (1986) suggest that educators guide anxious students in coping with and reducing language learning-related stress. Langford references Young (1991), who proposes sharing feelings of anxiety with peers, Saito et al. (1999), who suggest positive self-talk, and Dörnyei and Simsek (2017), who advocate constructing a positive personal narrative to reframe anxiety. Additionally, Oxford (2017) recommends repeated exposure to anxiety-inducing situations to develop effective coping strategies and proposes that teachers prioritize modeling over language correction to mitigate anxiety. Combining coping measures with language training is essential to enhance language proficiency (MacIntyre and Gardner 1994).

Shadowing

Shadowing is a method originally designed to test selective attention (Wood and Cowan 1995). It has found applications in speech therapy to overcoming stuttering in speech production (Harbison 1989) and is widely utilized in simultaneous interpretation training worldwide (Hamada 2019). In the context of simultaneous interpretation, students shadow extended speeches in both their A and B languages. The primary objective of this exercise is to expose students to authentic multimodal texts, which last up to 30 minutes and are unfamiliar to them, while training their ability to speak with the same speed and prosody as the speaker. Beyond verbatim shadowing, students engage in "smart shadowing," wherein they analyze the source text, visualize its underlying meaning, and paraphrase it (Setton and Dawrant 2016).

Since the 1990s, various forms of shadowing have been introduced in Japan and other Asian countries to address the dearth of authentic listening and oral practice opportunities in English language learning. In these contexts, students shadow familiar texts in English as a Foreign Language (EFL) to enhance pronunciation, listening, and oral skills. Shadowing is a well-established technique in these regions, with mobile-assisted language learning (MALL) applications specifically designed for shadowing to practice both listening and oral communication skills (Teeter 2017).

Research into shadowing's effectiveness in English language learning began in Asia during the 1990s. Tamai Lamberts (1992) initially defined shadowing as a technique to enhance listening skills (Sumiyoshi and Svetanant, 2017). A study by Devon Arthurson (2019) examined qualitative and quantitative data from student surveys regarding the efficacy of shadowing in Japan. The findings indicated that most students agreed that shadowing positively influenced their English proficiency. Arthurson also reflected on his personal experience with shadowing while learning Japanese, noting a correlation between improved listening, speaking, and reading skills, along with enhanced comprehension and shadowing speed.

Mattys and Baddeley (2019) emphasize the role of the working memory system, responsible for temporarily storing information during complex tasks, in language acquisition. The phonological loop within the working memory is widely implicated in language learning, storing acoustic information that would fade within seconds without subvocal rehearsal. The exact coding process of sounds remains unclear, but scholars concur that articulating sounds following auditory exposure, particularly through overt repetition, enhances retention. Kadota (2007) notes that phoneme perception is often not automatized in Japanese foreign language learners, affecting the phonological loop's function and explaining challenges EFL learners face in word recognition during listening. Shadowing seems to make the process of rehearsing heard information more evident, thereby strengthening the phonological loop's function (Hamada, 2016).

In a recent study on language learning anxiety, Craig Langford (2023) reviews prior research on language anxiety and subsequently investigates how second-year language students at a Japanese university perceived an intensive language shadowing course and the associated anxieties. The findings indicated that shadowing predominantly positively impacted students' listening skills, fostering a sense of achievement and language progression. The utilization of an online forum where students shared recordings and comments describing their experiences appeared to mitigate learning anxiety and

promote group cohesion. This outcome aligns with the effectiveness of Yamauchi's (2014) integrated approach to simultaneously enhance listening skills and alleviate anxiety.

Methodology

The objective of this paper is to present three ethnographic examples that illustrate how positive anxiety among second/foreign language learners during shadowing has a positive impact on their language learning outcomes.

Example 1 - Personal Experience

During my interpretation studies at the University of Vienna in the late 1980s, as a French C interpretation student, I employed shadowing to enhance my proficiency in French. This exercise involved sitting in an interpretation booth and shadowing unknown debates from the French television channel Antenne 2 for up to thirty minutes. Furthermore, we were required to analyze our performance. I became intrigued by this task, originally intended for language A and B students, as I quickly realized how it significantly enhanced my comprehension of the French language.

This technique not only proved to be useful for simultaneous interpretation but also facilitated my mastery of Norwegian after relocating to Norway in 1995 with limited proficiency in the language. Similarly, I harnessed shadowing to achieve proficiency in Spanish between 2005 and 2006.

Example 2 - Shadowing in a Semester-Program in Public Service Interpreting

In 2004, I was responsible for a one-year, semester-program for public service interpreters in conjunction with Telemark University College and the Norwegian Directorate of Immigration. This program, comprising on-campus and off-campus online sessions, incorporated shadowing as a compulsory component to improve the students' proficiency of Norwegian.

The compulsory shadowing task involved both shadowing thirty minutes of the Norwegian news program named 'Dagsnytt 18' and writing a log about their experience with and handling of the task. Additionally, students were required to submit a five-minute recording of their shadowing performance. Although initially given three weeks for this assignment, the deadline was extended until shortly before the exams due to complaints from the students, who needed more time to practice in order to speak at the same speed and with the same prosody as the speakers.

The students' logs revealed that most of them went through the same developmental curve. During the first week of practice, they expressed anger, frustration, stress, and cold anxiety as the task seemed impossible to fulfill. Some described physical reactions such as a blushing face, dry mouth, and an accelerated heartbeat. Several mentioned feeling uncomfortable about hearing their own voice and feeling ashamed of their mumbling. As instructors, we conveyed an understanding that their reactions were normal and expected in the light of this challenging task. Students developed their strategies to handle this task by dividing the exercise into several parts, taking breaks, and comparing their performance with the original. They continued practicing and progressively developed a positive attitude towards the task.

A total of twenty-nine students successfully completed this shadowing task. Student logs reflected their journey, showcasing initial frustration and stress followed by a transformative process that improved their pronunciation, vocabulary, and active listening skills.

Example 3 - Shadowing in Educational Settings

As an educator, I incorporated shadowing exercises into various German, French, Spanish, Italian, English, and Norwegian language classes, covering different proficiency levels in upper secondary school. These exercises were designed based on Vygotsky's (1978) concept of the zone of proximal development. They involved authentic audiovisual content with subtitles in the target language.

However, I was the only teacher practicing shadowing at my school, and I lacked the understanding and support from my colleagues and leaders.

While the outcomes varied based on student motivation, self-discipline, and anxiety levels, this technique consistently enhanced listening, speaking, and comprehension skills. Moreover, it fostered a deeper understanding of the language, particularly among students who demonstrated dedication and discipline. Those who preferred reading aloud instead of shadowing tended to develop lower foreign language proficiency.

Aim of the paper

This paper aims to showcase these three instances that not only illustrate the positive relationship between positive anxiety, motivation, self-discipline, and shadowing but also underscore the improvement of listening, oral skills, and deep learning in second/foreign language acquisition. These examples elucidate how additional factors like a supportive learning environment and group cohesion can significantly influence language-learning outcomes.

Discussion

Example 1 illustrates how, as an adult language learner, I experienced positive anxiety through shadowing authentic audio- and audiovisual texts in a foreign language, each lasting up to thirty minutes. This positive anxiety resembled the sense of accomplishment and exhilaration I felt during long-distance swimming and running. Shadowing facilitated my proficiency in Norwegian and Spanish, both languages acquired from scratch in adulthood. The practice enhanced my self-efficacy as I engaged in the task, scrutinized my recordings, and compared my performance to that of the speakers being shadowed. This comparison provided a realistic assessment of my progress and areas for improvement. Repeatedly practicing shadowing until my rendition matched the speaker's speed and prosody also aided in storing new vocabulary and phraseology in my long-term memory.

Example 2 illustrates how mature public service interpretation students encountered positive anxiety while undertaking a mandatory shadowing task in Norwegian, a foreign language for them. This task required them to submit a five-minute recording of their shadowing using authentic, non-adapted material from the Norwegian news program 'Dagsnytt 18.' Initially, they experienced cold/negative anxiety due to the perceived challenge. Our role as instructors played a pivotal part in alleviating these reactions. We acknowledged that such responses were natural when dealing with the stress of listening and reproducing content in a foreign language. We extended the recording deadline and fostered a secure learning environment to help students transform negative anxiety into positive energy, as explained by Moxnes (2018). By working together, we created a space that encouraged this transformation. Ultimately, twenty-nine students submitted satisfactory recordings, reflecting improved language skills and a determination to continue shadowing independently.

Example 3 highlights that positive anxiety is just one of the components that influence successful outcomes in shadowing. Hattie's (2023) meta-analysis unveils various domains that impact learning results, encompassing students' emotions, perseverance, confidence, personality, emotional intelligence, well-being, cognitive dispositions, skills, and the joy of learning. Furthermore, the mindsets, interpretations, and evaluations of teachers, leaders, parents, and students significantly shape learning outcomes. Learning unfolds within an environment interwoven by students, teachers, parents, and leaders.

While I endeavored to introduce shadowing in German, English, French, Spanish, Italian, and Norwegian language classes, the limited support from colleagues and leaders hindered its full potential. Despite this, implementing various shadowing methods in my language classes yielded diverse results. Offering students preparatory materials, guiding shadowing exercises, and facilitating discussions about their experiences positively contributed to their self-confidence in pronunciation and comprehension.

Students who preferred reading aloud instead of shadowing exhibited minor improvements in their listening, pronunciation skills, and understanding of the foreign language.

Limitations

The limitations of this paper include the lack of quantitative and qualitative studies investigating the effects of positive anxiety in shadowing on language learning and use. Similarly, the absence of research on positive anxiety in shadowing for simultaneous interpretation adapted to language learning and use is noteworthy. The present discussion draws on three examples that highlight the effects of positive anxiety in shadowing for simultaneous interpretation as applied to language learning and use. Future research should delve deeper into the effects of positive anxiety in various forms of shadowing for language learning and use, especially focusing on different language proficiency levels. The limitations of this paper are rooted in the absence of both quantitative and qualitative studies that thoroughly investigate the impacts of positive anxiety within the context of shadowing on language learning and its application. Additionally, the lack of research into the realm of positive anxiety within shadowing for simultaneous interpretation, tailored to language learning and utilization, deserves attention.

The ongoing discourse within this paper is grounded in three distinct examples that illustrate the impact of positive anxiety in the context of shadowing for foreign language learning and use. These examples underscore the intricate interplay between positive anxiety, motivation, and self-discipline, collectively shaping the effectiveness of shadowing as a learning tool. Furthermore, they highlight the significance of collective teacher support when introducing and implementing shadowing in foreign language learning.

As we move forward, it becomes imperative for future research to comprehensively delve into the nuanced effects of positive anxiety across various shadowing modalities used in language learning. Particular attention should be given to exploring diverse language proficiency levels, unraveling how positive anxiety influences learners at different stages of their language journey. Additionally, future research should investigate the intricate interplay between positive anxiety, motivation, self-discipline, and the impact of collective teacher support on shadowing for language learning within the classroom.

Conclusion

While existing research lacks quantitative and qualitative exploration of the effects of positive anxiety in shadowing on language learning and use, there is evidence suggesting its benefits. Positive anxiety in shadowing enhances language skills and learners' self-efficacy. However, positive anxiety is closely interrelated with motivation and self-discipline. Group cohesion, sharing recordings, and reflections within a supportive community can reduce interpersonal anxiety. Additionally, collective teacher support plays a decisive role when introducing shadowing in the language learning classroom.

This paper underscores the need for further research on the effects of positive anxiety in diverse forms of shadowing for language learning and use. It highlights the necessity of studying positive anxiety in shadowing as applied to language learning and use, particularly by exploring the learning outcomes of shadowing when adapted from simultaneous interpretation.

References

- Arthurson, D. (2019). Shadowing: A Technique in Teaching and Learning and a Tool for Critical Reflection. *New Directions in Teaching and Learning, English Discussion, 7*, 209-215.
- Dörnyei, Z., Simsek, E. (2017). Anxiety and L2 self-images: The 'Anxious self'. In C. Gkonou, M. Daubney & J. Dewæele (Eds.), *New Insights into Language Anxiety: Theory, Research and Educational Implications* (pp. 51-69). Bristol, Blue Ridge Summit: Multilingual Matters.
- Hamada, J. (2011a). Improvement of listening comprehension skills through shadowing with difficult materials. *Journal of Asia Tefl, 8*(1): 139-162.

- Hamada, J. (2011b). Psychological aspects of shadowing training. *Journal of the Japan Association for Developmental Education*, 6(2): 160-171.
- Hamada, J. (2016). Shadowing: Who benefits and how? Uncovering a booming EFL teaching technique for listening comprehension. *Language Teaching Research*, 20(1). <http://doi.org/10.1177/1362168815597504>.
- Hamada, J. (2019). Shadowing: What is It? How to Use It. Where Will It Go? *RELC Journal*, 50(3): 386-393. <http://doi.org/10.1177/0033688218771380>.
- Harbison, D. J. (1989). Shadowed and simple reaction times in stutterers and nonstutterers. *The Journal of the Acoustical Society of America*, 86(4): 1277-1284. <http://doi.org/10.1121/1.398742>
- Hattie, J. (2023). *VISIBLE LEARNING: The Sequel. A Synthesis of Over 2,100 Meta-Analyses Relating to Achievement*. 1st Routledge. <http://doi.org/10.4324/9781003380542>
- Horwitz, E. K., Horwitz, M. B., Cope, J. (1986). Preliminary evidence for reliability and validity of a Foreign Language Anxiety Scale. *TESOL Quarterly*, 20(3): 559-562.
- Kadota, S. (2007). シャドーイングと音読の科学 [The science of shadowing, oral reading]. *Cosmopier*.
- Langford, C. (2023). Language Learning Anxiety and Shadowing in a Japanese Classroom. *Kwansei Gakuin University Humanities Review*, 27, 11-32. <http://hdl.handle.net/10236/00030583>
- MacIntyre, P.D., Gardner, R.C. (1989). *Anxiety and second language learning: Towards a theoretical clarification*. *Language Learning*. Wiley online library. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-1770.1989.tb00423.x>
- MacIntyre, P.D., Gardner, R.C. (1994). The effects of induced anxiety on three stages of cognitive processing in computerized vocabulary learning. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, 16, 1-17. <http://doi.org/10.1017/S0272263100012560>
- MacIntyre, P. (2017). An overview of language anxiety research and trends in its development. In C. Gkonou, M. Daubney & J. Dewæle (Ed.), *New Insights into Language Anxiety: Theory, Research and Educational Implications* (pp. 11-30). Bristol, Blue Ridge Summit: Multilingual Matters
- Mattys, S. L., Baddeley, A. (2019). Working memory and second language accent acquisition. *Applied Cognitive Psychology*, 33(6): 1113-1123. <https://doi.org/10.1002/acp.3554>
- Moxnes, P. (2018). Anxiety and organization: What I learned about anxiety in a psychiatric ward in the 70s that turned out to be useful for managers in daily practice. *Culture and Organization*, 24(2): 100-113. <https://doi.org/10.1080/14759551.2017.1379011>
- Oxford, R. (2017). Anxious language learners can change their minds. In C. Gkonou, M. Daubney & J. Dewæle (Eds.), *New Insights into Language Anxiety: Theory, Research and Educational Implications*, (pp. 177-198). Bristol, Blue Ridge Summit: Multilingual Matters.
- Saito, Y., Horwitz, E. K., Garza, T. J. (1999). Foreign language reading anxiety. *The Modern Language Journal*, 83(2): 202-218.
- Setton, R., Dawrant, A. (2016). *Conference Interpreting – A Complete Course*. Amsterdam/Philadelphia: John Benjamins Publishing Company. <https://doi.org/10.1075/btl.120>
- Sumiyoshi, H., Svetanant, C. (2017). Motivation and attitudes towards shadowing: learners' perspective in Japanese as a foreign language. *Asian-Pacific Journal of Second and Foreign Language Education*, 2(16). <https://doi.org/10.1186/s40862-017-0039-6>
- Tamai, K. (1992). Follow-up no chokairyoku kojo ni oyobosu koka oyobi "follow-up" noryoku to chokairyoku no kankei. dai 4 kai "Eiken" kenkyu josei hokoku [The effect of follow-up on listening comprehension]. *STEP Bulletin*, 4, 48-62
- Teeter, J. (2017). Improving motivation to learn English in Japan with a self-study shadowing application. *Languages*, 2(4): 19.
- Vygotsky, L.S. (1978). *Mind in Society: The Development of Higher Psychological Processes*. Harvard University Press

- Wood, N. L., Cowan, N. (1995). The cocktail party phenomenon revisited: Attention and memory in the classic selective listening procedure of Cherry (1953). *Journal of Experimental Psychology: General*, 124(3): 243-263. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0096-3445.124.3.243>
- Yamauchi, Y. (2014). Changes in learners' English listening anxiety with use of difficult materials. *Hiroshima University Graduate School Education Bulletin*, 63(2): 175-182.
- Young, D. J. (1991). Creating a low-anxiety classroom environment: What does language anxiety research suggest? *The Modern Language Journal*, 75(4): 426-439.
- International Association of Conference Interpreters (AIIC). (Year, Month Day). The AIIC A-B-C. AIIC Official Website. The AIIC A-B-C - AIIC <https://aiic.org/site/world/about/profession/abc>.

Digitally transformed lifelong multilingual language learning: affective processes underlying the development of multilingual competence

ISSN 2657-9774; <https://doi.org/10.36534/erlj.2023.01.10>

Sladana Marić

Faculty of Philosophy, University of Novi Sad; sladjana.maric@ff.uns.ac.rs

Abstract

This paper reflects on the issues of informal and non-institutional practices of language learning in digital environments. In this qualitative and longitudinal case study, authentic language materials were used by two adult learners for their development of Italian language skills and multilingual competencies through Personal Multilingual Dictionary Design (Italian/English/Greek/Serbian). The authentic materials included three editions (500 episodes) of the most famous show “É sempre mezzogiorno” (“It is Always Noon”) by the Italian public television service “Rai” (2020/2023). The choice of the video materials, as learning materials, was based on the interests and personal preferences of the learners, highly interested, involved and committed to language learning and the development of multilingual literacy. Affective processes underlying the development of multilingual competence through collaborative learning tasks are examined and discussed. In conclusion, several areas of multimodal literacies are highlighted, with potential guidance in envisioning future research processes.

Keywords: authentic video content, informal foreign language learning, Italian language, multilingual competence

Introduction

The nature of language learning continues to change as education evolves into new scenarios with the use of audiovisual materials and digital cultural heritage in learning, and these changes call for new learning methodologies. As the English language is firmly positioned as a lingua franca and translation applications and tools based on artificial intelligence (AI) are becoming of greater usability, questions may arise concerning the educational practices of learning a new foreign language or languages (apart from English) or even re-learning the languages from the personal educational background. From the early spring of 2020, the restrictions in travel, physical distancing measures and new forms of communication have had an impact on language education and learning. The emergency has highlighted how television, specifically public service broadcasting, acted as a driving force for television consumption and that “television still represents the central medium in the complex ecosystem of contemporary communication” (Carelli and Sfarдини 2022, 7).

Media can “strongly motivate people to learn languages through modalities which go beyond the official educational methods”, where it is useful to rediscover the importance of “TV programs and series that may arouse interest in other cultures and stimulate motivation to learn or revise languages” (Cappelli 2020, 283). The success of, for example, the tv serials “lies in its accessibility or in the linear discourses of simple people” or “the conquest of language occurs together with the conquest of culture” (Tullio De Mauro (1968), as cited in Cappelli 2020, 285). In connection to the previous, the TV Show “*È sempre mezzogiorno*”, chosen by the participants of this study represents an example of everyday discourses of simple people, about everyday issues - cooking and preparing food, seasonal events and festivities, current news and happenings, cultural and media events, all in the family like the environment of a large home, where everyone is welcome. The famous TV Italian television host and journalist Antonella Clerici conducted a TV show “*La prova del cuoco*” for almost twenty years (2000-2008, 2010-2018, Rome), although after her retirement in 2018, the show continued until the pandemic in 2020, and from September 2020, Ms Clerici returned to RAI and created a new show titled “*È sempre mezzogiorno*” placed in Milan studio of RAI1. The concept was similar, except in this title, the location of the show is transmitting live images of the forest surrounding the actual house of the TV host, therefore bringing nature of the forest, including flora and fauna (wild and domestic animals occasionally appearing depending on the weather and season), *peacefulness*, *tranquillity* and *family atmosphere* to the public. Triggering positive emotions of the public, and in this research, participants in a context of learning a foreign language.

In the field of applied linguistic research, studies on emotions in teaching and learning have been present since the 1970’s (Barcelos et al. 2022). According to Richards (2020), the “introduction of positive psychology in applied linguistics”, focusing on teachers and learners as participants in the social spaces of learning (classroom), “has broadened understanding of the range of emotions language teachers and learners experience and particularly the role that positive emotions can play in facilitating teaching and learning” (Richards, 2020: 226). In this research, we will adopt a definition by Jane Arnold (2009, 115), that “the term affect refers essentially to the area of emotions, feelings, beliefs, moods and attitudes, which greatly influences our behavior”.

In the research literature on language teaching, *emotions* have been viewed as examples of ‘affective factors’ in learning and teaching (Richards 2020). They are “a sociocultural experience primarily determined not only by individual characteristics but also by relationships and social contexts - not merely something that we *have* but something that we *do*” (Richards 2020, 226). Earl Stevick in his work “*Teaching Languages. A Way and Ways*” (1980, 4) affirms that “success [in language learning] depends less on materials, techniques and linguistic analyses, and more on what goes on *inside* and *between* the people in the classroom” (Stevick 1980, as cited in Arnold, 2009), which must be considered in the contemporary discussions on digital language education and learning. Thus, “inside” refers “to individual factors such as self-esteem, anxiety, inhibition, willingness to take risks, learning styles, self-efficacy, and motivation” while “between”, refers to the “relational aspects” and “group dynamics” in the context of classroom (Arnold and Brown 1999, *A map of the terrain*, in “*Affect in Language Learning*” as cited in Arnold, 2009: 145 and 2011, 11). Steven Krashen (1981) “*Second Language Acquisition and Second Language Learning*”, introduced the “*Affective Filter Hypothesis*” which examines *motivation*, *self-confidence*, and *anxiety* as the three main categories of variables influencing second language acquisition. Apart from emotions and feelings, affective factors include *mood*, *manner* and *attitude* (Ni 2012, 1508).

Most of the research studies on affective variables concentrate on formal language learning contexts and the classroom learning experience (Hurd 2002, Hauck and Hurd 2005). This paper, however, will aim to focus on the relevance of affective factors in independent (self-guided) and informal foreign language learning contexts, taking into account the role of digital media in language learning.

Methodology

Aim of research

This action research study aims to explore the affective side of language learning and use, more specifically to look at the dynamical cognitive-emotional-motivational processes that may influence the development of multilingual competence in informal language learning. Thus, we look at some of the interrelationships between affective variables, and their links with learner autonomy and cognitive styles and strategies of learning (Hurd 2002), all in the context of self-guided multilingual education. Furthermore, the aim is to analyse the process of using authentic video materials in the development of language skills and *multilingual competence* (learning Italian, English and Greek language).

Research design

The action research study examines the three-year learning period of two adult language learners using digital media and the dynamical cognitive-emotional-motivational processes that underlie the development of multilingual competence in informal language learning. Learners have to be self-aware and knowledgeable about their role(s) and responsibilities, assessing their individual learning needs, strengths and weaknesses, abilities, and willingness to re-evaluate personal repertoire of strategies, learning patterns, attitudes and feelings in language learning (Hauck and Hurd 2005).

This research will examine self-management learning strategies and emotions as they relate to the experience of adult language learners, and seek to clarify the following questions: What sort of emotions did language learners in this study experience in their learning context? What circumstances prompted these emotions? How did they affect the processes of teaching and learning?

Participants

The participants of the study included two family members (the author of the study and her mother Jelica), both interested in spending time learning languages through collaboration and interaction using digital media. Both participants in the study speak Serbian as L1. The first participant (mother Jelica), through her education, had language lessons in Latin and English, while the other learner (daughter) learned English and Italian. The learners have watched different programs conducted by Antonella Clerici, therefore they have a certain affinity level towards the main personality of the “È sempre mezzogiorno show”. Through the years, they have developed positive emotions towards the TV host, as they like her voice and style of using the Italian language in a positivistic, emotional and highly professional manner. Additionally, both learners are interested in learning the Greek language, mainly for communication purposes, through making interconnections of the basic vocabulary including culture, food, travel, lifestyle, education, arts and music. In relation to the previous, learners in this study are also active followers of vloggers and specialized channels of content in Greek, English (different language varieties) and Italian language, showcasing travel episodes and cultural events.

Language learning corpora

The language learning corpus included the three editions (2020-2023) of the Italian public television service (Rai) show “È sempre mezzogiorno”, or translated in English as “It's always noon”, hosted by Antonella Clerici. The show was broadcasted daily during working days, and consisted of up to 90 minutes of presentation of Italian and international recipes, through cooking and preparation of dishes, chat, humour, music and songs, and different games (language games, knowledge games, games of lucky choice, etc.), nutritionist's recommendations, agricultural themes and topics, talks with visiting guests from the fields of media, literature, arts and theatre, music, and other fields, all in a scenery of a “family home in the woods where everyone is welcome”. The show occupies a peak time slot, every working day from 12 to 13.30h, from the end of September to the middle of June. Due to copyright issues, the live

transmission of the show is only available through the RaiPlay app in Italy, but not abroad, therefore the participants watched on-demand content in their leisure time through the “RaiPlay” application on a smartphone and computer from the year 2020 to 2023. In terms of duration, episodes range from 60 to 90 minutes. The corpus included more than 500 episodes (the first edition in 2020/2021 included 190 episodes; the second edition in 2021/2022 included 187, while the third edition included a total of 150 episodes, concluding with the Easter episodes in April 2023. Therefore, the overall language exposure was between 500 - 600 hours of active listening.

Data and method of analysis

This *case study* research has the elements of autoethnography (ethnographic research methods), as learners are “writing a personal language learning history” (Godwin-Jones 2019, 14), guided by “self-motivational beliefs”, including intrinsic interest, goal orientation, self-efficacy, learning outcome expectations, and “self-regulation”, including active participation in their language learning. The collaborative learning tasks included five phases. The first phase, included watching with active listening, while the second, notetaking of the unknown words and writing the words in a diary notebook and an alphabetical notebook (index A to Z). The third phase, included immediate or postponed online research and reading, in various languages, about a specific word or group of words. The fourth phase, included additional multilingual translation of the words apart from Serbian (L1), to English (L2) and Greek (L3), using digital media tools, and the final, fifth stage, included the creation of personal multilingual flashcards (paper/digital), and a multilingual dictionary in a digital format (word document).

In this research, a *qualitative descriptive method* of content analysis of gathered data was applied. Data included all the available media products: 1) a diary notebook and alphabetical notebook, 2) a multilingual mini picture dictionary (in print), and 3) a multilingual dictionary in a digital format (word document). Therefore, using the *bottom-up* approach, the paper explores the actions conducted with the aim of personal vocabulary expansion in the Italian language and the development of multilingual (Italian, English, Greek) and intercultural competence of learners using digital media (authentic video content streamed on mobile devices, translation and text editing applications, etc.).

Findings

Sufficient competence in the four language skills (listening, speaking, reading, writing) and related subsystems (vocabulary, pronunciation, grammar) is required in any language learning (Bin-Hady and Al-Tamimi 2021, 108). In this research, a multidisciplinary approach to multilingualism (Kourtis-Kazoullis et al. 2019) was applied, covering the fields of foreign language, multilingual and multicultural language learning using digital media technologies. According to Stavans and Hoffmann (2015: 156), multilingual language use is an “outcome of multilingual competence” and “driving force” that dynamically changes during multilinguals’ lifespan, “depending on linguistic needs and opportunities within social and personal contexts” (Stavans and Hoffmann 2015, 156). In order to examine more deeply the everyday language practices and dynamical cognitive-emotional-motivational processes that may influence the development of multilingual competence in informal language learning, collaborative learning tasks will be discussed in the following part. In this research, *emotional competence* is understood as “the ability to understand and productively manage emotions in language learning and teaching” (Richards 2020, 225).

In the context of language learning, MacIntyre (2002: 46) acknowledges that motivation is “one of many motives a person can possess”, specifically putting the focus on two questions: “(1) Why is behavior directed toward a specific goal and (2) what determines the intensity or effort invested in

pursuing the goal.” The socio-educational model by Gardner and MacIntyre (1992 as cited in MacIntyre 2002, 47) is based on four major parts:

1. socio-cultural milieu,
2. individual differences (affective variables: attitudes and motivation, language anxiety and self-confidence; and cognitive factors including variables such as intelligence, language aptitude and language learning strategies);
3. learning acquisition contexts (formal, informal),
4. language learning outcomes.

Watching with active listening (purposeful informal language learning)

“Television offers important commentary on the way we live, the way we perceive the world and the way in which we articulate these ideas” (Barber et al. 2022)

Television has developed the ability to align its models for transmitting information, knowledge and learning with the cultural objectives and new consumer behaviors of different groups of audiences, confirming the role “as a medium and language able to promote values and to act as a medium that problematizes the questions of life and their pedagogical effects” (Carelli and Sfardini 2022, 2). According to Codreanu and Combe (2019, 155), in the context of informal language learning “multilingual internet, YouTube offers significant potential for learning foreign languages”. New opportunities for autonomous or individual language learning through mobile devices or specifically smartphones (Godwin-Jones 2017), are increasing with the use of video and other authentic materials as “wide and personal learning resources” (Godwin-Jones 2019, 9). In the “individual language learning, as a complex ecological system”, Godwin-Jones (2019) identifies the learner as “a surfer”- whose “trajectory is susceptible to the kind of *initial conditions* (of the individual and the environment”, including background, initiative and competence), subject to constant change, where “successful outcomes are not assured”. Furthermore, we would argue that the learners in this study are more like *musicians* gathered with the initiative to play together, with different backgrounds and competencies, with one shared goal, to mutually enjoy the process of learning through interaction and creativity. In summary, learning can be affected by many factors including 1) the learner’s linguistic and educational background, 2) the availability and suitability of chosen or found online resources, 3) motivation, knowledge, and ability to use and re-use the resources productively; and 4) the degree to which the experience fits the learner’s self-concept in the present and for the future (Godwin-Jones 2019, 8).

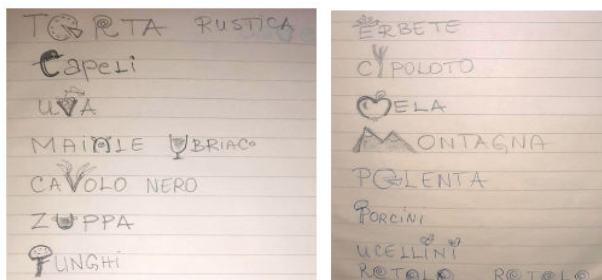
It is important to note that, during this three-year period participants were actively watching and listening to episodes with the intention of developing their Italian language skills (aural comprehension skills). The learning can be regarded as *purposeful* rather than incidental informal learning. The learners were not motivated by extrinsic achievements such as passing an exam or gaining official credentials and recognition. Therefore, in the learning environment learners in this study were *freely watching* the program without any fear of sudden questioning, testing or being graded.

Learning can be described as learning *with a lack of anxious mood* or *learning with the pleasure of learning*, with the interest in discovering other worlds and cultures, and with digital curiosity, having an opportunity to use new communication tools. Additionally, learners have control over the learning event, as they can pause, resume, and rewind the video if needed until they are ready to continue listening, as “emotion–memory effects go beyond the processing of isolated words” (Fuentes, Kroll and Torres 2022, 4).

In the context of classroom teaching and learning the appropriate use of *humor* may influence the students to relax and “be more willing to take part in lessons, giving them greater confidence and

increasing their motivation” (Senior (2011), as cited in Richards 2020, 230). Apart from using humor in speech dialogues, learners noticed elements of humor in writing. In terms of new vocabulary, and practicing vocabulary retention, learners in the research study noted down in drawings some interesting visual representations of certain letters in recipe titles written on the /lavanja/ “lavagna” or “blackboard” in the studio, such as, “uVa” - letter “V” shaped as “grapes”, and other examples presented in the Figure 1.

Figure 1. “Words/letters drawings” presented on the TV show blackboard and noted in a notebook by the learners



According to Deborah Capelli, “from a psychological standpoint, the learner is engaged in a great effort of concentration on language in order to mentally enter the context presented” (Capelli 2020, 295) - in this case in the episode of the TV show. Therefore, we acknowledge that in the game “Il gioco di cinque indizi” (“The Game of 5 Clues”) (Table 1) the learners' curiosity increased and sparked their need for a deeper understanding of the language. Although the learners were not able to enter the competition, watching it from abroad and on demand, and possibly winning great prizes, this factor of anticipation and playing, brought *positive emotions* and the *feeling of success*, especially when the learners knew the right answer to the puzzle.

Table 1. Examples of the game “Il gioco di cinque indizi” (“The Game of 5 Clues”)

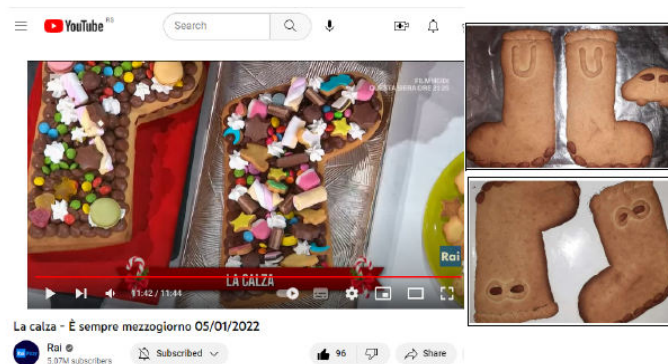
Example 1	Example 2	Example 3	Example 4
1. FISCHIA, MA NON PER FAR COMPLIMENTI; 2. PRIMI ERANO A VAPORE; 3. SI DICE PASSI UNA VOLTA NELLA VITA; 4. SE FAI TARDI LO PERDI; 5. PER CELENTANO ERA DEI DESIDERI.	1. È SEMPRE DI LUNEDÌ, 2. È PERFETTA PER LA GITA FUORI PORTA; 3. SOLITAMENTE NON SI VA A LAVORO; 4. PER TRADIZIONE SI PASSA CON GLI AMICI; 5. VIENE SUBITO DOPO LA PASQUA.	1. È LA SETTIMANA DEDICATA ALLO SCI; 2. È LA CASA PIÙ FAMOSA DEGLI USA; 3. È LA BANDIERA DI CHI SI ARRENDE; 4. È LA CARTA DELLA BERLINGUER; 5. QUELLA “NEVE” STAVA CON I SETTE NANI.	1. NASCE A VERONA; 2. A MOLTI PIACE FARCITO; 3. È COPERTO DA UN VELLO BIANCO; 4. NON HA CANDITI; 5. È IL “RIVALE” DEL PANETTONE.
TRENO (Train)	PASQUETTA (Day after Easter)	BIANCA (White)	PANDORO (Golden Christmas Bread/Cake)

Notetaking - a diary notebook and an alphabetical notebook (index A to Z)

As noted by Kroll and Mendoza (2022), in “bilingual’s two languages are continually active, creating a dynamic interplay across the two languages” (Kroll and Mendoza 2022, 1), therefore, in multilingual learning situations, learners are continually active in creating a dynamic interplay across many languages. The learners discussed and agreed to develop their “system” of writing the unknown words. Therefore, a method of *diary* or *keeping a record of experiences* was applied, specifically 1) a *notebook* was used for immediate notetaking of words, comments and recipes, and 2) a *Serbian Latin alphabetical notebook* (index A to Z), as a “personal dictionary”, was used for writing the unknown words with their translations into Serbian.

In the alphabetical notebook, the words were written in *phonetic spelling* and in an alphabetical order using the learners’ L1 (*Serbian Latin script*) with the initial letter categories in the following order: A, B, C, Č, Ć, D, (dž), Đ, E, F, G, H, I, J, K, L, (lj), M, N, Nj, O, P, R, S, Š, T, U, V, Z, (ž) + ž. The letters in the brackets (dž, lj, ž) were excluded, as there were no equivalent words with these “initial sounds” registered during the listening phase. However, participants decided to use the following letters - ć, č, đ, j, k, nj, š, for the words they recognized to have an equivalent sound in Italian and to add a *new special symbol* “ž” (letter z with a dot above), for the words with the initial sound, as in “*zucchine, zia, zucchero, zucca, zuppa*”, etc. Additionally, learners gathered some of the recipes from the show in a mini recipe book, only those they have considered as interesting and easily replicable dishes they wish to prepare or already have put into practice of making (e.g. “La calza” or “Stocking”, “Panettone gastronomico”, etc.) (Figure 2).

Figure 2. “È sempre mezzogiorno”: “La calza”⁴ - Screenshot (left) episode on January 5th, 2022; (middle and right) “Gingerbread Cake Stockings” made by the learners/research participants



Immediate or postponed online research and reading

Several examples of immediate or postponed online research and additional reading, visual comparison, and will be presented in the following section. In one of the episodes, a specific conversation was proposed by the TV host on the meaning of the words “barbabetola” and “rappa rossa”, with the intention of clarifying the meaning of these words, and therefore, this intrigued the learners to research further, the term */barbabietola/ BARBABIETOLA = beet = /panzari/ παντζάρι = repa (šecerna repa, cvekla, blitva)* and the term */rapa rosa/ RAPA ROSSA = beetroot = /panzari/ παντζάρι = cvekla*. Furthermore, in the bakery section of the TV show, the phrase “ciccioli di maiale” /čićoli di majale/ was researched as the learners had recognized through the image on the screen that this phrase has its equivalent in Serbian, the word “čvarci”. Learners were not sure if such food is also present in other cultures, the English and Greek, therefore, they needed to later do additional research on social

⁴ Link to the You Tube video: RAI “La calza - È sempre mezzogiorno”, 05/01/2022, https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=cV9l_cBMhWo (screenshot taken from the video)

media and interact with friends - native/fluent speakers of these languages, to provide an image and explanation, in order to receive the answers.

In introducing a Sicilian dessert, two new local words were introduced for a sesame bar or sesame seed candy (a traditional Sicilian dessert made with honey, sugar and sesame seeds), where the word /*đirđulena*/*“giuggiulèna”* refers to the “sezamo - sesame - /susami/ σουσάμι - susam”, while the word /*kubajta*/*“cubbaita”*, to the shape of blocks (“croccante siciliano al sesamo”; “kocke ušćerenog susama”). Participants have tasted a similar product in the Greek island of Rhodes, where it is called ΠΑΣΤΕΛΙ /*pasteli*/, therefore, this word had an effect of triggering memories from personal travel experiences and cultural encounters. Another interesting and frequently used words was “*involtino*”, referring to different types of savoury food, having “a rolled shape”, using different types of meat, leaves of vegetables or even pasta, with the filling of (boiled) meat, covered with white sauce and baked in the oven (Serbian explanation of *involtino* = “rolnice od mesa, povrće, ili testa punjenog (kuvanog) mesom, poređane u tepsiji, prelivene bešamel sosom i zapečene u rerni”).

In introducing local dishes and culture, for example, a typical pasta dish of the Italian province of Piacenza, called “*pisarei e fasò*”, was presented in one episode. This dish consisted of gnocchi made of flour and breadcrumbs served with beans. The learners noted the procedure of making it in the target language (Italian) and translated it to L1, as follows:

“(IT) gnocchettino piacentino fatto di pane grattugiato, farina e acqua calda (150 g pane grattugiato, 150 g grano tenero tipo 00, 170 ml di acqua bollente/latte/brodo)” = (SR) “njoketino”, oblik testa razvuče testo, iseče na trake, svaku traku oblikuje u glistu, seče svaki na 2 cm i prstom pritiska, tanji da se testo samo urola kao cevčica = (EN) type of gnocchi pasta thinned on long stripes, each shaped in long worms and cut on 2 cm each, then pressed with two fingers so that it rolls itself.

Specifically effective in bringing the positive emotion-language link was *the choice of music and songs* in the TV show. The music examples included popular themes from the Classical Music Repertoire (instrumental music by J. Strauss, V.A. Mozart, G. Rossini, A. Vivaldi, The Nutcracker, Op. 71: Waltz of the Flowers by Pyotr Ilyich Tchaikovsky, etc.), film music themes (“Breakfast at Tiffany’s”), and Italian songs such as “Rimini, Rimini, Rimini, Rimini...” (motive song of “Zia Chri”), “Tanto pe' canta” (the entry song for a chef from Rome), “Romagna mia”, “Questa è casa mia” by Gigliola Cinquetti, “Gira e va” sung by A. Clerici, “Finche la barca va” by Orietta Berti, “Gondola Veneziana”, Neapolitan songs, songs for children (Il Piccolo Coro dell'Antoniano, Zecchino d'Oro), traditional, popular songs (in Italian, English, French, etc.), or contemporary and new Italian songs, especially around the time of The Sanremo Music Festival.

Additional multilingual translation using digital tools and creation of multilingual dictionaries (picture dictionary and word digital dictionary)

During the three years, learners gathered and created a digital personal *Italian - English - Greek - Serbian* dictionary consisting of a rather important corpus of terms (more than 1200 lexical items) and where possible, their possible multilingual translations. The idea of the learners was to foster a culture of multilingualism in the closest community of people, including family members and friends, and to help younger members in developing language affinity towards foreign language learning. With the proposed idea by the participant Jelica (mother), through *mutual actions*, a picture dictionary was developed (Figure 3), consisting of 5 notebooks, based on different topics, such as fruit, vegetables, food dishes, sweets, animals, etc.

Figure 3. Multilingual Picture Dictionary (in paper)



The other participant, worked on the creation of similar “digital flashcards” using “Instagram Story” as a tool, for the development of an interactive form of a digital dictionary, enabling multiple answers quiz questions, insertion of symbols and emoticons such as flags for indicating the language, addition of interactive text and sound inserts, to personal photos or videos of food, objects, and places. This interactive form of the dictionary will be presented in detail in future research studies. The efforts of creating this interactive dictionary, reflect the participants' understanding of the importance of pedagogical work with young people in family education and helping in developing and nurturing the desire to learn foreign languages.

The first strategy in multilingual translation, suggested by Jelica (mother) was the creation of *multilingual charts* (Table 2). The charts were divided into 4 columns, each for every language (Italian, English, Greek, Serbian). The pronunciation of words was written using the *Serbian alphabet (Latin)*, rather than the symbols of the International Phonetic Alphabet, (Table 1). The reason for this can be found in the agreement of the learners, regarding that they both find it more appropriate to use lower letters of the Serbian alphabet, such as /š/ instead of /sh/, or /c/ instead of /ts/, etc. It was also in accordance with their main aim of developing listening skills (aural comprehension skills), primarily in Italian language. For example, /mecođorno/ MEZZOGIORNO = NOON = /mesimeri/ ΜΕΣΗΜΕΡΙ = PODNE or /pentola/ PENTOLA = COOKING POT = /kacarola/ ΚΑΤΣΑΡΟΛΑ = ŠERPA. As mentioned earlier, the letters “ć, č, đ, j, k, š” were used for the words they recognised to have an equivalent sound in Italian. Additionally, one new special symbol “ž” was introduced (letter z with a dot above), for the words, such as: zucchini, zia, zuppa, etc. The same model was applied to the pronunciation of Greek words.

Table 2. Multilingual Chart (an extract from a list of more than 1200 words)

ITALIAN	ENGLISH	GREEK	SERBIAN
/akva/ AQUA	WATER	/nero/ ΝΕΡΟ	VODA
/aranča/ ARANCIA	ORANGE	/portokali/ ΠΟΡΤΟΚΑΛΙ	NARANDŽA
/bosko/ BOSCO	WOODS	/dasos/ ΔΑΣΟΣ	ŠUMA
/čokolato/ CIOCCOLATO	CHOCOLATE	/soholata, sokolata/ ΣΟΚΟΛΑΤΑ	ČOKOLADA
/čizkejk/ CHEESECAKE	CHEESECAKE	/cizkejk/ ΤΣΕΙΣΚΕΪΚ	ČIZKEJK
/domani/ DOMANI	TOMORROW	/avrio/ ΑΥΡΙΟ	SUTRA
/đirasole/ GIRASOLE	SUNFLOWER	/iljotropio/ ΗΛΙΟΤΡΟΠΙΟ	SUNCOKRET
/ezato/ ESATTO!	TRUE! (RIGHT!)	/sosta/ ΣΩΣΤΑ	TAČNO!
/farina/ FARINA	FLOUR	/alevri/ ΑΛΕΥΡΙ	BRAŠNO
/gjanda/ LA GHIANDA	ACORN	/velanidi/ ΒΕΛΑΝΙΔΙ	ŽIR
/insenjamento/ INSEGNA MENTO	TEACHING	/didaskalija/ ΔΙΔΑΣΚΑΛΙΑ	NASTAVA I UČENJE
/jogurt/ YOGURT	YOGURT	/jaurti/ ΓΙΑΟΥΡΤΙ	JOGURT
/kanela/ CANNELLA	CINNAMON	/kanela/ ΚΑΝΕΛΑ	CIMET
/limone/ LIMONE	LEMON	/lemoni/ ΛΕΜΟΝΙ	LIMUN
/mecođorno/ MEZZOGIOR NO	NOON	/mesimeri/ ΜΕΣΗΜΕΡΙ	PODNE
/mela/ MELA	APPLE	/milo/ ΜΗΛΟ	JABUKA
/Natale/ NATALE	CHRISTMAS	/Hristujena/ ΧΡΙΣΤΟΥΓΕΝΝΑ	BOŽIĆ
/njoki/ GNOCCHI	GNOCCHI	/nioki/ ΝΙΟΚΙ	NJOKE
/olio/ OLIO	OIL	/ladi/ ΛΑΔΙ	ULJE
/orto/ ORTO	GARDEN	/lahanokipos/ ΛΑΧΑΝΟΚΗΠ ΟΣ	BAŠTA, POVRTNJAK
/pane/ PANE	BREAD	/psomi/ ΨΩΜΙ	HLEB
/pentola/ PENTOLA	COOKING POT	/kacarola/ ΚΑΤΣΑΡΟΛΑ	ŠERPA
/ravaneli/ RAVANELLI	RADISHES	/rapanakja/ ΡΑΠΑΝΑΚΙΑ	ROTKVICE

ITALIAN	ENGLISH	GREEK	SERBIAN
/rizo/ RISO	RICE	/rizi/ ΡΥΖΙ	PIRINAČ (RIŽA)
/sabja/ SABBIA	SAND	/amos/ ΑΜΜΟΣ	PESAK
/sole/ SOLE	SUN	/iljo, iljos/ ΗΛΙΟΣ	SUNCE
/širopo/ SCIROPPPO	SYRUP	/siropi/ ΣΙΡΟΠΙ	SIRUP
/šoljere/ SCIOGLIERE	MELT	/ljonno/ ΛΥΩΝΩ	TOPITI
/šue-šue/ “Sciuè Sciuè”?	“(in a) hurry”	/grigora-grigora/ ΓΡΗΓΟΡΑ-ΓΡΗΓΟΡΑ	BRZO-BRZO
/takino/ TACCHINO	TURKEY	/galopula/ ΓΑΛΟΠΟΥΛΑ	ĆURKA
/uovo, uova/ UOVO, UOVA	EGG, EGGS	/avgo, avga/ ΑΥΓΟ; ΑΥΓΑ	JAJE, JAJA
/uva, uveta/ UVA, UVETTA	GRAPES, RAISINS	/stafili, stafides/ ΣΤΑΦΥΛΙ, ΣΤΑΦΙΔΕΣ	GROŽĐE, SUVO GROŽĐE
/volo/ VOLO	FLIGHT	/ptisi/ ΠΤΗΣΗ	LET
/zbaljato/ SBAGLIATO	WRONG	/latos/ ΛΑΘΟΣ	GREŠKA, POGREŠNO
/zia; cia/ ZIA	AUNT	/tija/ ΘΕΙΑ	TETKA/UJNA/STRI NA

For the translation of words in English and Greek, participants mostly used the mobile app Google Translate or Google Search, for checking if the translation corresponds to the visual representation of such, such as in the example of “quaglia” or “quail” (English), or “prepelica” in the native language of the learners. Furthermore, in learning about specific regional dishes, for example, bread or a cake titled “Resta di Como”, learners noted only a descriptive translation in the L1 (Serbian) and English, the Greek translation was omitted, as the learners are at the beginning level of learning this language. In this situation, the translations was written as follows: */resta di komo/ Resta di Como = (EN) A traditional Italian sweet bread from the Lake Como area (Lombardia, Italy), usually made with a combination of flour, butter, raisins, sugar, candied fruit, yeast, eggs, honey, lemon zest, and salt. = (SR) Tradicionalni italijanski slatki hleb iz oblasti jezera Komo (Lombardija, Italija), napravljen od brašna, butera, suvog grožđa, šećera, kandiranog voća, kvasca, jaja, meda, malo korice limuna i soli.*

Discussion

Since the beginning of the 21st century, language-teaching methodology has centered on language use, and listening competence may be regarded as one of the main gateways to foreign language learning. Research evidence has shown that in formal and informal language learning, *engagement* and *motivation* are “crucial factors”, and in order to face motivational challenges “teachers and researchers have used a variety of software and applications” (Web tools, services, applications, games, MUVes,

communication tools (Panagiotidis, Krystalli and Arvanitis 2023, 71). In this research study, the learners had a clear vision of benefiting from “the multimodality of the environment and maximizing their learning possibilities” (Codreanu and Combe 2019, 155). The paper illustrated the actions conducted with the aim of personal vocabulary expansion in the Italian language and the development of multilingual competences using digital media (authentic video content). The participants of the study included two family members (the author of the study and her mother), both interested in spending time learning languages through collaboration and interaction using digital media.

In a research study by Damanik and Katemba, findings confirmed that acquiring new vocabulary through “a worldwide application of everyday life”, specifically, an on-demand movies and series video streaming service titled “Netflix”, provided college students with “an interesting approach to learning new vocabulary” (Damanik and Katemba 2021, 65) and developing language skills in English. In connection to the previous, the authentic materials used in the research study were the three editions of the Italian public television service (Rai) show “È sempre mezzogiorno”. The learning activities were enacted from the end of September 2020 and continued to the Easter episodes in April 2023. The authentic and methodologically non-adapted language learning material included up to 600 hours of exposure to the Italian language. The choice of the show, as the learning material, was based according to the interests and personal preferences of the learners. In this research, positive emotions were as stated in Richards (2020, 231) “the driving forces of motivation in second language learning, leading to feelings of success or achievement, enhancing the learner’s sense of self-esteem, encouraging learners to invest further in their learning”. There were no negative emotions noted down by the participants, therefore, there was no evidence of disappointment, failure, discouragement, boredom, concern, fear (of making mistakes), confusion, or a sense of frustration of *not being able to use/understand/improve/perform*. *Positive emotions* included different feelings such as being amused, calm, confident, curious, engaged, enthusiastic, interested, excited, happy, interested, joyful, passionate, pleased, relaxed and satisfied. In accordance with the affective filter hypothesis, and the three factors: motivation, self-confidence and anxiety, the results indicate that the two language learners, as participants of this study, had high levels of motivation and self-confidence in their learning journey, with the non-existing level of anxiety, therefore, enabling the learners to “receive and take in plenty of input” (Ni 2012).

As in this case study, there was no teacher-student interaction (Richards 2020), emotions were “the outcome of interactions between the learners, the media and language sources and materials used in the learning context”. Referring to the Gardner’s “Socio-educational Model”, motivation is “a combination of effort plus a desire to achieve the goal of learning the language plus favorable attitude towards learning the language” (Ni 2012, 1509), the results of the case study reveal that the *effort in acquiring foreign language* vocabulary was supported by *an intensive desire* of the participants to achieve their goal of learning foreign languages and develop digital competences through interaction in the learning processes. Learners used a variety of learning techniques in order to optimize their chances of acquiring new vocabulary and multilingual competence with the use of digital media and authentic language content. The collaborative learning tasks included (1) watching with active listening, (2) notetaking of the unknown words and writing the words in a diary notebook and an alphabetical notebook (index A to Z), (3) online research and reading, in various languages, about specific unknown words and phrases, (4) multilingual translation of the words into Serbian (L1), English (L2), and Greek (L3) using digital media tools, and (5) the creation of personal multilingual picture dictionary and a personal multilingual dictionary in digital format. Additionally, learners gathered a personal recipe book of interesting and easily replicable dishes, some of which they immediately put into practice of making.

Dörnyei (1994) using the concept of orientation introduced by Gardner and following Crookes’ and Schmidt’s initiative, developed a taxonomy of motivation, a framework of motivation in the language classroom comprised of the *language level* (motives and orientations), *learner level* (achievement and

self-confidence) and *learning situation level* (intrinsic and extrinsic motives). In correlation to the previous, learners of this study were motivated by intrinsic achievements, and not by extrinsic achievements such as passing an exam or gaining official credentials and recognition. They were *freely interacting with the learning content* without any fear of sudden questioning, testing or being graded. Negative emotions were not experienced and there was a complete *lack of anxious mood*.

Chosen digital media content offered *quality language input* and provided a positive atmosphere, leading to *learning with the pleasure of learning*. Learners were highly engaged in the effort of concentration on the language “in order to mentally enter the context presented” (Capelli 2020). The interest in discovering other worlds and cultures was evident in the duration of the learning period and activities enacted in the learning period. Learning was also guided by *digital curiosity*, exploring new ways of using different media in gaining full control over the learning event. Additionally, the use of humor and the factor of anticipation in playing different vocabulary games, brought positive emotions and satisfaction of successful understanding of the speaker and language being learned. In conclusion, with this research study, we aimed to contribute to a less researched intersection of the *linguistic wellbeing* of learners and the pedagogical research literature, where the term “linguistic wellbeing” is referred to as “a complex and dynamic system of developing, perfecting and strengthening skills of caring and responsibility for linguistic knowledge and use of language(s) in learning, education and different interactions between one’s experiences across all life domains” (Marić 2021, 24).

Final remarks

“Riding the digital wilds successfully involves learner choices and actions, along with the further development of internal attributes of initiative, persistence, and creativity” (Godwin-Jones 2019, 19)

Although four decades have passed, we may still agree with Brown (1973, 232), and his statement that “today there is an increasing awareness of the necessity to examine the human personality to find answers to perplexing problems in language learning”, and offer research findings that open new possibilities for rethinking independent informal multilingual language learning. The study can be of benefit to teachers and researchers in the fields of Lifelong Language Learning (LLL) and multilingual education, providing an opportunity to further examine the affective side of informal language learning and use and the importance of integrating and creating digital resources in the context of their teaching practice. The results could also guide course book writers and curriculum designers in providing quality online materials by integrating technology-based informal learning strategies.

The study might be limited in the number of research participants. Despite its possible limitations, the present study unveiled different learners’ strategies used to develop and enhance Italian language proficiency (aural comprehension and personal vocabulary expansion) and the development of multilingual competence, using digital media (authentic video content).

“Neither linguistics nor psychology nor any other discipline alone will produce final answers.

The next decade should provide us with information about the human person which, when creatively interrelated with our accumulated knowledge in theoretical linguistics, sociolinguistics, psycholinguistics, and the psychology of learning, will possibly enable us to construct a viable theory of second language acquisition.”(Brown 1973, 242-243).

In conclusion, similar or comparative studies might be conducted in other contexts to examine further the link between the affective side in informal and multilingual language learning using digital media. It is hoped that the study has contributed to the research on *the affective side of language learning and use*, providing insight into the learning efforts of multilingual learners using digital media to make a difference in their language acquisition, during and after the epidemic outbreaks (from 2020 to 2023).

Informed Consent Statement: Informed consent was obtained from all subjects involved in the study.

References

- Arnold, J. (2009). Affect in L2 learning and teaching. *Elia*, 9, 145-151.
- Arnold, J. (2011). Attention to Affect in Language Learning. *Anglistik. International Journal of English Studies*, 22(1): 11-22.
- Barber, S., Caoduro, E., Knörr, K. (2022). Editorial: Education & TV. Histories of a Vision. *VIEW Journal of European Television History and Culture*, 11(21), 1-4. <http://doi.org/10.18146/view.301>.
- Barcelos, A., Aragão, R., Ruohotie-Lyhty, M., Colombo Gomes, G. (2022). Contemporary perspectives on research about emotions in language teaching. *Revista Brasileira de Linguística Aplicada*, 22: 1-16. [10.1590/1984-6398202221654](https://doi.org/10.1590/1984-6398202221654).
- Bin-Hady, W.R.A., Al-Tamimi, N.O.M. (2021). The use of technology in informal English language learning: evidence from Yemeni undergraduate students, *Learning and Teaching in Higher Education: Gulf Perspectives*, 17(2): 107-120. <https://doi.org/10.1108/LTHE-09-2020-0037>.
- Brown, H.D. (1973). Affective Variables in Second Language Acquisition. *Language Learning*, 23(2): 231-244.
- Cappelli, D. (2020). Language learning through TV: The RAI offer between past and present. *Qulso*, 6, 281-304. doi: <http://dx.doi.org/10.13128/QULSO-2421-7220-9703>.
- Carelli, P., Sardini, A. (2022). Educational Television Goes Digital. *VIEW Journal of European Television History and Culture*, 11(21): 95-103. <https://doi.org/10.18146/view.281>.
- Damanik, I., Katemba, C. (2021). "College Student Perspective' Toward Netflix as Digital L2 Learning Aid on Vocabulary Improvement." 8 ISC *Proceedings: Arts and Education* [Online], 57-66.
- Dörnyei, Z. (1994). Motivation and Motivating in the Foreign Language Classroom. *The Modern Language Journal*, 78(3): 273-284.
- Fuentes, V., N.A., Kroll, J.F., Torres, J. (2022). What Heritage Bilinguals Tell Us about the Language of Emotion. *Languages*, 7(2): 1-22. <https://doi.org/10.3390/languages7020144>.
- Godwin-Jones, R. (2017). Smartphones and language learning. *Language Learning & Technology*, 21(2): 3-17.
- Godwin-Jones, R. (2019). Riding the digital wilds: Learner autonomy and informal language learning. *Language Learning & Technology*, 23(1): 8-25. <https://doi.org/10.125/44667>.
- Hurd, S. (2002). Taking account of individual learner differences in the planning and delivery of language courses for open, distance and independent learning. In D. Head, M. Kelly, E. Jones and T. Tinsley (Eds.) *Setting the Agenda: Languages, Linguistics and Area Studies in Higher Education conference*, University of Manchester. URL: <https://web-archive.southampton.ac.uk/www.llas.ac.uk/events/archive/454.html>
- Hauck, M., Hurd, S. (2005). Exploring the link between language anxiety and learner self-management in open language learning contexts. *European Journal of Open, Distance and e-Learning*, 2: 1-23.
- Kourtis-Kazoullis, V., Aravossitas, T., Skourtou, E., Trifonas, P. P. (Eds.). (2019). *Interdisciplinary research approaches to multilingual education*. Routledge.
- Krashen, S. (1981). *Second Language Acquisition and Second Language Learning*. Oxford: Pergamon.
- Kroll, J., Mendoza, G. (2022). Bilingualism: A Cognitive and Neural View of Dual Language Experience. *Oxford Research Encyclopedia of Psychology*. Retrieved 1 March 2023, from <https://oxfordre.com/psychology/view/10.1093/acrefore/9780190236557.001.0001/acrefore-9780190236557-e-900>.
- MacIntyre, P. (2002). "Motivation, Anxiety and Emotion in Second Language Acquisition", In: *Individual Differences and Instructed Language Learning*, II, Language Learning & Language Teaching (Chapter 3, 45–68) (Ed.) Peter Robinson, John Benjamins Publishing.

- Marić, S. (2021). Pedagogical Uses of Language Focused on Music to Support Linguistic Wellbeing During Emergency Remote Teaching. *Educational Role of Language Journal*, 2(6): 24-38. <https://doi.org/10.36534/erlj.2021.02.02>.
- Ni, H. (2012). The Effects of Affective Factors in SLA and Pedagogical Implications. *Theory and Practice in Language Studies*, 2(7): 1508-1513. doi:10.4304/tpls.2.7.1508-1513.
- Panagiotidis, P., Krystalli, P., Arvanitis, P. (2023). Technology as a Motivational Factor in Foreign Language Learning. *European Journal of Education*, 6(1): 69-84. <https://doi.org/10.26417/ejed.v1i3.p43-52>.
- Richards, J. C. (2020). Exploring Emotions in Language Teaching. *RELC Journal*, 53(1): 225-239. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0033688220927531>.
- Stavans, A., Hoffmann, C. (2015). Multilingual language competence and use. In A. Stavans and C. Hoffmann (Eds.). *Multilingualism - Key Topics in Sociolinguistics* (pp. 156-192). Cambridge University Press. doi:10.1017/CBO9781316144534.009.

An analysis of the interplay between affective and cognitive components of teacher identity among native and non-native EFL in-service trainees¹⁵

ISSN 2657-9774; <https://doi.org/10.36534/erlj.2023.01.11>

H. Kübra Er*, Emel Küçükali**

*Erzurum Technical University, Turkey; kubra.er@erzurum.edu.tr

**Dokuz Eylül University, Turkey; emel.kucukali@deu.edu.tr

Abstract

The present study aims to explore the affective and cognitive components teacher identity by examining the EFL teachers' and in-service trainers' attitudes toward in-service professional development training process at a private university in Turkey. The participants, who were selected through convenient sampling, consist of native and non-native EFL instructors; EFL in-service trainees (N=6) and teacher trainers; EFL in-service teacher trainers (N=2). The data was collected via semi-structured interviews conducted with the teachers and Behavior Observation Rubric completed by teacher trainers. In the first phase, EFL teacher trainees were observed in class and given post observation feedback by in-service teacher trainers, who completed the rubric evaluating the reactions of the teachers to four categories: (1) Attitude to feedback, (2) Response to feedback, (3) Behavior, and (4) Independent work. In the second phase, teachers were interviewed about their perceptions of the in-service training process; Interview data (qualitative data) were analyzed through content analysis, while descriptive statistics (frequency) was used to analyze Behavior Observation Rubric scores (quantitative data). The findings indicated differences between native and non-native EFL instructors (trainees). According to interviews, native EFL instructors felt more enthusiastic about professional development sessions compared to non-native EFL teachers due to several educational background, cultural differences and so on. This was supported by the results from the Behavior Observation Rubric, which revealed higher scores for native EFL instructors than for non-native instructors in terms of attitude to feedback, response to feedback, behavior, and independent work during the professional development; observation process.

Keywords: native vs. non-native EFL instructors, teacher identity, EFL in-service trainees

Theoretical background

Teacher identity and reflection

The term "teacher identity" has been defined in a variety of ways by numerous scholars. Trent (2012) claims that the two key components of Teacher Identity are Practice and Language. The procedures that go into these two components are engagement, arrangement, creativity, practical consequences, duty, appraisal, and authorizing. Trent (2012) thinks that when Practice and Language are united, agency and discourse happen, and teacher identity comprises of the aforementioned components. By referring to them as an integrated framework of the teacher identity, Trent (2012) combines these elements.

Teachers operate with a similar level of subjectivity, so teacher identity is viewed as a process that is related to the competency of the individuals and also to the social attitude of the background they belong to, as stated by Trent (Weedon 1997, 32). Teachers operate with a similar level of subjectivity.

⁵ The current research is the modified version of the PHD assignment submitted as a student research to Yeditepe University, Turkey. Besides, the abstract of the research is published in the 12th International ELT Research Conference held on May 16-18th, 2022 / Çanakkale, Turkey.

The various structures and belief systems that underpin educators' perceptions of their independence and dependence on their teachers' teachers serve as the definition of teacher identity.

Two categories the reflection in action and the reflection on action are used to categorize Schön's (1983) definition of reflection. Schön (1983) asserts that while one of these sorts of reflection takes place right then and there, the other type occurs later on in the process. Involvement, Participation, Individual Thinking, Planning What to Do Next, Reacting, and Directly Interfering when issues arise can all be summed up as Reflection in Action procedures. The important processes to be followed in Reflection on Action are thinking about what happened, what went wrong, or how you would do it differently next time (Schön 1983). Schön (1983) claims that people have schemata in their cognitive structure that relate to how they plan, carry out, and evaluate their activities. Moreover, Schon (1983) believe that few people are aware of their schemata, which are meant to encourage them to participate in activities. As a result, to their disadvantage, fewer people are aware of their schemata or the assumptions they employ.

There is not a universally accepted definition of "productive reflection," despite the fact that many researchers hold the opinion that reflection and the concept of "productivity" are inextricably linked. No one can verify that the reflections made by many teachers are true, despite the fact that they are thought to be reflective or have reflectivity. Another significant problem that deserves attention is the lack of training provided to instructors in the correct methods of reflection, which include useful scaffolding phases. Researchers assert that in order to be administered to and directed by the specific scaffolding framework, the majority of teachers must be exposed to the appropriate academic research (Moore-Russo and Wilsey 2014). Teachers often conduct ineffective reflection in schools and other institutions. Regrettably, there aren't many instructors in most nations who enjoy talking about their classrooms, their methods of instruction, their interactions with students, and other topics. Rivalry within the organization where they work can be viewed as the cause of this problem (Allwright 2003).

As was already said, most nations, including Turkey, struggle with reflection due to a variety of circumstances, such as outdated views of what constitutes good instruction, personality traits that prevent critical thought, and the environments in which people work. Additionally, Odabaşı and Çimer (2012) suggest that unwillingness, which Dewey (1933) characterized as a lack of responsibility, wholeheartedness, and open-mindedness, may also be a contributing factor.

Considering the aforementioned data, it is clear that these concepts relate to teacher research as well. Teacher research is defined as organized methodological inspection that is both qualitative and quantitative, directed by educators in their own specific expert contexts, exclusively or in collaboration with other educators and/or colleagues, and that aims to improve educators' perceptions of a particular aspect of their work. Moreover, teacher research may enhance the standard of education and learning in certain classrooms. Also, it might more thoroughly highlight instructional method and institutional change. While some research on the subject had unfavorable conclusions, others, including the case study by Rankin and Becker (2006) involving a German teacher, had favorable consequences. Specifically, it improved the teacher's own reflections on his performance by giving him better approaches toward portraying and investigating his own unique remedial criticism techniques in the classroom. This teacher uses corrective feedback on SLA literature with the help of engagement in addition to the improvement of the educator's pedagogical development. The case study of the German teacher makes it simple to draw the conclusion that examining how classroom concerns relate to reading strengthened the research (cited in Borg 2010). Similarly, taken this notion into account Global pedagogical organizations like the Commission of the European Communities (CCE 2007), the English Department for Education (DFE 2012), and the Professional Standards for the Accreditation of Teacher Preparation Institutions by the United States National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education all recognize the importance of both individual and collaborative reflection (NCATE 2008). These organizations, among others, work to improve the caliber of teacher training, research, professional development, and teacher needs for pedagogical knowledge and reflection (Greg and Graham 2014).

The stages of the Philosophical Community of Inquiry Approach are outlined by Demissie (2015) in terms of the reflective thinking of language teachers. By using examples, the author describes the subsequent stages. Stimulation, Question/Development, Reflection, and Discussion/Dialogue are these stages. The term "stimulus" refers to the visual or auditory representation of an idea or concept. A question or issue that is raised in relation to the subject at hand might be described as development. The third step, discussion, focuses on better understanding issues and mainly aims to promote critical and constructive thinking. Also, coworkers have the chance to agree or disapprove. All in all, the philosophical community of inquiry approach's final step, reflection, entails a conversation on the subject at hand. Teachers converse with one another about the perceptions they held at the start of the reflection. They discuss whether or not their perception of the relevant topic has altered in their minds.

Teacher education/educators

Teachers who wish to advance in many facets of their professional development should be given a supportive and encouraging environment by teacher educators. For the majority of teachers, these professional development activities can occasionally be difficult because they call for a deep understanding of pedagogy as well as familiarity with various research models (Allwright 2003). Theoretical background as well as a chance for its practical application should therefore be included in teacher education together with the concepts, methodology, approaches, and philosophy.

The term "Practical Principles," which refers to the acquisition of principles combining Practice and Reflection, is another crucial factor that needs to be taken into account. Indirect practice is the development of effective comprehension, judgment, and aptitudes in solitary situations. On the other hand, Direct Practice takes place in a real classroom setting through active participation (Tang, Wong and Cheng 2015). Regrettably, there are numerous factors that contribute to the ineffectiveness of teacher education poor various nations, including Turkey. The most important one is that there are substantial disparities between established and underdeveloped cities or regions of the nation in terms of the context of the schools, the backgrounds of the teachers, the curricula, and the expectations. These significant variations revealed improved perceptions of teacher education in Turkey's underdeveloped cities and regions (Çakıroğlu 2003).

There are, nevertheless, a sizable percentage of teachers who hold extreme viewpoints on teacher education. Although if some of them run the risk of developing "Burned out" syndrome, there are certain instructors who are not at all hesitant to offer their thoughts, are open to reflection, and foster and promote their professional growth abilities based on pedagogical knowledge. To improve teacher education globally, there are undoubtedly a lot of factors that must be taken into account. The following procedure, which can be useful for teacher education is summarized by Allwright (2003); 1. bringing clarity to perplexing subjects in the classroom to raise awareness; making arrangements for comprehension by receiving fundamental educational and pedagogical strategies to enhance teachers' understandings; 2. thinking "harder" with different instructors (peers and/or co-participants, colleagues) inside and/or outside the classroom; 3. participating more seriously in what is happening, as it is happening; 4. to sum up, what counts is closely related to reflexively sharing and evaluating individual/group experiences, thinking critically about "progress," discussing potential individual/group moves, and sharing individual comprehension forms as a way of "supporting" others and inviting others to join teacher education (Allwright 2003). Regarding the procedure of teacher education similarly, as stated by Kurtoğlu (2014) what seemed to be recurring issues in the field of teacher development and training are related to the availability of financial possibilities as well as the regularity and practical implementations of the chances offered.

Finally, an expression used the metaphors of buyer and "keeping an account" to describe teachers and teacher education. According to this interpretation, an instructor is a form of "broker" and learning is a type of expenditure (Graham and Phelps 2003).

Native/non-native English speakers of teachers

Teachers that speak English fluently or not can be found all throughout the world, including Turkey. Additionally, for a variety of reasons, some teachers choose to travel abroad in order to teach in various locations around the world. The economic situation of their own country, the fact that native speakers have an advantage in places where they are desperately needed (especially in countries like Turkey where English is not a language of instruction), being bilingual, and other factors are among the important reasons why (mostly) Native English speaking teachers travel abroad. The instance and the previously listed problems are fairly comparable. The number of native speakers does not, however, improve the quality of education because not all native speakers have a teaching credential or the necessary pedagogical training. On the other hand, Turkey is implementing numerous projects to improve the caliber of English teachers. In Turkey, there are a lot of Native speakers with degrees in ELT. By bringing diversity to the sector, such teachers advance the teaching of English in Turkey. There are numerous initiatives in Turkey that strive to advance and improve the caliber of English education, as Coşkun (2013) noted. Working with native speakers or hiring them has both benefits and drawbacks. For instance, given that native teachers are more familiar with the students' backgrounds, individual peculiarities, needs, and interests, non-native English speakers are less fortunate in terms of the teaching setting than native teachers. Therefore, it is clear why Turkish English teachers profit more due to their in-depth understanding of the regional context (Coşkun 2013).

Furthermore, while the majority of native English speakers are hired only on the basis of their proficiency in the language, they may not have the necessary pedagogical expertise, language awareness, or language teaching style to function in the sector. In the USA, detractors of this theory contend that teachers who are non-native English speakers are less likely to possess strong oral communication abilities, lexical proficiency, grammatical/linguistic understanding, and metalinguistic awareness. Many foreign English teachers consider English to be the lingua franca of the entire world, and as a result, there is a high demand for language teachers. Many institutions are looking for English teachers, both native speakers and non-native speakers (Walkinshaw and Duong 2012).

Classroom observations/classroom dialogue and professional development

The act of observing a classroom has a long history in pre-service teacher preparation and ongoing professional development (CPD), where it has typically been used in a formative way to provide performance feedback or examples of alternative teaching styles. In an effort to combine its fundamental formative function with a new emphasis on accountability, it has, however, been widely used as a policy instrument over the past 20 years (Wragg et al. 1996). Recent policy changes in England are a good illustration of this concept of observation as a multipurpose assessment tool capable of fostering professional development for individual teachers while also keeping an eye on and raising standards of classroom performance across the entire sector (O'Leary and Brooks 2014).

The majority of administrations in England have recognized the significance of classroom observations as a key tool for evaluating and improving teachers' performance. Despite their importance in national programs for teacher development, the effects of classroom observation on particular instructors and on enhancing the standards of teaching and learning are still little understood. Further education (FE) in general or FE instructors in particular have not received much attention.

In addition to these, current initiatives to evaluate the quality of teaching and learning have led to the further education sector in England normalizing a number of reductionist practices. As a result, quantitative performance statistics have become overused. Using lesson observation as an exemplar and data from a countrywide survey, this article examines the use of observation and its impact on further education instructors' practice (O'Leary and Wood 2017).

At ten FE institutions located around the West Midlands region of England, O'Leary and Brooks (2014) conducted a mixed-methods study using questionnaires and semi-structured interviews. The paper's

conclusion raises questions about the suitability of current observation assessment regimes in FE and the extent to which these systems are capable of accomplishing their stated objectives. It also places the results in the context of broader research into teachers' ongoing professional development.

In addition to these, in recent years, research on classroom discussion has grown (Muhonen et al. 2018, O'Connor et al. 2015). Discussion in the classroom entails debating and examining various points of view while respectfully and critically criticizing one another's viewpoints (Wegerif 2007). This calls for a special ethos of respect and trust in the classroom, reinforced by teachers who promote students' willingness to take risks and engage in active, equitable engagement (Howe et al. 2019, Kim & Wilkinson 2019). Also, according to the literature, numerous research have been conducted to explore how classroom observation could affect collegiality (Bell & Cooper 2013, Bell & Thomson 2018, Carroll & O'Loughlin 2014).

Taken information above there are several opportunities for teachers to expand their knowledge of and practice with educational discourse. A crucial part of professional development for conversation has been teachers' reflection on their professional practice, which frequently revolves around classroom videos (e.g. Grau et al. 2017, Lefstein & Snell 2014). To create a dialogic learning culture and routines, instructors can use the practical solutions provided by other professional development initiatives (Hardman 2019, Michaels & O'Connor 2015). In addition to these professional developments can take many different forms and is a crucial component of educational quality and improvement (Education Commission 2019). Teachers' commitment to professionalism and interest in their own practices feed this (Cochran-Smith & Lytle 2009). Though it can be done alone, inquiry is frequently carried out by stable communities of practitioners, which may or may not also include teachers and other stakeholders (DeLuca et al. 2015). A group of teachers inside a school recorded lessons and student interviews for the study by Charteris and Smardon (2015), as an illustration. Then, as their colleagues asked them questions and provided "dialogic feedback," they thought back on their recordings. Thus, keeping this in mind, professional gains, particularly understanding one's own practices (Nelson and Slavit 2007), increased self-efficacy, and the potential for change are the most frequently cited advantages of inquiry (Amels et al. 2019). When engaging in research demands new abilities, such as data literacy for effective data collection and analysis (DeLuca et al., 2015), it can be challenging and risky. Inquiries may be difficult for teachers to finish for a variety of reasons, such as shifting employment demands or academic priorities (Hennessy, Kershner et al. 2021).

According to Kurtoğlu (2014) here are some important aspects of professional development that should be taken into account: the availability of technological equipment; budget and investment concerns; access and software; training opportunities and their integration into the curriculum; technology-supported teaching and learning; • Opportunities for employee development and in-service training, including INSETs, workshops, developmental sessions, and induction programs • Special Interest Groups (SIGs), teacher forums; research groups, institutional research projects; chances to observe and provide feedback on lessons; opportunities for professional networking. • Teacher training courses (such as CELTA, DELTA, post-DELTA/post-MA opportunities, additional training courses, etc.); • Research groups, institutional research projects; • Opportunities for observation and feedback on lessons; • Opportunities for professional networking.

Overall, there is a large body of literature on lesson observation, classroom dialogue and professional development in the field of ELT although it mostly focuses on the "Theoretical Framework of Lesson Observation" in England and Europe, as well as classroom observation in those countries' future educational sectors. In light of this, there aren't as many studies comparing "Perspective of Native and Non-Native EFL Instructors" for In-Service Teacher Training in Higher Education Context, specifically for lesson observation and teacher identity, not only in Turkey but also in England and Europe. Further research comparing Native and Non-Native EFL Instructors regarding observation and teacher training

activities, teacher identity, reflection in the context of EFL will build on the significance and contribution of the current study.

Methodology

This study aims to answer the following research questions;

RQ1: How do teacher trainers evaluate teachers' identity development during the in-service professional development training at a Private University in Turkey?

RQ2: What are EFL instructors' perceptions of the influence of in-service professional development training on their teacher identity?

Participants and setting

Six EFL instructors and two teacher trainers participated in the study whose ages ranged from 27-46. Their profile differs in terms of pedagogical education background that they have received in different parts of the world. Three of the participants are native speakers of English who have had their teaching degrees in the UK, USA, and Europe. Some of those native speakers have also had their additional teaching certificates like CELTA, DELTA, and TESOL. The remaining three participants are Turkish and they are also currently EFL instructors at a private university in Turkey. These instructors received their BA degrees in English Language Teaching and English Literature in Turkey except for one who is Turkish but studied at a university in the UK. Participants 1, 2, and 4 are native English speakers of teachers, and participants 3, 5, and 6 are non-native teachers. Informed consent form was taken from instructors.

Table 1. Information about participants

The number of participants	Information about participants
N=3	Native Speakers of English (EFL Instructor)
N=3	Non-Native Speakers of English (EFL Instructor)
N=2	Teacher Trainers

Data collection tools

Semi-structured Interview with teachers and Behavior Observation Rubric completed by teacher trainers were used to collect the data. The interview consists of four open-ended questions about the observation process in order to explore the perception of both Native and Non-Native EFL instructors' attitudes toward teacher trainers. Interview questions were related to the observer's attitude or the exploration being evaluative, judgmental, descriptive, or encouraging, a chance for improvement with the help of the provided suggestions/ feedback and reflection. The interview is recorded during the process and transcribed to word to create codes and themes for the content analysis. This tool is preferred so as to maintain the reliability of the study since it is recorded. The interview is conducted with both Native and Non-Native EFL instructors by the teacher trainers. This interview is expected to enable EFL instructors to express themselves in a more freeway (See Appendix A).

Behavior Observation Rubric is adapted from professional development unit of the School of Foreign Languages by changing the themes of the rubric and modifying the subcategories according to Teacher Trainers' needs and expectations of the University. Attitudes to feedback, response to feedback, behavior, and independent work items are included in Behavior Observation Rubric. It has five categories, which are Excellent, Good, Sufficient, Insufficient, and Poor. Teacher trainers evaluate the

attitudes of Native and Non-Native EFL teachers by filling this Rubric after the observation feedback process. (See Appendix B)

Data analysis

The current research adopted both qualitative and quantitative design. The qualitative data; collected from Semi-Structured Interview were analyzed through content analysis by coding and creating themes. the quantitative data Behavior; Observation Rubric scores were analyzed by Descriptive statistics (frequency). (See Appendix C)

Procedure

In the first phase of the procedure; teacher trainers conducted lesson observations for each instructor (participants) within the procedure of the professional development program of the School of Foreign Languages. Teacher trainers filled the 'Running Commentary' during the observation process by taking 'Effective Teaching Criteria' into consideration (See Appendix D, E). Those observations mainly focused on organization, pace, transitions, time management, board use, enthusiasm, classroom management, materials, activities, instructions, and questions. At the end of every observation process, for the duration of one entire lesson hour, which lasts 50 minutes, teacher trainers evaluated both native and non-native EFL instructors' performance by completing the post observation evaluation forms (See Appendix F). Instructors are required to complete an interview when the behavior observation procedure is complete, and teacher trainers construct the Behavior Observation Rubric by taking the feedback session into account. Native and non-Native instructors are scored out of five in each of the following categories attitude toward feedback, response to feedback, behavior, and independent work by teacher trainers.

The second phase of the process was the conducting the semi-structured interview with the participants. After completing the lesson observations within the in-service training program of the School of Foreign Languages, researchers conducted interviews with the participants in order to explore their attitudes as well as affective / cognitive component of teacher identity as being observed. The audio of the interview was recorded and transcribed later on. The interview is analyzed through content analysis by coding and creating themes.

Validity and reliability

Both quantitative and qualitative evidence confirmed the validity of the current study. Quantitatively, the Kappa statistic was used to assess consistency between two separate individuals who had coded the data (Landis & Koch, 1977). 10 codes of interview data were found to have inter-coder reliability of Kappa =,78 (Sig= 0.000; $p < 0.001$). This finding is regarded as a substantial agreement between two coders (Viera and Garrett, 2005). Qualitatively, the findings were validated by sharing the findings with the interviewed participants for member checking (Fraenkel and Wallen 2009).

Results and discussion

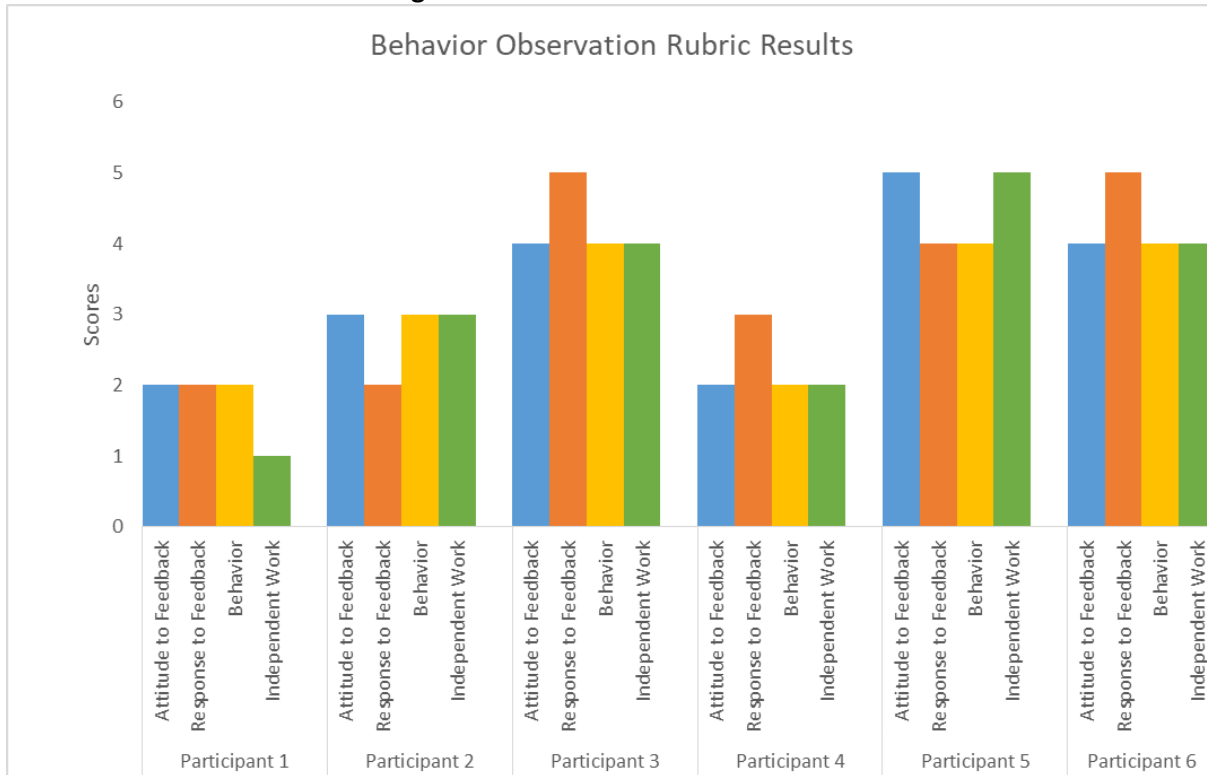
Findings and discussions for research question number RQ1: How do teacher trainers evaluate teachers' identity development during the in-service training at a Private University in Turkey?

The answer of RQ1 has been elicited from a rubric, which was completed by trainers. The EFL teachers were observed in class and given feedback by trainers, who completed the rubric evaluating the reactions of the teachers to four categories:

- (1) Attitude to feedback,
- (2) Response to feedback,
- (3) Behavior, and
- (4) Independent work.

Behavior Observation Rubrics are calculated through frequency and percentages out of 5. As it can be clearly seen from the table above, teachers' scores varied from each other in a significant way. While some of the instructors scored high in terms of feedback some scored lower than the rest.

Figure 1. Behavior observation rubric



It is clear that Participant 1 did not gain anything from the feedback sessions, notably in terms of asking teacher trainers questions, attempting to fix instructors' flaws, and refusing peer or teacher trainer assistance. In the content analysis section, the participant 1's recorded comments will be described and studied in further depth. From the table, it can be inferred that participant 2 doesn't really differ from participant 1 in terms of the rubric elements that will be addressed in more depth. Participant 2 responded to the teacher trainer's input in a more favorable manner than the first participant did. Also, participant 2 showed a more favorable attitude about the observation process. It can be inferred that participant 3 responded to the feedback in a more positive way and undoubtedly benefited from those feedback sessions because participant 3 and 6 received higher scores than participants 1 and 2 in each of the four categories, especially when considering how they handled the feedback. As noted in the section of the literature review under "Teacher Reflection," participants 1 and 3 may also be regarded to have engaged in "self-reflection" and productivity (Tang, Wong and Cheng 2015). In addition to before, during, and after the feedback process, responsibility also plays a significant role, as Dewey noted previously in the literature analysis. If the table is closely examined, it may become clear that participants 4 and 5 do not compare very favorably to one another, particularly in terms of their attitudes toward feedback and independent work. As a result, it may be said that participant 4's "Teacher Reflection" did not occur, and "Teacher Identity" is limited to and depend on various structures and belief systems of the context because there may not be a strong teacher reliance on teacher educators (Weedon 1997). The feedback sessions appear to have been most helpful to participant 5 because of how well she replied. The interview is subjected to content analysis, with themes being generated for both native and non-native

EFL teachers. (For a complete table of codes and themes, see the appendix.) Codes can have both positive and negative connotations. Below are a few excerpts from the participant's transcripts of their interviews.

Findings and discussions for RQ2

What are teachers' perceptions of the influence of in-service training on their teacher identity?

The content analysis of the interviews evaluated teacher perceptions of in-service training through the interplay of four components: Evaluative, Descriptive, Feedback and Reflection. The extracts below display how this interplay of components influences teachers' identity in a cognitive and affective way.

Extract one:

"I think it was judgmental because I believe peer observations are better and teacher educators are just visitors and they do observations only to judge teachers according to their own understanding of teaching. I believe that teachers are enough as professionals and do not need guidance. Self-experience is rarely implemented. Teacher trainers are generally harsh toward teachers, I do not think they care about teachers' feelings. It would be right to say that reflection is all about a teacher's own inner instinct rather than something shaped by outsiders." (Participant 1)

As participant 1 previously indicated, the instructor thought that the feedback session was not valuable and that the teacher educators were just passing by. Also, the instructor thought that each person had an own teaching style and viewpoint that might not align with that of teacher educators. As there is no constructive connection between the teacher educator and other instructors, it may be inferred from the instructor's usage of the words "instinct" and "outsider" that there is not an effective self-reflection taking place in this situation. It is appropriate to note that, regrettably, there are not many teachers in most societies who take pleasure in discussing their classrooms, methods of instruction, interactions with students, and other topics (Allwright 2003). Similarly, according to Almarza (1996) and Pajares (1992), teachers' perceptions are often rigid and challenging to change, which can limit what can be learnt from peer-observational activities. It is clear that expert language teachers are less willing to adapt to new situations and less willing to risk losing their professional credibility. Changes, however, might only take place inside their particular teaching contexts (Cabaroğlu and Roberts 2000), and they might appear selective about which ideas to modify and when.

Extract two:

"I have had enough education in Turkey on the basis of English Language Teaching so, I do not care a lot for the teacher trainers' opinions. It is the practice that makes perfect not the teacher educators. I sometimes ignored the teacher trainers during the teaching practice, I haven't done anything special for the lesson. Context also plays an important role in observations or lessons, what works in one class might not be effective at all. However, it is also crucial to note that reflection on teaching seems meaningless if the observer thinks that only his/her way of teaching is appropriate for effective teaching. Therefore, self-reflection on our teaching can be unnecessary." (Participant 2)

According to participant 2's testimony, the teacher believed that they were already completely competent of instructing since they believed they had received the requisite training and had a thorough understanding of the history and context of the subject. The aforementioned phrases show that the instructor dislikes discussing his or her experiences and pays little attention to advice or viewpoints on instruction from other teachers. The instructor stresses that this kind of contemplation is not always essential and uses the word "context" in his remarks. This opinion may have this justification since the instructor's credentials for instructing may not line up with the viewpoint of the observer. These findings again align with the studies of Cabaroğlu and Roberts (2000).

Extract three:

"Observer, that's right I say observer because I consider them as an observer rather than a teacher educator. This term makes me feel comfortable. In my opinion, the observer was positive in the feedback

process and very constructive even though my weak points were being mentioned. She suggested how I could make my instructions clearer and ask Comprehension Check Questions. It also provided clarity in a number of areas that I have always wanted to focus on. It reminds me of international education conferences I attended in the UK." (Participant 3)

In contrast to participants 1 and 2, participant 3 had more favorable sentiments toward feedback sessions and teacher educators, as seen by the usage of the words "constructive, clear, and clarity." The instructor undoubtedly profited from these sessions. The instructor was also not offended at all when his shortcomings were pointed out, which could have been a result of his educational background or cultural norms regarding criticism. The comments from teacher educators may have caught their attention because, as previously mentioned by Walkinshaw and Duong (2012), the majority of native English speakers of teachers are hired solely on the basis of their ability to speak the language. As a result, these teachers may lack pedagogical knowledge, language awareness, and language teaching methodology.

Extract four:

"Well, I would say the feedback was evaluative and descriptive but far from being encouraging. I believe such observation processes are inevitably limited to the target hour and ignore the bigger picture which involves teacher-student relation, students' needs and learning styles, and the authentic classroom environment even though a general set of information on the above-mentioned group aspects are provided to the observer beforehand. My personal experience of the process is to be rather artificial and even judgmental to some extent due to the fact that the observer had the tendency to prove the effectiveness and correctness of her own suggested style over mine in ignorance of class profile. Having said that, I should also admit that there was some useful feedback on the organization of some particular activities in class. Therefore Reflection, in this case, is more than the expression of the sole process and its objective components, but also the involvement of subjective ones." (Participant 4)

In general, participant 4 had very poor opinions and attitudes about the feedback session. The teacher expresses how fake and critical she thinks observations and feedback sessions to be because they are not conducted in a comprehensive manner. Since they are more familiar with the students' backgrounds, individual characteristics, needs, and interests than native-speaking instructors are, non-native speakers of a teacher have more understanding of the teaching setting (Coşkun, 2013). As a result, given that the feedback was repeated to him/her, having more understanding of these connected and related issues may have rendered the instructor less responsive to it.

Extract five and six:

"I thought my feedback session was critical but in an encouraging way. The teacher educator gave me the kind of frank criticism that only a truly experienced and confident ESL instructor can. I also implemented one suggestion she gave me. Guidance was extremely useful. To illustrate, she made me realize that the feedback was too detailed and confused the students. I felt disruptive at the beginning but later on, it turned out to be valuable feedback. When it comes to reflection, for me it means implementation."(Participant 5)

"Feedback session was designed purposefully to be encouraging. I knew what I was doing but observers are well-trained to look for specific details from a lesson, so their feedback will include the elements that were successful and areas that the instructor might consider for future lessons. Based on this detailed feedback, there is considerable opportunity to make improvements in teaching practice. Reflection, in terms of reflective teaching practice, means taking a critical approach to your pedagogical beliefs, methodology, and classroom management, especially following input such as a peer observation or professional development." (Participant 6)

Similar to how it is clear from the quotes, both instructors (participants 5, 6) thought the approach was efficient and helpful. The terms "honest criticism" and "advice" were used by participant 5, which is something beneficial. Their story reflects thoughts, beliefs, and attitudes that are fairly similar to what the third participant said. The following terms are defined by Demissie (2015) in her discussion of the

reflective thinking techniques used by language teachers: Stimulation, Question/ Development, Reflection, and Discussion/ Dialogue. As a result, participants 5 and 6 conduct their careers as teachers according to Demissie's stages.

When Interview and Behavior Observation Rubric are used, both Native and Non-native EFL instructors' perceptions and attitudes towards teacher trainers in terms of observation are discovered.

To conclude, themes are divided into four categories which are; Evaluative, Descriptive, Feedback, and Reflection. Those four elements had 16 codes in total as listed; (1) Judgmental, (2) Critical, (3) Disruptive, (4) Artificial, (5) Encourage/Motivate, (6) Effective, (7) Guidance, (8) Constructive, (9) Eliciting, (10) Clarity, (11) Asking Questions, (12) Ambiguity, (13) Instinct, (14) Outsiders, (15) Responsibility and (16) Self-experience. Over all, these results are in agreement with those of the scholars notions mentioned above in the literature; Demissie, (2015), Allwright (2003), Çoşkun (2013), Walkinshaw and Duong (2012), Similarly, it aligns well with the studies of Charteris and Smardon (2015) who investigated the group of teachers' recorded lessons and student interviews for the study by "dialogic feedback," In addition to these, as previously mentioned numerous research which conducted to explore how classroom observation could affect collegiality (Bell & Cooper, 2013; Bell & Thomson, 2018; Carroll & O'Loughlin, 2014) also match with the current research since native EFL instructors seem to benefit from "self-reflection" and productivity component of the professional development trainings thanks to observations (Tang, Wong and Cheng 2015).

Conclusion

By contrasting the results of the observation rubric with the thorough interview transcripts of the teachers, the study's findings on the disparities between native and non-native EFL speakers and the instructors' attitudes toward teacher trainers are explored. It is evident from the examination of four separate themes; Evaluative, Descriptive, Feedback, and Reflection that native speakers had more positive perspectives and attitudes about teacher trainers due to numerous factors addressed in the findings and discussions segment. Since the majority of native speakers in Turkey are hired on the basis of being native English speakers, those reasons are related to a lack of pedagogical competence. Native speakers are less hesitant to accept criticism from teacher educators as a result.

Being new to everything they learn pedagogically makes them more eager than non-native speakers. On the other side, non-native English teachers report feeling more worn out due to the fact that the majority of their colleagues have degrees in English language instruction or English/American literature and have a sizable amount of prior real-world experience. For instance, non-native English teachers often have prejudice and do not want to have CELTA, DELTA, or TESOL certifications because they believe their BA courses have provided them with an acceptable foundation in teaching. In other words, because of their prior experience, non-native speakers are less likely to obtain CELTA, DELTA, and TESOL. Taking this issue into mind shows that, it makes instructors less enthused for observations or any kind of professional development activities. It is also important to remember that there are a great number of teachers in Turkey who are reluctant to attend ELT or educational conferences and do not conduct independent research. As was already said, the cause of this is due to a lack of time, inadequate money for the school, a lack of theoretical understanding, feelings of isolation, and a demanding curriculum that makes them less aware of reflection and teacher education. Another reason might be related to the disparity between theory and practice may be one factor and this another factor might be that teachers lack the knowledge or skills necessary to explain, characterize, and label their opinions (Kagan, 1992). The differences between teachers' ideas and actions raise the possibility that they are unwittingly unaware of who they are. To use an example, teachers could be committed to a particular pedagogy or set of instructional techniques but neglect to think on how and why they approach teaching.

Cultural diversity and differences play a role in why non-native EFL teachers have negative attitudes and judgments regarding teacher educators. The fact that criticism is seen negatively in many nations,

including Turkey, explains why non-native EFL instructors hardly ever discuss their classes or students with one another. While native EFL instructors tend to have more hopeful perspectives regarding teacher training and are more eager to share their experiences in the field with one another, it is difficult to fully know or even estimate what truly transpires in their classes (Allwright 2003). Since they are more receptive to reflection or teacher study, culture plays a significant role in this aspect. Teachers in Turkey should be given additional opportunities for professional development and encouraged to perform their own research. To create a dialogic learning culture and routines, instructors can use the practical solutions provided by other professional development initiatives (Hardman 2019, Michaels and O'Connor 2015). Lastly, as mentioned previously, the frequency and practical implementations of the chances offered, as well as the provision of financial opportunities, seemed to be the main areas of concern in the area of teacher training and development for increased effectiveness.

Limitations and further implications of the study

There are some limitations of the current study. The main weakness of the current study is its small scale as it was conducted using eight participants in the context of a private university. However, this current study could be conducted later utilizing a higher number of teachers and teacher educators. Another limitation to be noted regarding the teacher trainers involved in this study is that they were all Native-Speakers of English. While it is not certain whether the result would change or not if teacher trainers had been non-native English teachers, there is a high possibility that it would affect the result in a different way. Furthermore, the study was conducted in a single institution. Further research should be undertaken to investigate the same phenomenon in different contexts to make a comparison. Perhaps participants could be chosen from different universities' School of Foreign Language departments and some comparison could also be made so as to see the diversity of different opinions in different contexts in another attempt. This is an important issue for future research, so current research might help teacher trainers receive more specific information about the EFL instructors' perceptions, attitudes, and motivation toward professional development in Turkey. More broadly, further research is needed to determine the perceptions of native and non-native EFL instructors' regarding this issue in the context of Higher Education in Turkey in different settings

References

- Allwright, D. (2003) Exploratory Practice: rethinking practitioner research in language teaching. *Lancaster University Language Teaching Research*, 7(2): 113–141.
- Almarza, G. (1996). *Student foreign language teachers' growth*. In D. Freeman & J. C. Richards (Eds), *Teacher learning in language teaching* (pp. 50-78). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Amels, J., Kruger, M., Suhre, C., van Veen, K. (2019). Impact of inquiry-based working on the capacity to change in primary education. *Journal of Educational Change*, 20, 351e374. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10833-019-09337-3>.
- Bell, M., Cooper, P. (2013). Peer observation of teaching in university departments: A framework for implementation. *International Journal for Academic Development*, 18(1): 60-73. <https://doi.org/10.1080/1360144X.2011.633753>.
- Bell, A., Thomson, K. (2018). Supporting peer observation of teaching: Collegiality, conversations, and autonomy. *Innovations in Education & Teaching International*, 55(3): 276e284. <https://doi.org/10.1080/14703297.2016.1212725>.
- Borg, S. (2010). Language teacher research engagement. *Language Teaching*, 43: 391-429. doi:10.1017/S0261444810000170.
- Cabaroglu, N., Roberts, J. (2000). Development in student teachers' pre-existing beliefs during a 1-year PGCE programme. *System*, 28. 387-402. 10.1016/S0346-251X(00)00019-1.
- Çakıroğlu, E., Çakıroğlu, J. (2003) Reflections on Teacher Education in Turkey. *European Journal of Teacher Education*, 26(2): 253-264. DOI: 10.1080/0261976032000088774.

- Carroll, C., O'Loughlin, D. (2014). Peer observation of teaching: Enhancing academic engagement for new participants. *Innovations in Education & Teaching International*, 51(4): 446e456. <https://doi.org/10.1080/14703297.2013.778067>.
- Charteris, J. & Smardon, D. (2015). Teacher agency and dialogic feedback: Using classroom data for practitioner inquiry. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 30, 114-123. 10.1016/j.tate.2015.05.006.
- Cochran-Smith, M., Lytle, S. L. (2009). *Inquiry as stance: Practitioner research for the next generation*. Teachers College Press.
- Çoşkun, A. (2013). Native Speakers as Teachers in Turkey: Non-native Pre-service English Teachers' Reactions to a Nation-wide Project. The Qualitative Report, 18(57): 1-21. <http://www.nova.edu/ssss/QR/QR18/coskun57.pdf>
- DeLuca, C., Shulha, J., Luhanga, U., Shulha, L. M., Christou, T. M., Klinger, D. A. (2015). Collaborative inquiry as a professional learning structure for educators: a scoping review. *Professional Development in Education*, 41(4): 640e670. <https://doi.org/10.1080/19415257.2014.933120>.
- Demissie, F. (2015) Promoting Student Teachers' Reflective Thinking Through a Philosophical Community of Enquiry Approach. *Australian Journal of Teacher Education*, 40(12): article 1. <http://dx.doi.org/10.14221/ajte.2015v40n12.1>.
- Dewey, J. (1993). *How We Think: A Restatement of the Relation of Reflective Thinking to the Educative Process*. Boston: D. C. Heath.
- Fraenkel, J. R., Wallen, N. E. (2009). *How to design and evaluate research in education* (7th ed). McGraw-Hill.
- Greg, A., Graham, R. D. (2014). Preparing pre-service teachers for the profession: creating spaces for transformative practice. *Journal of Education for Teaching*, 40(4): 377-390. doi: 10.1080/02607476.2014.924649.
- Graham, A., Phelps, R. (2003). Being a teacher: developing teacher identity and enhancing practice through metacognitive and reflective learning processes. *Australian Journal of Teacher Education*, 27(2): 11-24. <http://ro.ecu.edu.au/ajte/vol27/iss2/>.
- Grau, V., Calcagni, E., Preiss, D. D., Ortiz, D. (2017). Teachers' professional development through university eschool partnerships: Theoretical standpoints and evidence from two pilot studies in Chile. *Cambridge Journal of Education*, 47(1) : 19e36. <https://doi.org/10.1080/0305764X.2015.1102867>.
- Hardman, J. (2019). Developing and supporting implementation of a dialogic pedagogy in primary schools in England. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 86, 1e14. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tate.2019.102908>.
- Hennessy, S., Kershner, R., Calcagni, E., Ahmed, F. (2021). Supporting practitioner-led inquiry into classroom dialogue with a research-informed professional learning resource: A design-based approach. *Review of Education*, 9(3): e3269. <https://doi.org/10.1002/rev3.3269>.
- Howe, C., Hennessy, S., Mercer, N., Vrikki, M., Wheatley, L. (2019). Teacher-student dialogue during classroom teaching: Does it really impact upon student outcomes? *The Journal of the Learning Sciences*, 28(4e5) : 462e512. <https://doi.org/10.1080/10508406.2019.1573730>.
- Kagan, D. (1992). Implications of research in teacher belief. *Educational Psychologist*, 27, 65-90.
- Kim, M.-Y., Wilkinson, I. (2019). What is dialogic teaching? Constructing, deconstructing and reconstructing a pedagogy of classroom talk. *Learning, Culture and Social Interaction*, 21, 70e86. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.lcsi.2019.02.003>.
- Kurtoğlu, E. D. (2014). Perceptions on Effectiveness and Teacher Motivation in ELT, *American Journal of Social Science*, 3(4): 47-55.
- Landis, J. R., Koch, G. G. (1977). *The measurement of observer agreement for categorical data*. *Biometrics*, 33(1): 159-174. <https://doi.org/10.2307/2529310>

- Lefstein, A., Snell, J. (2014). *Better than best practice: Developing teaching and learning through dialogue*. Routledge.
- Michaels, S., O'Connor, C. (2015). Conceptualizing talk moves as tools. Professional development approaches for academically productive discussions. In L. B. Resnick, C. S. C. Asterhan, S. N. Clarke (Eds.), *Socializing intelligence through academic talk and dialogue* (pp. 347e362). American Educational Research Association.
- Moore-Russo, D.A., Wilsey J.N. (2014). Delving into the Meaning of Productive Reflection: A Study of Future Teachers' Reflections on Representations of Teaching, *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 37: 76-90. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.tate.2013.10.002>
- Muhonen, H., Pakarinen, E., Poikkeus, A.-M., Lerkkanen, M.-K., Rasku-Puttonen, H. (2018). Quality of educational dialogue and association with students' academic performance. *Learning and Instruction*, 55: 67e79. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.learninstruc.2017.09.007>.
- Nelson, T. H., Slavit, D. (2007). Collaborative inquiry among science and mathematics teachers in the USA: Professional learning experiences through cross grade, cross-discipline dialogue. *Journal of In-Service Education*, 33(1): 23e39. <https://doi.org/10.1080/13674580601157620>.
- O'Connor, C., Michaels, S., Chapin, S. (2015). 'Scaling down' to explore the role of talk in learning: From district intervention to controlled classroom study. In L. B. Resnick, C. S. C. Asterhan, S. N. Clarke (Eds.), *Socializing intelligence through academic talk and dialogue* (pp. 111e126). American Educational Research Association.
- Odabaşı, S., Çimer, A. (2012) Issues around Incorporating Reflection in Teacher Education in Turkey. *Journal of Turkish Science Education*, 9(1): 17-30.
- O'Leary M., Brooks, V. (2014) Raising the stakes: classroom observation in the further education sector in England. *Professional Development in Education*, 40(4): 530-545. DOI: 10.1080/19415257.2013.854825.
- O'Leary, M., Wood P. (2017) Performance over professional learning and the complexity puzzle: lesson observation in England's further education sector. *Professional Development in Education*, 43(4): 573-591. DOI: 10.1080/19415257.2016.1210665.
- Pajares, M. F. (1992). Teachers' beliefs and educational research: cleaning up a messy construct. *Review of Educational Research*, 62, 307-332.
- Rankin, J., Becker, F. (2006). Does Reading the Research Make a Difference? A Case Study of Teacher Growth in FL German. *The Modern Language Journal*, 90, 353-372.
- Schön, D. (1983). *The reflective practitioner*. New York: Basic Books.
- Tang, S., Wong, A., Cheng, M. (2016). Examining professional learning and the preparation of professionally competent teachers in initial teacher education. *Teachers and Teaching*, 22(1): 54-69. [doi:10.1080/13540602.2015.1023028](https://doi.org/10.1080/13540602.2015.1023028).
- Walkinshaw, I., Duong, H. (2012). Native and Non-Native Speaking English Teachers in Vietnam: Weighing the Benefits. *Journal for English as a Second Language (TESL-EJ)*, 16(3). <http://www.tesl-ej.org/wordpress/issues/volume16/ej63/ej63a1/>.
- Wegerif, R. (2007). *Dialogic, Education and technology: Expanding the Space of learning*. Springer.
- Wragg, E.C., et al., (1996). *Teacher appraisal observed*. London: Routledge.
- Tang, S., Wong, A. & Cheng, M. H. M. (2015). The preparation of highly motivated and professionally competent teachers in initial teacher education. *Journal of Education for Teaching*. 41. 1-17. [10.1080/02607476.2015.1010875](https://doi.org/10.1080/02607476.2015.1010875).
- Trent, J. (2012). Teacher professional development through a school-university partnership. What role, does teacher identity play?. *Australian Journal of Teacher Education*, 37(7): 1-6. [xhttp://dx.doi.org/10.14221/ajte.2012v37n7.2](http://dx.doi.org/10.14221/ajte.2012v37n7.2)
- Viera, A. J., Garrett, J. M. (2005). *Understanding interobserver agreement: The kappa statistic*. *Fam Med*, 37(5): 360-363.

APPENDICES

Appendix A: Interview

- 1) Do you think the observer's attitude or the exploration was evaluative, judgmental, descriptive, or encouraging after the observation process. Explain why?
- 2) Have you had a chance for improvement with the help of the provided suggestions?) If so, How?
- 3) Did the feedback session help you become aware of the issues you confront?
- 4) How would you define the term 'reflection'?

Appendix B: Behavior observation rubric

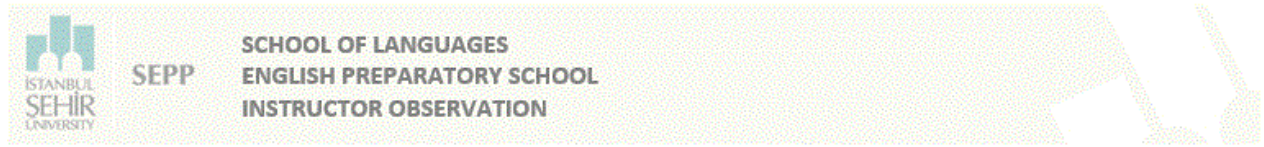
	Excellent (5)	Good (4)	Sufficient (3)	Insufficient (2)	Poor (1)
Attitude to Feedback	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> · Excellent focus · Seeks challenge · Asks questions to extend thinking · Approaches improving teaching skills with active interest 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> · Good focus · Responds positively to challenging activities · Completes all work set to good standard · Answers questions · Connects ideas 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> · Sufficient focus · Does not respond positively most of the time · Completes most of the work 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> · Poor focus · Avoids challenging tasks · Gives up easily · Completes some of the work. · Does as little as possible 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> · Shows little focus · Does not come up with solutions or new ideas · Task is often incomplete or inadequate
Response to Feedback	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> · Responds positively to praise and critique · Learns from setbacks and mistakes · Reviews own progress, acting on the outcomes 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> · Shows a desire to improve · Takes action based on feedback · Shows progress over time 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> · Shows little desire to improve · Sometimes attempts to act on feedback · Shows little progress over time 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> · Rarely attempts to act on feedback · Needs close direction to rectify errors or learn from mistakes 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> · Does not attempt to act on feedback · Responds negatively to praise or critique
Behavior	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> · Seeks solutions to difficulties · Takes responsibility · Acts as an advocate for views and beliefs that may differ from their own 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> · Follows all instructions · Shows kindness, consideration, and respect · Listens carefully · Understands views of others 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> · Follows some of the instructions with interest · Shows somehow consideration · Non-actively listens 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> · Requires supervision to ensure instructions are followed · May distract others · May be off-task · Struggles to understand the views of others 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> · Does not listen · Distracts others · Disrupts the colleagues or pays little attention
Independent Work (Guidance from the Observer)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> · Starts learning readily · Seeks own solutions to problems · Asks questions · Organizes time effectively · Meets all deadlines 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> · Shows good application · Can find solutions to problems · Seeks help when needed · Organizes time well · Meets deadlines 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> · Sometimes give up · Can find solutions to some of the problems · Meets some of the deadlines 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> · Requires close supervision to attempt tasks · Gives up easily · Misses some deadlines 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> · Normally requires pressure to attempt learning tasks · Does not engage unless closely monitored · May refuse support · Misses most deadlines

Adapted from Professional Development Unit/Şehir University

Appendix C: Table of codes and themes

Themes	Codes	Definitions
1. Evaluative	Judgmental Critical Disruptive Artificial	Participants emphasize that instructors have their own unique perception of teaching that cannot be generalized therefore observation is regarded unnecessary.
2. Descriptive	Encouraging/Motivating Effective Guidance Constructive	Participants indicate that as being less qualified than non-native EFL instructors, they are more willing to learn from feedback sessions.
3. Feedback	Eliciting Clarity Asking Questions Ambiguity	Participants state that feedback sessions improved their teaching skills since they benefited quite a lot from teacher educators.
4. Reflection	Instinct Outsiders Responsibility Self-experience	Participants refer to both negative and positive meanings for reflection having said that reflection might/not be a sole process.

Appendix D: Running commentary



LESSON OBSERVATION FORM- RUNNING COMMENTARY

OBSERVEE :
OBSERVER :
CLASS/ ROOM :
DATE AND TIME :
LESSON TYPE :
MAIN AIM(S) :

STAGE OF THE LESSON	TIME	COMMENTS

Appendix E: Effective teaching criteria

EFFECTIVE TEACHING CRITERIA

AREA	QUALITIES AND SKILLS	
Careful planning detailed preparation	Knowledge of content and pedagogy	
	Knowledge of characteristics of age group, skills, needs and interests of students	
	Lesson aims and objectives which are relevant to SEPP objectives, appropriate to students' needs, clear and realistic and referring and relating to previous and future learning	
	Well-chosen/well-prepared, relevant to lesson/aims, appropriate to the level and students instructional materials and resources	
	Appropriate to students' needs and interests, motivating, varied, balanced, principled choice of techniques/teaching strategies.	
	Appropriate to students' level, motivating, varied, balanced, principled choice of activities/tasks.	
Classroom Atmosphere Creating a Positive Classroom Environment of Respect and Rapport that Fosters a Positive Climate for Learning	Confident, pleasant, enthusiastic, positive manner	
	Understanding, positive, caring, patient, approachable, supportive, interested attitude	
	Building a good relation (establishing rapport) with students by communicating with them, using students' names, knowledge about them and being aware of how they feel	
	Exploiting opportunities for personalization	
	Motivating students to learn by expressing genuine interest in students, listening actively to students, reacting and responding to students, involving different students in the lesson, valuing students' contributions, giving praise and encouragement, expressing confidence in students' knowledge and abilities, and giving positive reinforcement	

EFFECTIVE TEACHING CRITERIA

Instruction		
	Accuracy and Clarity	Accuracy in presenting the language, concept, explanation
Effective exploitation of materials		Lesson development and flow by clear aims , smooth transitions , coherence between stages
		Flexibility and ability to adapt lesson to students' needs and interests
		Encouraging students to interact with each other
		Involving different students in the activities
		Catering for a variety of learning styles and abilities
		Use of teaching aids and materials such as whiteboard (providing a visual record for students.), visuals, task sheets to support learning.
		Use of a variety of techniques and strategies
		Use of IT to support learning processes
		Encouraging ss to use more of the target structures to achieve the aims more effectively.
		Using CCQ- to get the meaning from students.
		Strategy training for skill lessons
		Sharing the aims of the lesson with students
	Giving instructions	
		help activate background schemata
		Creating a sense of achievement
		Giving clear instructions and setting the time for each task.
		Staging the instructions and checking as you go along so that the task is clearer
		Giving some guidance of what to focus on to direct them for challenging activities.
		Negotiating time for the task

EFFECTIVE TEACHING CRITERIA

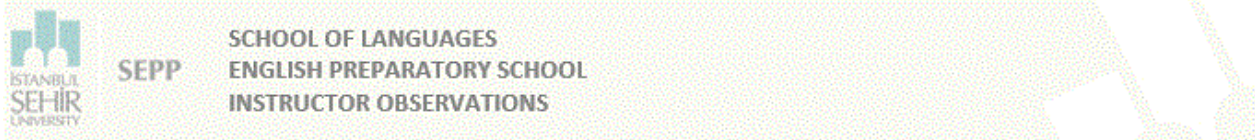
Pacing	Making lesson objectives clear by reminding students what they are about to learn/have learned, making beginnings and endings of activities clear.	
	Staging activities and tasks by chunking learning into manageable stages	
	Giving SS enough time and a chance to work individually or on pairs to encourage more students to be on task	
	Using a variety of activities/instructional strategies by changing the type of activity, the method of presentation, or the way students are grouped	
	Maximizing student involvement through elicitation, ss interaction	
Transition	Using transitions to signal students that the class will be moving on to another activity.	
Using Elicitation Techniques	Making use of students' existing knowledge, previous learning by elicitation of the target language	
	Providing challenge for students by encouraging students to think critically	
Providing Feedback to Students	Asking students to prove and justify answers .	
	Giving time to students to reflect on what they have learned.	
	Supportive, encouraging, constructive, unobtrusive error correction	
	Checking of learning and feedback	
	Clarify the disputed answers	
	Asking ss to check their answer with peers or in groups before whole class feedback so as to involve all students while getting answers and prevent confident ss from shouting out the answers	
	Monitoring students' work and providing support where necessary	

Adapted from [Beeren, D. R. \(2000\)](#). Evaluating teachers for professional growth: Creating a culture of motivation and learning. Corwin Press.

Adapted from [Kurtoğlu Eken, D. \(2007\)](#). An exploration of teaching effectiveness: An attempt to define the less easily definable. The University of Michigan Press.

Adapted by Serap [Yıldırım, 2017-2018](#)

Appendix F: Post observation evaluation form



OBSERVEE :
 OBSERVER :
 CLASS/ ROOM :
 DATE AND TIME :
 LESSON TYPE :
 MAIN AIM(S) :

C: Completely A: Adequately M: Minimally N: Not at all

PLANNING AND PREPARATION	Scale	Comment
1. Does the lesson plan display extensive knowledge of content, relevant teaching methods, the class, and awareness of students' potential difficulties?		
2. Is the lesson plan organized ? (Are aims, class profile, anticipated problems, timing, interaction patterns stated?)		
3. Are the instructional goals relevant to course aims and appropriate to students' needs. Are they clear and realistic?		
4. Is the choice of techniques/ teaching strategies / activities/ tasks/ interaction patterns/ timing appropriate, motivating, varied, balanced and principled?		
5. Are the materials and resources (e.g. visual aids, handouts, realia, IT) well-chosen and well-prepared, relevant and appropriate to level of students and intriguing?		

CLASSROOM ATMOSPHERE	Scale	Comment
6. Does the teacher promote a positive learning environment and maintains appropriate standards of behaviour ?		
7. Is the teacher confident, pleasant, enthusiastic, respectful, fair, and approachable?		
8. Does the teacher apply classroom management techniques to establish a positive and productive learning environment?		
9. Does the teacher place a premium on student engagement ?		
10. Does the teacher give equitable opportunities for student learning?		



INSTRUCTION	Scale	Comment
11. Is the lesson presentation clear and accurate in language used, concept presented, and explanation given? Does it link well with students' existing knowledge and experience?		
12. Does the teacher demonstrate effective exploitation of techniques and strategies, teaching aids and materials, different stages, and interaction patterns?		
13. Are the instructions clear, staged and checked when necessary?		
14. Is the pacing of the lesson appropriate for almost all students?		
15. Are the transitions between activities smooth?		
16. Does the teacher display effective elicitation and questioning techniques? Are they varied, challenging, motivating? Do they cater for students' needs and goals or activity aims? Is there adequate time for students to respond?		
17. Does the teacher provide effective feedback ? (error-correction techniques that are constructive and unobtrusive)		

Incorporating literature in EFL classroom: attitudes and experiences

ISSN 2657-9774; <https://doi.org/10.36534/erlj.2023.01.12>

Fatima Ejubović*, Ervin Kovačević**

*International University of Sarajevo, Bosnia and Herzegovina; fejubovic@ius.edu.ba⁶

** International University of Sarajevo, Bosnia and Herzegovina; ekovacevic@ius.edu.ba

Abstract

This study presents findings about first-year undergraduate students' attitudes to and experiences with reading literary texts in an EFL (English as a Foreign Language) context. It also explores the degree of literature integration in EFL lessons in Bosnia and Herzegovina. We conducted the research with ninety-eight students at the International University of Sarajevo (IUS); we examined their attitudes towards different literary genres, difficulties they face while reading literary texts, the type of assistance they prefer while reading, and their general interests concerning literature. The findings indicate that students prefer short stories to other genres and learn best through exploring themes meaningful to them. The results also show that literary texts in EFL classrooms are frequently used for vocabulary purposes. Literature is mainly integrated into EFL classrooms, except for technical high schools and madrasahs.

Keywords: EFL, literature, literary texts, attitudes, experiences, literature integration

Introduction

The landscape of foreign language teaching underwent a transformative shift with the emergence of the Audiolingual Method and the Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) approach. These groundbreaking methodologies revolutionized the learning process by empowering students to use the target language communicatively, both within and outside of the classroom. In this new era, curricula, textbooks, and materials were tailored to emphasize the functional application of language, inadvertently marginalizing literature in English classrooms. Literature was seen as a potential distraction from the primary goal of linguistic functionality, given its perceived linguistic complexity and demanding nature, leading to its exclusion from the curriculum (Stein 1965). However, scholars such as Ragusa (1965), Duff and Maley (1990), Lazar (1993), Ronnqvist and Sell (1994), and Parkinson and Thomas (2000) have argued that literature serves not only to educate and entertain but also to provide delight and enjoyment. They contend that when incorporated through engaging activities, literature can significantly impact crucial language skills such as vocabulary acquisition, reading comprehension, writing proficiency, listening comprehension, pronunciation, and speaking ability.

The context in Bosnia and Herzegovina presents a unique situation, as it was only after the Bosnian war in the 1990s that English assumed the role of the primary foreign language in primary and secondary education. This shift occurred due to the former Yugoslavia's historical preference for the Russian language above all others (Imamović and Džanić 2016). In contemporary English language teaching, educators employ an eclectic approach that combines diverse methodologies to enhance language acquisition. An examination of the available curriculum for English language instruction in Canton Sarajevo gymnasiums since 2018 reveals a pedagogical approach characterized by what Cook (as cited in Takahashi 2015) refers to as "bits of language lifted from their original context" (p. 26). These fragments encompass a range of sources, such as brochures, newspaper articles, magazines, and web pages.

⁶ The research conducted in this paper is based on the author's master's thesis.

Additionally, the curriculum stipulates that students will engage with literary texts, encompassing both original versions and graded readers (Ministarstvo za odgoj i obrazovanje Kantona Sarajevo, 2018). However, the distribution between these two categories remains somewhat ambiguous. Given this context, the primary objective of this research is to investigate the extent to which literature is presently integrated into English as Foreign Language (EFL) classrooms while also exploring students' attitudes and experiences concerning the reading of literary texts. While previous studies have extensively documented the positive impacts of literature on language learning, particularly in EFL contexts, there remains a noticeable dearth of research investigating students' attitudes and experiences when it comes to reading literary works, particularly within these specific regions. As this study progresses, it will become evident that the advantages associated with incorporating literature in EFL classrooms surpass any potential drawbacks. This paper aims to offer insight and answers to these questions:

RQ1: What are freshman undergraduate students' attitudes and preferences regarding reading literature in the EFL context?

RQ2: What are freshman undergraduate students' experiences with reading literary texts in EFL courses?

RQ3: To which degree were freshman undergraduate students exposed to authentic materials, hence literature, in EFL classrooms?

This paper expects to support the following hypotheses:

H1: The attitudes and experiences of freshman undergraduate students towards reading literary texts are mixed.

H2: Freshman undergraduate students hold the belief that utilizing literature has a positive impact on the development of language skills.

H3: The integration of literature in EFL classrooms is limited in scope.

The subsequent sections will explore these research questions and hypotheses in more depth.

Theoretical background

Use of literature in language classrooms throughout history

Throughout the history of language education, literature has experienced varying degrees of importance. The Grammar-Translation Method heavily relied on literary texts for language learning, while later methods like Audiolingual and Communicative approaches marginalized literature in favor of other materials (Stein 1965, Larsen-Freeman and Anderson 2011, Bobkina and Dominguez 2014, Takahashi 2015). However, recent research calls for reevaluating the literature's role, highlighting its potential for cultural understanding and emotional engagement in language learning (Bobkina and Dominguez 2014).

Advantages of integrating literature in EFL Classroom

Ragusa (1965) contends that literary texts in foreign language classrooms function as a mechanism to elevate students' language proficiency. By utilizing poems, students can more easily grasp the sounds and rhythms of a foreign language. Complex grammatical structures become more comprehensible when presented in a meaningful text. However, literature encompasses more than rhythms, sounds, vocabulary, idioms, and syntactic forms. It holds intrinsic artistic value and enables students to broaden their horizons by gaining insights into other cultures, history, customs, and habits. She emphasizes that literary texts foster language sensitivity and an appreciation for art.

Tevdovska (2016) investigates the substantial role of literature in foreign language education through her study titled "Students' Attitudes and Preferences towards Literary Texts in an ELT Setting." She highlights the pedagogical benefits of reading literature; she contends that incorporating literature into

the curriculum offers numerous advantages, such as motivation through engaging texts, exposure to authentic materials, and cultural knowledge acquisition.

Parkinson and Thomas (2000) outline ten benefits of integrating literature into EFL classrooms: linguistic modeling, fostering linguistic competence, enriching cultural understanding, providing authenticity, mental stimulation, enhanced memorability, utilization of rhythmic resources, motivational content, openness to interpretation, and practicality.

According to Van (2009), incorporating literature into language teaching aligns harmoniously with the principles of Communicative Language Teaching. Thoughtfully introducing literary texts ensures student enjoyment and fosters critical thinking skills. Literature also provides opportunities for collaborative work among peers. Van argues that literature empowers students to form opinions and construct individual meanings, leading them to initiate and sustain activities centered around literary themes. Engaging in such active participation within the classroom fosters self-directed or autonomous learning. Teachers must understand literary works well enough to select the most suitable texts for their students and design engaging activities.

Zoreda and Vivaldo-Lima (2008) advocate for integrating literature in EFL classrooms to overcome negative attitudes towards the target culture.

Stern (1985) maintains that reading influences writing and significantly fosters creativity. Literary works are rich with diverse language devices that serve as a wellspring of inspiration for readers to develop their writing skills. After encountering a memorable piece, readers often strive to emulate the “narrative essence” while injecting their own originality.

Integrating literature in EFL classrooms offers manifold advantages, exposing students to varied language styles, vocabulary, and grammar, while providing cultural enrichment and expanding horizons. Literary texts motivate students, spark critical thinking, and nurture creativity. Overall, literature enhances language skills and provides a well-rounded education.

Drawbacks of integrating literature in EFL classrooms

The challenges associated with incorporating literature in EFL classrooms extend beyond students' reading and comprehension abilities. It begins with the preparedness and qualifications of teachers to teach literature. Teachers often need more autonomy in selecting literary works, as external authorities typically predetermine the choices.

Duncan and Paran (2018) highlight the scarcity of empirical classroom-based research and emphasize the need for verifiable evidence of classroom practice. Although there has been an increase in empirical research, it remains insufficient and infrequent. The authors address this gap by conducting qualitative interviews with teachers to uncover the challenges they face. Teachers expressed that literary texts are intimidating for secondary education students due to linguistic and conceptual demands. Teachers also voiced concerns about the time-consuming nature of reading and analyzing literary texts, which may detract from other classroom priorities.

McKay (1982) notes that literary language significantly differs from Standard English, often posing challenges for students in terms of vocabulary and sentence structures. One main obstacle in reading literary texts within EFL classrooms relates to their cultural context.

Lazar (1993) cautions that culturally enriched literary works can sometimes mislead readers, as they may mistakenly assume that a novel portrays a picture of an entire society while it reflects a specific milieu during a particular historical period.

Another potential drawback of incorporating literature in EFL classrooms is the limited availability of authentic and engaging literary materials that cater to learners' language learning needs and interests. This lack of suitable resources can hinder the effectiveness of incorporating literature into language learning and may lead to disengagement or frustration among students.

Selecting appropriate literary texts for EFL learning

Including literature in foreign language classrooms has raised questions about the type of literature to incorporate. McRae (1991) distinguishes between "literature with a capital L," referring to canonical works, and "literature with a small l," encompassing popular fiction. While classical literature is often considered necessary, it can be linguistically challenging and intimidating for students. Students are more likely to engage with texts that resonate with their interests and experiences (Rosenblatt, 2005). Ortells (2020) suggests that introducing canonical authors through works specifically written for children can strike a balance. However, the selection of literature should be aligned with students' needs, experiences, and maturity levels (Lesesne et al. 1997). Young adult literature offers relatable themes, characters, and language, making it more appealing to young readers (Reed 1994, Wilder and Teasley 2000). Despite its advantages, there is resistance to incorporating young adult literature in classrooms due to the perceived lack of literary value (Hays 2016). Thorough research and careful selection can ensure that students are exposed to enjoyable and meaningful literary works.

Exploring diverse literary genres in EFL classrooms: Enriching language learning

Each genre presents unique benefits and considerations for effective EFL instruction. Incorporating short stories in the EFL classroom offers several advantages. They can be read and analyzed within a few classes, making them less time-consuming and encouraging for students (Collie and Slater 1987). The brevity of short stories enables students to complete them more quickly, fostering a sense of accomplishment upon finishing their readings. Additionally, teachers can select short stories with diverse themes and concepts, enhancing the likelihood that each student will encounter a story aligned with their interests. While longer and more complex, novels can build vocabulary, develop reading comprehension skills, and foster intercultural communicative competence. Poetry, though challenging, brings culturally and linguistically enriched content, allowing learners to experience the power of language and promoting creative expression (Collie and Slater 1987). Graded readers, simplified versions of original works, assist in understanding texts, but they may lose critical sociocultural connotations and linguistic sophistication (Kara 2019, Rönnqvist and Sell 1994).

Understanding students' reading preferences and experiences with literature

The American Psychological Association defines attitude as a persistent evaluation of an object or concept influenced by beliefs, emotions, and past behaviors. At the same time, experience refers to conscious events or stimuli that result in learning. Research suggests that students show interest in protagonists of the same gender, prefer contemporary settings, and are drawn to characters slightly older than themselves (Johnson, McClanahan, and Mertz 1999, Garland 1998, Reed 1994). A study with undergraduate students revealed a preference for short stories and novels, while poetry was perceived as challenging (Tevdovska 2016). Graded readers were well-received, although archaic and complex language posed comprehension difficulties. Students expressed a desire for background information on a storyline's social, cultural, and historical aspects (Tevdovska 2016). Other studies demonstrated positive attitudes toward literature in EFL settings (Alfauzan and Hussain 2016). The forthcoming sections of this paper will provide insights into the attitudes and experiences of Bosnian students regarding reading literature in the EFL context.

Methodology

Research design

The present study adopts a quantitative research framework and utilizes a survey designed in a Likert scale format. The survey draws heavily from Tevdovska's (2016) research which "examines students'

attitudes towards the criteria for text selection in EFL contexts, including the most appropriate genre and text type, the language used of literary texts, the relevance of literary texts and the impact on students' beliefs and personal life, as well as representations of culture presented in literary texts" (Tevdovska 2016, 161). The survey instrument was extended and modified to specifically address the research questions of this study (see Appendix A). Data collection spanned over one year, commencing in November 2020. While the initial distribution of the survey yielded an insufficient number of responses, it was during October and November 2021 that the sample size was increased.

Participants

The participants in this study comprised freshman undergraduate students enrolled at the International University of Sarajevo (IUS). The research encompassed students from five distinct faculties at IUS, all enrolled in the Academic English and Effective Communication (ELIT100) course. The motive for selecting this particular group was their recent completion of secondary education and their diverse geographical backgrounds across Bosnia and Herzegovina. By including students from various educational backgrounds, the study sought to provide a comprehensive understanding of the incorporation of literature and the experiences and attitudes towards literature from different regions and schools. A total of ninety-eight students actively participated in the research.

Research instrument

As previously mentioned, this survey was structured using a Likert scale, comprising 40 items, with the initial nine items on demographics (see Appendix B). All items were rated on a scale from 1 to 5 (1=strongly disagree; 2=disagree; 3=neutral; 4=agree; 5=strongly agree). The data collected was analyzed through the SPSS program, using the descriptive tools available on the software.

Results and discussion

Respondent student profile

Table 1. Nationality

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Bosnian	83	84.7	84.7	84.7
	Syrian	1	1.0	1.0	85.7
	Turkish	10	10.2	10.2	95.9
	Croatian	1	1.0	1.0	96.9
	American	1	1.0	1.0	98.0
	British	1	1.0	1.0	99.0
	Canadian	1	1.0	1.0	100.0
	Total	98	100.0	100.0	

One of the aims of this survey is to examine the extent of literature integration in EFL classrooms, encompassing both Bosnia and Herzegovina and other regions. To achieve this, freshman undergraduate students at IUS were targeted, comprising both Bosnian and international students. The inclusion of international students was intended to offer a more comprehensive outlook on the use of literature in EFL classrooms beyond Bosnia and Herzegovina. However, it is noteworthy that the majority of

respondents (84.7%) were of Bosnian nationality. Consequently, while all respondents' answers will be considered in measuring general attitudes and experiences, the focus on examining the incorporation of literature in EFL classrooms in Bosnia and Herzegovina will primarily rely on the responses of Bosnian participants due to the limited representation of other nationalities in the survey.

Attitudes

This section answers the first research question: What are freshman undergraduate students' attitudes and preferences regarding reading literature in the EFL context?

Attitudes towards reading literary texts

Table 2. General attitudes towards literary genre

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
1. I enjoy reading novels in English.	98	1	5	3.74	1.00
2. I enjoy reading short stories in English.	98	1	5	4.27	.81
3. I enjoy reading poems in English.	98	1	5	3.37	1.23
4. I enjoy reading plays in English.	98	1	5	3.11	1.06
5. I enjoy reading graded readers and simplified texts in English.	98	1	5	3.35	1.02

In summarizing the scale assessing attitudes toward specific literary genres, it can be inferred that the short story emerges as the most favored genre among the respondents. This aligns with the findings of Collie and Slatter (1987), who note that short stories are an effective means of introducing literature to students. They highlight that the concise nature of short stories allows for them to be read and analyzed within a few class sessions, making them less time-consuming and potentially discouraging for readers. It is noteworthy to mention that the present survey builds upon the work of Tevdovska (2016), with this particular set of questions remaining unaltered. The original survey yielded similar findings, indicating a shared appreciation for short stories and novels among the participants in both studies. The novel in this survey follows as the second most popular genre, with the primary differentiating factor possibly being its length, which may contribute to its slightly lower popularity compared to the short story. Poems and graded readers exhibit a similar average response, with average responses of 3.37 and 3.35, respectively, positioning them as less popular genres by participants in both surveys. Lastly, plays receive the least favorable response among the genres, with an average response of 3.11.

Facing difficulties and challenges while reading literary texts

Table 3. Difficulties

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
6. I experience difficulties	98	1	5	2.43	1.12

when reading poetry in English.						
7. I experience difficulties when reading prose in English.	98	1	5	2.14	1.05	
8. I experience difficulties reading English literary texts due to a lack of time for reading.	98	1	5	2.64	1.20	
9. I experience difficulties reading English literary texts due to a lack of willingness to read.	98	1	5	2.62	1.24	
10. I face difficulties while reading English literary texts due to the complex cultural aspects described in the texts (beliefs, relationships, values, traditions).	98	1	5	2.06	1.10	
11. I face difficulties while reading English literary texts due to the length of the literary texts.	98	1	5	2.50	1.18	
12. I face difficulties while reading English literary texts due to the complex and archaic (old) language used in the text.	98	1	5	2.97	1.27	

The objective of this section was to gather insights into the potential difficulties students might face while reading literary texts in English, with a particular emphasis on the genres of poetry and prose. The results revealed that students perceive poetry as more challenging to read than prose, corroborating earlier findings highlighting poetry's complexity and linguistic richness. Additionally, the survey explored two factors contributing to reading difficulties: a lack of time and willingness to read. Interestingly, students reported facing more problems due to a lack of motivation rather than time constraints, indicating that motivation plays a significant role in their engagement with literary texts.

Exploring different and complex cultural elements and settings in literary works poses fewer difficulties, as 71.4% of students do not find it challenging, suggesting a certain level of cultural openness and receptiveness among the participants (see Appendix A). These findings contradict some literature review sources that suggested cultural complexities as potential barriers to understanding literary texts in an EFL context (Lazar 1993. Hussein and Al-Emami 2016).

Additionally, over half of the respondents (56.1%) do not encounter issues with the length of literary texts. In comparison, 25% perceive text length as a hindrance to their reading experience, providing a

possible explanation for their preference for shorter genres such as short stories (see Appendix A). Students often struggle with reading novels in a foreign language, with length being a contributing factor.

Lastly, students exhibit the least comfort with reading literary texts that employ archaic language, a finding consistent with expectations, as such language is not commonly encountered in everyday speech. Additionally, 41.8% of students find reading literary texts containing archaic language challenging (see Appendix A). McKey (1982) and Khatib, Rezaei, and Derakhshan (2011) also support this notion, emphasizing the linguistic distance between literary language and standard English, including outdated vocabulary and semantic shifts.

These findings shed light on the specific difficulties that students encounter when reading literary texts in an EFL context. Understanding these challenges can inform instructional approaches, curriculum design, and the selection of appropriate texts to support students' comprehension and engagement with literature.

Student preferences for assistance

Table 4. Help preferences

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
13. It helps me when my English teacher provides background information (culture, history, politics, and author) related to the text.	98	2	5	4.09	.81
14. It helps me when my English teacher introduces different language activities, group work, and pair work when working on the literary text.	98	1	5	3.47	1.00
15. It helps me when my English teacher provides information related to the topic, theme, plot and characters in the literary text.	98	2	5	4.02	.81
16. It helps me when the topics in the literary texts are related to and relevant for my personal life.	98	1	5	3.92	.91
17. It helps me when the literary text introduces cultural aspects which are	98	2	5	3.78	.78

familiar to me.					
-----------------	--	--	--	--	--

This section aimed to investigate students' preferences regarding the assistance provided by their teachers when reading literary texts. Considering the concerns expressed by authors regarding the integration of literature in language classrooms (McKay 1982, Lazar 1993, Hoque 2007, Ducan and Paran 2018), this subscale sought to emphasize the significance of effective guidance and support from teachers in overcoming potential obstacles and maximizing students' reading and comprehension abilities.

The survey findings indicate that students generally hold positive attitudes towards receiving assistance and guidance from their teachers while exploring literary texts. Comprising five items, this subscale revealed two key areas where students identified substantial teacher input as particularly helpful. The items "It helps me when my English teacher provides background information (culture, history, politics, and author) related to the text," and "It helps me when my English teacher provides information related to the topic, theme, plot, and characters in the literary text," received the highest number of positive responses, with average ratings of 4.09 and 4.02, respectively. Only a small percentage of respondents (5.1%), indicated that they did not find this type of support helpful (see Appendix A).

Another item, "It helps me when the topics in the literary texts are related to and relevant to my personal life," garnered a significant number of positive responses, with an average rating of 3.92. This finding aligns with the insights of researchers such as Bushman and Bushman (1997), Rosenblatt (2005), and Lee and Sprately (2009), who emphasize the importance of relatable storylines to enhance student motivation and engagement with literature.

Additionally, respondents exhibit a positive attitude towards encountering familiar cultural aspects within the literary texts, as reflected by an average response of 3.78.

The item "It helps me when my English teacher introduces different language activities, group work, and pair work when working on the literary text," received the least number of positive responses, with an average rating of 3.47. A considerable proportion of students, approximately 33%, remained neutral in their responses, while 51% agreed with the statement (see Appendix A). This suggests that the type of language activity may be a secondary concern for students as long as they receive valuable information and engage with relatable content.

Overall, these findings underscore the importance of adequate teacher support and guidance in facilitating students' engagement with literary texts, providing relevant background information, and connecting the texts to students' personal experiences. By addressing students' specific needs and interests, teachers can enhance their reading experiences and foster a deeper understanding and appreciation of literature in the EFL classroom.

Personal interests and reading preferences

Table 5. Interests and preferences

		Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
18. I am interested in literary texts which introduce topics and cultural aspects which differ from my own values and culture.	98	2	5	3.93	.82

19. Watching a film or video related to the literary text helps me understand the text better.	98	1	5	3.90	.96
20. Reading for pleasure in English has improved my English skills.	98	1	5	4.26	.93
21. Reading children's literature when I was a child enhanced my love for literature.	98	1	5	3.35	1.27
22. I find contemporary works of literature more engaging than canonical works (canonical: Dostoevsky, Tolstoy, Dickens, Kafka...)	98	1	5	2.95	1.06

This subscale aimed to gain insights into students' general interests and preferences regarding reading literary texts. Comprising five items, it sought to explore their openness to diverse cultural aspects, the potential benefits of related films or videos, the impact of reading for pleasure on their English skills, the influence of children's literature on their love for literature, and their engagement with contemporary versus canonical works.

Regarding the general interests and preferences of the students, it can be observed that reading for pleasure, which recorded the highest number of positive responses in this subscale (4.26), is widely recognized as having a positive impact on their language skills. This finding echoes the ideas of Krashen (2004), who highlights the significant impact of reading for pleasure on language acquisition, emphasizing that learners can continue to improve their language skills even outside formal educational settings. Parkinson and Thomas (2000), Duff and Maley (1990), and Lazar (1993) further support this notion, stressing the motivational power of reading meaningful texts and relatable storylines. The strong correlation between reading for pleasure and improved English skills underscores the importance of providing students with opportunities to engage with literature that resonates with their interests and preferences.

Furthermore, students exhibit open-mindedness towards engaging with literary texts that introduce diverse cultural aspects and values, as indicated by the average response of 3.93. This finding aligns with the insights of scholars such as Ragusa (1965), Parkinson and Thomas (2000), Bobkina and Dominguez (2014), and Lazar (1993), who emphasize that literature broadens students' horizons, fosters cultural understanding, and helps overcome negative attitudes toward unfamiliar cultures.

The item exploring the helpfulness of watching a movie related to the literary text also received a generally positive average response of 3.90. They recognized the value of visual aids in enhancing their comprehension of the literary text. However, it is essential to note Agulló's (2003) cautionary view that using films should not replace the necessary combination of reading and watching but rather complement and extend the input reception beyond the classroom.

However, in comparison to the aforementioned items that garnered more positive attitudes, the item pertaining to children's literature records a slightly lower average response of 3.35. Lastly, the item

examining preferences of contemporary over canonical literature yields an average response of 2.95, with many respondents expressing a neutral stance in their answers.

Previous experiences with reading literary texts

This section provides answers to the second research question: What are freshman undergraduate students' experiences with reading literary texts in EFL courses?

Table 6. Experiences

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
23. My previous English teachers designed translation activities with literary texts.	98	1	5	3.14	1.13
24. Literary texts which were utilized in my previous English classes have improved my English skills.	98	1	5	3.57	1.10
25. My previous English teachers always tended to design speaking rather than reading activities.	98	1	5	3.28	1.02
26. Literary texts in my previous English classes were analysed for grammar purposes.	98	1	5	3.18	1.12
27. Literary texts in my previous English classes were analysed for vocabulary purposes.	98	1	5	3.92	.82
28. Literary texts in my previous English classes were analysed for critical thinking purposes.	98	1	5	3.42	1.07

Among the six items in this scale, the item with the highest level of agreeableness among students was "Literary texts in my previous English classes were analyzed for vocabulary purposes," with 82.7% of students confirming this usage (see Appendix A). Scholars such as Belcher and Hirvela (2000) and Duff and Maley (1990) assert that incorporating literary texts in EFL classrooms exposes students to different registers, thereby enriching their vocabulary. Unfamiliar vocabulary can pose a challenge in understanding the text, but it also serves as a valuable source for acquiring new vocabulary, hence the predominant focus on vocabulary purposes.

Students also acknowledged the utilization of literary texts for fostering critical thinking skills, with an average response of 3.42. Van (2009) and Duff and Maley (1990) endorse the idea that reading literature has a beneficial impact on critical thinking abilities, as it enables students to develop their capacity to think critically, form their own opinions, and engage in meaningful discussions with their peers. Using literature for critical thinking purposes adds versatile content to the classroom environment.

Activities related to translation and grammar practice received less emphasis. For the item "Literary texts in my previous English classes were analyzed for grammar purposes," 49% of students reported this usage, and for the item "My previous English teachers designed translation activities with literary texts," 48% of respondents provided a positive response (see Appendix A). Scholars such as Parkinson and Thomas (2000) and Lazar (1993) acknowledge the potential of reading literary texts in EFL classrooms for developing linguistic competence. However, these activities are often associated with the outdated grammar-translation method. In the current post-method era, an eclectic approach allows teachers to draw on the strengths of various methods.

In terms of whether their previous English teachers focused more on designing speaking activities rather than reading activities, a significant number of students maintained a neutral stance, resulting in an average response of 3.28. While various activities related to literature were present in English classrooms, the primary emphasis seemed to be on vocabulary skill development.

The final item in the scale, "Literary texts that were utilized in my previous English classes have improved my English skills," received an average response of 3.57, which differs from the average response for "Reading for pleasure in English has improved my English skills," where the recorded average response was 4.26 (see Table 5).

Literature in EFL classrooms is primarily employed for vocabulary purposes, but its benefits extend beyond that. Translation activities facilitate comparisons between native and target languages while performing scenes from plays or acting out scenes from short stories can be engaging and provide opportunities for practicing pronunciation, listening, and vocabulary skills. Engaging in discussions around literature is a valuable means to foster critical thinking skills, allowing students to explore diverse topics and exchange their opinions with peers. By reading literary texts, students gain insights into the world around them, cultivating attitudes and broadening their perspectives.

Integration levels of literature in EFL classrooms

This section answers the third research question: To which degree were freshman undergraduate students exposed to authentic materials, hence literature, in EFL classrooms?

Table 7. Integrating literature

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Nationality: BandH	83				
29. My previous English teachers utilized literary texts (novels, poems, plays, short stories) in English classes.	83	1	5	3.66	1.10
30. Reading literary texts in my English classes was mandatory.	83	1	5	3.59	1.14
31. Literary texts in my previous English classes were barely discussed.	83	1	5	2.19	1.09
Valid N (listwise)	83				

As English is the primary foreign language in Bosnia and Herzegovina, this research question aimed to explore the incorporation of literature in the curriculum and EFL classrooms within this context.

The first item in the scale, "My previous English teachers utilized literary texts (novels, poems, plays, short stories) in English classes," received an average response of 3.66, indicating that 67.5% of students acknowledged the use of literary texts by their previous English teachers in the EFL classroom (see Appendix A). However, when considering the second item, "Reading literary texts in my English classes was mandatory," 61.4% of respondents stated that reading literary texts was compulsory in their previous education (see Appendix A). Interestingly, although a majority of students reported the mandatory nature of reading literary texts, the percentage of students who affirmed the utilization of literature by their teachers remained the same at 67.5% (see Appendix A). It is worth noting that earlier analysis of students' backgrounds and previous education revealed that those who responded negatively to these items typically came from technical high schools and madrasahs.

The findings indicate that a significant proportion of students experienced the utilization of literary texts in their previous English classes, despite the varying degrees of mandatory reading requirements. However, challenges and concerns surrounding the incorporation of literature in EFL classrooms persist, including teachers' perceptions of its complexity and potential time constraints. The availability of pre-existing textbooks and the need to adhere to curriculum objectives also contribute to the limited integration of literature. Further examination and dialogue among educators and curriculum developers may be necessary to address these challenges and find effective ways to integrate literature in EFL classrooms in a balanced and meaningful manner.

Conclusion

Evaluation of research questions and hypotheses

RQ1: The first research question examined freshman undergraduate students' attitudes toward reading literary texts in the EFL context. The findings revealed that students expressed positive attitudes towards reading short stories, which were the most well-received genre among respondents. Students also encountered difficulties with poetry but expressed a willingness to explore different cultural aspects presented in literary texts. Students appreciated teacher guidance, particularly in providing background information and explaining themes and plots. Reading for pleasure was also seen as beneficial for improving language skills.

RQ2: The second research question explored students' experiences with reading literary texts in the EFL context. The results indicated that literature was primarily utilized for vocabulary development in students' previous English classes. Students also believed that reading literary texts positively impacted their English skills, although reading for pleasure was perceived as having a more significant effect.

H1: The hypothesis stated that freshman undergraduate students' attitudes and experiences with reading literary texts would be mixed. The findings confirmed this hypothesis, as students displayed a range of attitudes towards literature, with positive responses related to personal interests, guidance from teachers, and reading for pleasure.

H2: The hypothesis proposed that freshman undergraduate students believed that the use of literature positively affected language skill development. The results supported this hypothesis, as students acknowledged improving their language skills through reading literary texts in class and reading for pleasure. However, there was a notable difference in the perceived impact, with reading for pleasure receiving higher recognition.

RQ3: The third research question examined the extent to which freshman undergraduate students were exposed to authentic materials, including literature, in the EFL classroom. The findings indicated that a significant proportion of students reported the use of literary texts by their previous English teachers. However, the mandatory nature of reading literary texts varied among students, and there was

a correlation between the absence of literature in classrooms and students from technical high schools and madrasahs.

H3: The hypothesis suggested that literature was integrated into EFL classrooms to a limited extent. The findings supported this hypothesis, highlighting possible challenges such as time constraints and teachers' perceptions of linguistic and conceptual demands associated with literary texts. However, it was observed that literature integration was more prevalent in gymnasiums.

Recommendations

Based on the analysis of genre preferences and potential difficulties with reading literary texts, several suggestions can be made regarding text selection in EFL classrooms. The survey results, along with previous research, indicate that students have a strong preference for short stories as a literary genre. Therefore, it may be beneficial for teachers to prioritize short stories as the primary genre in their curriculum. Texts that pose significant linguistic challenges or contain archaic language should be approached with caution, as they may hinder students' understanding and engagement.

When selecting texts, it is essential to consider students' interests and cultural awareness. Students have demonstrated an open-mindedness toward reading about different cultural aspects, and providing them with relevant background information is important. This includes explanations of unfamiliar cultural elements, historical references, as well as information related to themes, settings, and characters. Texts should introduce relatable and exciting themes to stimulate meaningful discussions in the classroom. To ensure text selection aligns with students' interests, engaging students in discussions or surveys to gauge their preferences and incorporate their input may be beneficial.

While this study provided valuable insights into students' attitudes and experiences, it is descriptive in nature and does not explain the underlying reasons behind the observed phenomena. To further enhance the research, a qualitative approach could be employed. Conducting interviews with teachers and students would provide deeper insights into the degree of literature incorporation in EFL classrooms, the balance between authentic and "inauthentic" materials, and the decision-making processes involved. Experienced teachers could share their observations on the impact of literature on language skill development, shedding light on its benefits and drawbacks. Follow-up interviews with students would allow for a more in-depth exploration of their attitudes, preferences, and the topics that facilitate their learning effectively.

References

- Agulló, G. L. (2003). Reading films and watching literary texts: 5 lesson plans for advances with TEFL students. *Bells: Barcelona English Language and Literature Studies*, 12, 1-14.
- Alfauzan, A. H., Hussain, A. G. (2016). Attitude towards and Perception of Literature in EFL Setting: A Case Study on QU Male Undergraduate Students. *English Language Teaching*, 10(1): 1-17. <https://doi.org/10.5539/elt.v10n1p1>.
- Belcher, D., Hirvela, A. (2000). Literature and L2 Composition: Revisiting the Debate. *Journal of Second Language Writing*, 9(1): 21-39. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S1060-3743\(99\)00021-1](https://doi.org/10.1016/S1060-3743(99)00021-1).
- Bobkina, J., Dominguez, E. (2014). The Use of Literature and Literary Texts in the EFL Classroom; Between Consensus and Controversy. *International Journal of Applied Linguistics and English Literature*, 3(2): 249-260. <https://doi.org/10.7575/aiac.ijalel.v.3n.2p.248>.
- Bushman, J. H., Bushman, K. P. (1997). *Using Young Adult Literature in the English Classroom* (2nd ed.). Merrill.
- Collie, J., Slater, S. (1987). *Literature in the language classroom: A resource book of ideas and activities*. Cambridge University Press.
- Duff, A., Maley, A. (1990). *Literature (Resource Book for Teachers)*. OUP Oxford.

- Duncan, S., Paran, A. (2018). Negotiating the Challenges of Reading Literature: Teachers Reporting on their Practice. In J. Bland (Ed.), *Using Literature in English Language Education: Challenging Reading for 8–18 Year Olds* (pp. 243-260). London, UK: Bloomsbury.
- Garland, S. (1998). *Writing for Young Adults* (1st ed.). Cincinnati: Writer's Digest Books.
- Hays, A. (2016). Using Young Adult (YA) Literature in a Classroom: How Does YA Literature Impact Writing Literacies. *Study and Scrutiny: Research on Young Adult Literature*, 2(1): 53-86. <https://doi.org/10.15763/issn.2376-5275.2016.2.1.53-86>.
- Hoque, M. E. (2007). The Use of Literature in Teaching English as a Foreign Language (TEFL). *Harvest: Jahangirnagar Studies of Literature and Language*, 22, 1-27.
- Hussein, E. T., Al-Emami, A. H. A.-E. (2016). Challenges to Teaching English Literature at the University of Hail: Instructors' Perspective. *Arab World English Journal*, 7, 125-138.
- Imamović, A., Džanić, N. D. (2016). 1. The Status of English in Bosnia and Herzegovina: Past and Present. In L. Buckingham (Ed.), *The Status of English in Bosnia and Herzegovina* (pp. 9-30). Multilingual Matters. <https://doi.org/10.21832/9781783095971-004>.
- Johnson, A. B., McClanahan, L. G., Mertz, M. P. (1999). Gender Representation in Poetry for Young Adults. *The ALAN Review*, 27(1): 39-44. <https://doi.org/10.21061/alan.v27i1.a.11>
- Kara, B. (2019). The Effect of Graded Readers on Reading Comprehension Skill of EFL Students. *Language Teaching and Educational Research*, 2(2): 160-172. <https://doi.org/10.35207/late.554716>.
- Khatib, M., Rezaei, S., Derakhshan, A. (2011). Literature in EFL/ESL Classroom. *English Language Teaching*, 4(1): 201-208. <https://doi.org/10.5539/elt.v4n1p201>
- Krashen, S. D. (2004). *The power of reading: Insights from the research* (2nd ed). London: Libraries Unlimited.
- Larsen-Freeman, D., Anderson, M. (2011). *Techniques and Principles in Language Teaching 3rd edition—Oxford Handbooks for Language Teachers*. Oxford University Press.
- Lazar, G. (1993). *Literature and language teaching: A guide for teachers and trainers*. Cambridge University Press.
- Lee, C. D., Spratley, A. (2009). *Reading in the Disciplines: The Challenges of Adolescent Literacy*. Carnegie Corporation of New York.
- Lesesne, T. S., Buckman, L., Caves, C., Day, B. (1997). RESEARCH REPORTS - Reaching Reluctant Readers: The Student Teacher On-Line Mentoring Project. *The ALAN Review*, 24(2): 31-35. <https://doi.org/10.21061/alan.v24i3.a.6>
- McKay, S. (1982). Literature in the ESL Classroom. *TESOL Quarterly*, 16(4): 529-536. JSTOR. <https://doi.org/10.2307/3586470>
- McRae, J. (1991). *Literature with a small 'l'*. New York: Prentice Hall.
- Ministarstvo za odgoj i obrazovanje Kantona Sarajevo. (2018). "Nastavni Plan i Program GIMNAZIJA." mo.ks.gov.ba. Accessed on 3 September 2021.
- Ortells, E. (2020). Children's Books by Canonical Authors in the EFL Classroom. *English Language Teaching*, 13(11): 100-112. <https://doi.org/10.5539/elt.v13n11p100>
- Parkinson, B., Thomas, H. R. (2000). *Teaching Literature in a Second Language*. Edinburgh University Press.
- Ragusa, O. (1965). Literary Texts in Language Instruction. *Italica*, 42(3): 276-280. <https://doi.org/10.2307/476903>
- Reed, A. J. S. (1994). *Reaching Adolescents: The Young Adult Book and the School*. Merrill.
- Rönqvist, L., Sell, R. D. (1994). Teenage books for teenagers: Reflections on literature in language education. *ELT Journal*, 48(2): 125-132.
- Rosenblatt, L. M. (2005). *Making Meaning with Texts: Selected Essays*. Pearson Education Canada.
- Stein, J. M. (1965). Language Teaching and Literature. *The German Quarterly*, 38, 436-439. <https://doi.org/10.2307/3806698>

- Stern, S. L. (1985). *Teaching literature in ESL/EFL: An integrative approach*. University of California, Los Angeles.
- Takahashi, K. (2015). Literary Texts as Authentic Materials for Language Learning: The Current Situation in Japan. In M. Teranishi, Y. Saito, and K. Wales (Eds.), *Literature and Language Learning in the EFL Classroom* (pp. 26-40). London: Palgrave Macmillan. doi:10.1057/9781137443663_3.
- Tevdovska, E. S. (2016). Literature in ELT Setting: Students' Attitudes and Preferences Towards Literary Texts. *Procedia - Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 232, 161–169. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.sbspro.2016.10.041>.
- Van, T. T. M. (2009). The Relevance of Literary Analysis to Teaching Literature in the EFL Classroom. *English Teaching Forum*, 47(3): 2-9.
- Wilder, A., Teasley, A. B. (2000). High School Connection YA: FAQ (We're Glad You Asked!). *The ALAN Review*, 28(1): 55-57. <https://doi.org/10.21061/alan.v28i1.a.13>.
- Zoreda, L. M., Vivaldo-Lima, J. (2008). Scaffolding linguistic and intercultural goals in EFL with simplified novels and their film adaptation. *English Teaching Forum*, 3, 22-29.

Appendix A

Survey Questionnaire and Responses

Table A1

Question	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree
1. I enjoy reading novels in English.	3.1%	8.2%	23.5%	41.8%	23.5%
2. I enjoy reading short stories in English.	1.0%	2.0%	11.2%	40.8%	44.9%
3. I enjoy reading poems in English.	8.2%	17.3%	26.5%	25.5%	22.4%
4. I enjoy reading plays in English.	8.2%	18.4%	35.7%	29.6%	8.2%
5. I enjoy reading graded readers and simplified texts in English.	4.1%	15.3%	35.7%	31.6%	13.3%
6. I experience difficulties when reading poetry in English.	22.4%	35.7%	22.4%	15.3%	4.1%
7. I experience difficulties when reading prose in English.	33.7%	32.7%	20.4%	12.2%	1.0%
8. I experience difficulties reading English literary texts due a to lack of time for reading.	20.4%	28.6%	23.5%	21.4%	6.1%
9. I experience difficulties reading English literary texts due to a lack of willingness to read.	22.4%	27.6%	22.4%	20.4%	7.1%
10. I face difficulties while reading English literary texts due to the complex cultural aspects described in the texts described in the texts (beliefs, relationships, values, traditions).	37.8%	33.7%	17.3%	7.1%	4.1%
11. I face difficulties while reading English literary texts due to the length of the literary texts.	23.5%	32.7%	18.4%	21.4%	4,1%
12. I face difficulties while reading English literary texts due to the complex and archaic (old) language used in the text.	16.3%	22.4%	19.4%	31.6%	10.2%

13. It helps me when my English teacher provides background information (culture, history, politics, and author) related to the text.	-	5.1%	13.3%	49.0%	32.7%
14. It helps me when my English teacher introduces different language activities, group work, and pair work, when working on the literary text.	4.1%	11.2%	32.7%	37.8%	14.3%
15. It helps me when my English teacher provides information related to the topic, theme, plot and characters in the literary text.	-	5.1%	16.3%	50.0%	28.6%
16. It helps me when the topics in the literary texts are related to and relevant for my personal life.	2.0%	3.1%	24.5%	41.8%	28.6%
17. It helps me when the literary text introduces cultural aspects, which are familiar to me.	-	3.1%	34.7%	43.9%	18.4%
18. I am interested in literary texts, which introduce topics, and cultural aspects, which differ from my own values and culture.	-	5.1%	22.4%	46.9%	25.5%
19. Watching a film or video related to the literary text helps me understand the text better.	1.0%	8.2%	21.4%	38.8%	30.6%
20. Reading for pleasure in English has improved my English skills	3.1%	-	15.3%	31.6%	50.0%
21. Reading children's literature when I was a child enhanced my love for literature.	10.2%	15.3%	27.6%	23.5%	23.5%
22. I find contemporary works of literature more engaging than canonical works: (canonical: Dostoevsky, Tolstoy, Dickens, Kafka...)	12.2%	16.3%	41.8%	23.5%	6.1%
23. My previous English teacher designed translation activities with literary texts.	7.1%	27.6%	17.3%	39.8%	8.2%
24. Literary texts, which were utilized in my previous English classes, have improved my English skills.	7.1%	9.2%	20.4%	45.9%	17.3%
25. My previous English teachers always tended to design speaking rather than reading activities.	4.1%	16.3%	40.8%	25.5%	13.3%
26. Literary texts in my previous English classes were analyzed for grammar purposes.	8.2%	22.4%	20.4%	40.8%	8.2%
27. Literary texts in my previous English classes were analyzed for vocabulary purposes.	2.0%	5.1%	10.2%	64.3%	18.4%
28. Literary texts in my previous English classes were analyzed for critical thinking purposes.	4.1%	18.4%	23.5%	39.8%	14.3%
29. My previous English teachers utilized literary texts (novels, poems, plays, short stories) in English classes.	4.8%	13.3%	14.5%	45.8%	21.7%

30. Reading literary texts in my English classes was mandatory.	4.8%	15.7%	18.1%	38.6%	22.9%
31. Literary texts in my previous English classes were barely discussed.	31.3%	36.1%	16.9%	13.3%	2.4%

Appendix B

Demographic information

The initial section of the survey aimed to gather demographic information about the participants. These details provide valuable insights for analyzing potential differences in attitudes and experiences with literature based on gender, academic background, and educational history.

Table B1

SQ1: Gender: male/ female.
SQ2: Nationality?
SQ3: Age: 18-19/ 20-21/ 22-25/ 25+
SQ4: Year of study: 1st/ 2nd/ 3rd/ 4th.
SQ5: Faculty: FENS/ FASS/ FBA/ FEDU/ FLW.
SQ6: Department?
SQ7: I started learning English in: elementary school/ high school/ university.
SQ8: I attended English Language School (ELS) at IUS: yes/no
SQ9: Which high school did you attend and in which city?

**Emotions, orientations and intentions for linguistic variations:
Guide for language teaching - a report**

ISSN 2657-9774; <https://doi.org/10.36534/erlj.2023.01.13>

Edlyne Fabian-Perona
Bulacan State University, Philippines; edlyne.perona@maap.edu.ph

Abstract

Language is an essential component of education as a means of communication and a vehicle for personal and social development. Therefore, it is essential to recognize language's role in education and promote linguistic diversity and inclusivity in the classroom. We, as educators, are frequently aware of students' activities involving linguistic variation, but we need to pay attention to the uncovered aspects. This paper is based on direct observations made among multilingual Filipino students from various regions of the Philippine archipelago. Furthermore, the article discusses first-hand observations used to understand the contexts of students' emotions, orientations, and intentions while receiving classroom instruction in the English language.

Keywords: *language affective domain, mother tongue, linguistic diversity, classroom instructions, communication*

Introduction

Teaching is a challenging and rewarding profession that requires a significant amount of emotional labor. As a result, teachers often experience a wide range of emotions when teaching learners (Lee 2019). Overall, teaching can be an emotionally complex profession that requires patience, empathy, and resilience. However, effective teachers can manage their emotions and use them to connect with their learners and create positive learning environments.

Sometimes as educators, we can become so focused on our teaching objectives that we overlook the emotional needs of our students. However, it is essential to recognize that emotions play a crucial role in learning and that addressing the emotional needs of our students is vital to creating a positive learning environment. Meanwhile, students can exhibit several common qualities inside the classroom, which can contribute to their academic success and overall performance. Educators can foster these qualities in students by creating a positive and supportive classroom environment, providing opportunities for engagement and collaboration, setting high expectations, and providing feedback and support for student growth and development.

When teaching a language, it is crucial to recognize that linguistic variations are a natural and normal aspect of language use. Students may use different language varieties based on their cultural, social, and regional backgrounds, and it is vital to understand the emotions, orientations, and intentions behind these variations.

The Philippines is one of the most linguistically diverse nations in the world. According to Ethnologue, a catalog of world languages updated yearly, there are 171 living languages in the archipelago (Mojarro 2021). In the Philippine classroom setting, English prevails as the predominant medium of instruction. It is used more in teaching than the national language, Filipino. All subjects except the subject of Filipino are taught in English.

Efforts have been made to promote language learning and preservation in the Philippines, such as by including regional languages in education and establishing language museums and cultural centers.

However, there is still much work to be done to fully harness the benefits of linguistic diversity while addressing the challenges it presents.

Conversely, some higher educational institutions (HEIs) in the country implement English Only Policy (EOP). It generally aims to mandate a common language, English, which can improve communication and reduce misunderstandings among individuals who speak different languages.

Despite the pursuits mentioned, linguistic variation is common during classroom instruction (Heineke and McTighe 2018), as students come from different backgrounds and may use language differently based on their cultural, social, and linguistic experiences. These variations include pronunciation, vocabulary, grammar, and sentence structure differences. It can sometimes create communication barriers between teachers and students, making it difficult for teachers to understand and respond to students' needs. Moreover, this can impact students' academic performance and overall learning experience. However, as educators, we have yet to pay attention to our students' emotions, orientations and intentions for doing such activities.

It is commonly observed in classroom activities; students use their mother tongue. Most often than not, we allow them with such recurrent circumstances with my classes. The researcher has investigated the uncovered aspect of students' emotions, orientations and intentions for linguistic variation.

Emotions: According to Cordaro et al. (2018), students may have emotional associations with their language varieties, and it is vital to recognize and respect these emotions. For example, students who speak a non-standard dialect may be proud of their cultural heritage and have a solid emotional attachment to their language variety. Therefore, teachers should recognize and respect these emotions while emphasizing the importance of learning standard variations for academic and professional settings.

Orientations: Students' orientations toward their language varieties may differ, influencing their language use. Some students may see their non-standard dialects as a source of identity and resistance to dominant cultural norms, whereas others may see them as a barrier to academic and professional success. This is supported by Alfaro and Bartolomé's (2017) investigation, which highlighted that teachers should be aware of these orientations and work to promote positive attitudes toward language learning and standard varieties.

Intentions: It is essential to comprehend the intentions of our students when they use their language varieties because these intentions may differ. A student may switch between speaking standard English and a non-standard dialect, for instance, in order to fit in with their peers or communicate effectively with various audiences (Kuteeva 2020). Teachers should therefore assist students in understanding the value of code-switching and the use of appropriate linguistic varieties in various contexts.

The following statements were summarized based on observation conducted by the researcher.

1. Students felt comfortable and at ease when using their mother tongue, including Tagalog, Cebuano, Hilagyanin, Ilocano, Bisaya, Waray, Kapampangan, Tausug, Minasbate, Ilonggo, Pangasinense, Maguindanaon, Zambal and Karay-a. The mother tongue is essential to a student's identity and cultural heritage. In addition, speaking the mother tongue helps students *connect with their cultural roots, family, and community*.
2. Students' orientation using their mother tongue was seen while discussing a particular topic. It was noted that it could benefit students such as *clarification, comprehension, cultural relevance and confidence*. In addition, using the mother tongue is a supportive tool to help students understand complex concepts and build confidence in their abilities.
3. Intentions for linguistic variation encompass: (a) *asking for clarification*, (b) *for entertainment (jokes)* and (c) *explaining ideas*. Students tend to use their mother tongue to clarify complex or abstract concepts in English further. Meanwhile, linguistic variation occurs whenever students aim to enhance their interactive engagement with topics closely tied to their culture. Finally, students more proficient in their first language/dialect may have better comprehension skills,

particularly in grammar and sentence structure. Using their first language/dialect to explain new concepts helps them understand the material more quickly and easily.

Conclusion

Teachers need to recognize the value of dialects and create a classroom environment that includes all students, regardless of their linguistic background. We can do this by incorporating our students' dialects into classroom discussions and activities, providing opportunities for them to share their linguistic and cultural knowledge, and promoting a positive attitude towards linguistic diversity.

Specifically, feeling comfortable speaking the mother tongue is essential for students' personal, cognitive, and linguistic development. We can support students' mother tongue proficiency by providing opportunities to use their mother tongue in the classroom and valuing and respecting linguistic diversity. Using their mother tongue is a supportive tool to help students understand complex concepts and build confidence in their abilities. It is also crucial for us to understand and communicate in our students' first language so that we can support their learning effectively. However, it is essential to note that using the mother tongue should differ from learning and using English in the classroom. Students still need to develop their English language skills, particularly if they plan to use English in academic or professional settings.

In reality, understanding the emotions, orientations, and intentions of students using their mother tongue can be challenging, especially for us who do not speak the same language. Overall, we need to approach communication with our students using their mother tongue with sensitivity, patience, and a willingness to learn. By actively seeking to understand our students' emotions, orientations, and intentions, we can create a more inclusive and supportive learning environment for all students.

References

- Alfaro, C., Bartolomé, L. (2017). Preparing ideologically clear bilingual teachers: Honoring working-class non-standard language use in the bilingual education classroom. *Issues in Teacher Education*, 26(2): 11-34.
- Cordaro, D. T., Sun, R., Keltner, D., Kamble, S., Huddar, N., McNeil, G. (2018). Universals and cultural variations in 22 emotional expressions across five cultures. *Emotion*, 18(1), 75-93.
- Heineke, A. J., McTighe, J. (2018). *Using understanding by design in the culturally and linguistically diverse classroom*. ASCD.
- Kuteeva, M. (2020). Revisiting the 'E' in EMI: Students' perceptions of standard English, lingua franca and translanguaging practices. *International Journal of Bilingual Education and Bilingualism*, 23(3): 287-300.
- Lee, Y. H. (2019). Emotional labor, teacher burnout, and turnover intention in high-school physical education teaching. *European Physical Education Review*, 25(1): 236-253.
- Mojarro, (2021). The Manila Times. Linguistic diversity in the Philippines. <https://www.manilatimes.net>

Volume 2023-1(9) Authors

Anita Bright orcid.org/0000-0002-6163-853X: USA, Portland State University, College of Education. Anita Bright, Ph.D. is a Professor in the Department of Curriculum and Instruction, and serves as the Program Coordinator for the ESOL Endorsement. During the 2022-24 academic years, she is a Senior Fulbright Scholar at Bethlehem University in Bethlehem, in the Palestinian Occupied Territories. Her ongoing projects engage Critical Race Theory, and explore power, privilege, and the ways educators conceptualize ideas of social justice. Further, her work highlights the ways educators address systemic inequities, including racism, sexism, classism, linguicism, and their intersections. abright@pdx.edu

Izabela Celevska orcid.org/0009-0003-6545-4978: REPUBLIC OF N. MACEDONIA, Ss Cyril and Methodius University, Faculty of Philology. Izabela Celevska holds a BA in English Language and Literature and an MA in Philology Studies, specifically, in English Linguistics. She teaches Modern English Language to sophomores enrolled at the Department of English Language and Literature, at the “Blaze Koneski” Faculty of Philology, Ss Cyril and Methodius University in Skopje, Republic of N. Macedonia. Her key interests are in the field of English grammar and linguistics, particularly in the areas of lexicology, word formation, and contrastive analysis, among others. izabela_celevska@hotmail.com

Chenkai Chi orcid.org/0000-0002-4331-3600: Canada, University of Windsor. Chenkai Chi is a PhD Candidate in Educational Studies, Faculty of Education, University of Windsor. He won SSRHC Doctoral Fellowship and Ontario Graduate Scholarship (OGS). His research interests include teacher education and professional development, mathematics education, literacy education, curriculum studies, and West-East Reciprocal Learning. He was a Research Assistant in Xu and Connelly’s SSHRC Partnership Grant Project (2013-2020) and is a Research Assistant in Xu’s Canada Research Chair program (2019-2024). He is also a Research Associate at University of Western Ontario in Sirek and Sefton’s SSHRC Insight Program (2023-2024). chi3@uwindsor.ca

Fatima Ejubović orcid.org/0009-0006-7122-1830: BOSNIA AND HERZEGOVINA, International University of Sarajevo (IUS), Faculty of Arts and Social Sciences. She teaches Academic English and Effective Communication, and Critical Reading and Writing courses to undergraduate freshman students at IUS. Her research interests include the intersection of literature and EFL (English as a Foreign Language) instruction, the role of storytelling in enhancing the learning process, and the application of neuroscience principles in the field of EFL instruction. fejubovic@ius.edu.ba

Edlynn Fabian-Perona orcid.org/0000-0003-4772-1094: PHILIPPINES, Bulacan State University. Fabian-Perona is a PhD candidate in English Language Studies at Bulacan State University and currently serves as an Assistant Research Coordinator at the Maritime Academy of Asia and the Pacific. She has presented research papers both locally and internationally, with her work concentrating on curriculum and instructional development, second language acquisition, and collaborative learning. edlynn.perona@maap.edu.ph

Adrienn Fekete orcid.org/0000-0003-1805-2426: HUNGARY, University of Pécs, Faculty of Humanities and Social Sciences, Institute of English Studies. Adrienn Fekete is an English applied linguist and Assistant Professor at the University of Pécs in Hungary. Her research interests include psychological, emotional and identity responses to language learning, linguacultural identities, the psychology of online and offline education drawing on complex dynamic systems theory, and intercultural communication. Her courses focus on teaching methodology, intercultural communication, individual differences in

second language acquisition, research methodology, educational drama, and translation studies. fekete.adrienn@pte.hu

Daniela Feistritz orcid.org/0000-0002-6038-5622: NORWAY, Porsgrunn Videregående Skole, Language Department. MA in conference interpreting (University of Vienna). Conference interpreter and language teacher. Key interests are functional language learning and use, shadowing, double attention between L1, L2, L3 etc. and the role of emotions in language learning and use. danielaf@online.no

Mary Goodrich orcid.org/0009-0006-0398-8298: USA. Mary is currently a US Department of State English Language Fellow based at Al Quds Open University (QOU) in West Bank, Palestine. Mary is a certified teacher with master's degrees in both TESOL and Literacy, with over 25 years' experience in the field of education. Her most recent positions include teaching EAP at Gonzaga University in Spokane, WA, and in community-based programs for refugees' elders. Along with other teaching duties at QOU, she facilitates productive skills workshops for undergraduates and leads professional development opportunities for colleagues in her community. goodrichm321@gmail.com

Jens Hagan orcid.org/0000-0001-9708-2038: NORWAY, Inland Norway University of Applied Sciences, Faculty of Education, Department of Humanities. PhD (doctor artium) in Norwegian/Nordic linguistics. Working as a docent with research mainly related to the role of Nynorsk ('New Norwegian') in education and society. Main research association and network: Educational Role of Language. jens.haugan@inn.no

Kimberly Ilosvay orcid.org/0009-0003-6101-9813: USA. Kimberly is currently an English Language Fellow at Palestine Polytechnic University, Hebron, Palestine Territories, English Department. In addition to serving as a Fellow, Kimberly Ilosvay is currently a Global Fulbright Scholar in Belfast and Ecuador working on programming for inclusive education and intercultural partnerships. She has experience working in preschool through adult education focusing on literacy, ESOL, and neuroeducation. Her research interests include language acquisition and intercultural dialogue and exchange. konnnect9501@gmail.com

Xiaojun Kong orcid.org/0009-0005-1200-9824: CHINA, independent researcher. Xiaojun received her degree of Master of Education in Language and Literacies Education from University of Toronto. She received her degree of Master of Professional Education in Multiliteracies Education from the University of Western Ontario. She received her degree of Master of Arts in Marketing from Durham University. She has been teaching (International English Language Testing System) IELTS since 2010. Her research interests are teacher education, interdisciplinary curriculum design and second language teaching methodologies. kxj0726@hotmail.com

Ervin Kovačević orcid.org/0000-0003-1262-071X: BOSNIA AND HERZEGOVINA, International University of Sarajevo (IUS), Faculty of Arts and Social Sciences. Ervin is a professor of applied linguistics in the English Language and Literature Program at IUS. He is the author of *Teaching Adult Language Learners: Enhancing Personal Methodologies*. His other publications usually explore relationships between ID variables and linguistic output. ekovacevic@ius.edu.ba

Haticetül Kübra Er orcid.org/0000-0001-5995-6224: TURKEY, Erzurum Technical University. Haticetül has been teaching English for 12 years. She got her B.A, MA, PH.D degree in English Language Teaching. She completed her Ph.D. degree in English Language Teaching at Yeditepe University in 2021. Among her areas of interest are Academic Writing, L2 Writing, Assessing L2 Writing, Teaching English to Adult Learners, Motivation, Drama, ESP, Approaches to Teaching Skills. During her Professional career, she has

participated and presented in many international ELT conferences. She also has received some training certificates such as, Teacher Education/Teacher Trainer (Sabancı University) and Dyslexia Trainer (Freud Universitat/Ministry of Turkish Education). She is currently working as an Assistant Professor at the School of Foreign Languages in Erzurum Technical University, Turkey. kubra.er@erzurum.edu.tr

Emel Küçükali <https://orcid.org/0000-0002-5162-6914>: TURKEY, Dokuz Eylül University. Emel has been teaching English for 16 years. She got her B.A. and Ph.D. degree in English Language Teaching. She completed her Ph.D. degree in English Language Teaching at Yeditepe University in 2021. Among her areas of interest are Academic Writing, Multi Linguagism, Translanguaism, ESP, Teacher Education. During her professional career, she has participated and presented in many international ELT conferences and published articles in the field of English Language Teaching. She is currently working as an English Instructors at the School of Foreign Languages in Dokuz Eylül University, Turkey. emel.kucukali@deu.edu.tr

Andre Kurowski orcid.org/0000-0002-8841-3365: United Kingdom, University of Chichester, Institute of Education and Social Sciences. Andre has a BSc (Hons) in Sociology, a BA (Hons) in Post Compulsory Education, and an MA in Leadership and Management. Andre achieved his PhD in Educational Policy and School Leadership from the University of Chichester. Andre is a Senior Lecturer on Childhood Studies programs with specialisms in social science and management, and coordinator of a Level 6 Top up program in Early Childhood. Andre has worked in a variety of educational settings, and has a wide range of experience working with young people in other capacities. Andre is currently involved with research into mature female students on childcare programs. Andre's primary interests are the social and cultural aspects of language. A.Kurowski@chi.ac.uk

Helena Liwo orcid.org/0000-0003-0192-737X: Poland, Ateneum Academy in Gdańsk, Faculty of Educational Studies. She has a PhD of social sciences in the field of pedagogy, Assistant Professor at the Faculty of Educational Studies at Ateneum Academy in Gdańsk. Her research interests focus on issues of language communication and its disorders, as well as the situation of people with disabilities in the context of social discourse. She is a specialist in surdologopaedics and actively engages in speech disorder therapy at the PZG (Polish Deaf Association) Specialist Centre for Diagnosis and Therapy of Children and Teenagers with Hearing Loss in Gdańsk. helenaliwo@gmail.com

Slađana (Jelica) Marić orcid.org/0000-0002-9270-7016: SERBIA, University of Novi Sad (UNS), Faculty of Philosophy, Research Associate in Social Sciences – Pedagogy. Three Secondary Music School state degrees in Piano Performance, Music Theory and Opera. Graduated in Music Pedagogy at the Academy of Arts (UNS) and in English Language Philology at the Faculty of Law and Business Studies “Dr Lazar Vrtakić” in Novi Sad. Doctoral Degree in Teaching Methodology at the Faculty of Philosophy, University of Novi Sad. Her main research interests are in the fields of Social Sciences (Education - Pedagogy) and Humanities (Languages and Music Arts): teaching methodology (online pedagogy, learning experience, instructional design), the educational role of languages, intersections of music and languages in education, multi/plurilingual research and pedagogy (multilingualism, second/foreign language teaching and learning (SLA/FLA), English Language Teaching (ELT), English in Professional Music Education (EPME)). Slađana Marić has published more than twenty research articles in peer-reviewed journals and international publications and presented research studies at major international conferences (USA, Cyprus, Czech Republic, Greece, Malta, Poland and Serbia). sladjana.maric@ff.uns.ac.rs

Eva Mikuska orcid.org/0000-0003-2486-9643: United Kingdom, University of Chichester, Institute of Education and Social Sciences. Currently works at the University of Chichester as a Senior Lecturer and

Program Leader; she gained MA LTHE in 2012 and EdD in 2021 and became a Senior Fellow Higher Education Academy (SFHEA) in 2021. Her research interest focuses on exploring the role of emotion in professional practices in addition to examining gender discourses in the Early Childhood Education Care field. She is a trustee for TACTYC Association for Professional Development in Early Years, co-chair for Research Knowledge Strategy Group, ECSDN network. e.mikuska@chi.ac.uk

Aneta Naumoska orcid.org/0000-0001-8734-2246: NORTH MACEDONIA, Ss. Cyril and Methodius University, Blaze Koneski Faculty of Philology, Department of English Language and Literature. Assistant Professor in Linguistics. Key interests: grammatical categories (gender, number) in connection to ELT; the intersection between language and culture; EFL materials development. Created the first bilingual dictionary (English-Macedonian and vice versa) as a mobile app (www.macengdictionary.com). She co-authored three Business English coursebooks for University students. naumoska.an@gmail.com

Biljana Naumoska-Sarakinska orcid.org/0000-0001-7657-9598: REPUBLIC OF N. MACEDONIA, Ss Cyril and Methodius University, Faculty of Philology. Biljana Naumoska-Sarakinska, PhD, is an Associate Professor at the Department of English Language and Literature, at the Faculty of Philology within the Ss Cyril and Methodius University in Skopje, the Republic of N. Macedonia. Her key interests are in the field of English grammar and linguistics, in the areas of semantics, word formation, morphology, lexicology, as well as ESP – Business English. She teaches a number of core and elective courses at the undergraduate level of studies, including Modern English, Semantics, Business English Communication and Correspondence, as well as Business English at the Faculty of Economy, within the same University. At this level of studies, she is engaged as visiting professor at the Faculty in Novi Sad. At the postgraduate level, she teaches Topics in Semantics, where she is also supervisor to MA candidates. At the moment, she is involved in the Erasmus+ (KA2) Project - DAFLS – Developing Applied Foreign Language Skills (Developing multilingual skills training for special purposes), an international project in collaboration with the University in Caen, France, the University in Belgrade, Serbia, and Ss Cyril and Methodius University in Skopje, Republic of N. Macedonia. biljananaumoska@flf.ukim.edu.mk

Caroline S. Purcell orcid.org/0009-0000-6392-8373: USA, Mount St. Mary's University Seminary. Caroline Purcell, MA/MATESOL, is the Program Coordinator of the English Language Program at Mount St. Mary's University Seminary where she also provides English language instruction. During the 2022-2023 academic year, she is serving as the English Language Fellow at An-Najah National University in Nablus, Palestine, where she teaches writing, reading, conversation, and aural comprehension to undergraduates at An-Najah National University, as well as conducts teacher-training workshops. purcell@msmary.edu

Ivona Smilevska orcid.org/0009-0002-4391-8156: NORTH MACEDONIA, Ss. Cyril and Methodius University, Blaze Koneski Faculty of Philology, Department of English Language and Literature. Graduated in 2021. Ivona is working as an EFL teacher in a private language school. smilevska.ivona@hotmail.com

Volume 2023-1(9) Reviewers

Oumaima Elghazali (Morocco, Mohammed V University)

Antonia Estrela (Portugal, Higher School of Education of the Polytechnic School of Lisbon)

Tatjana Glusac (Serbia, University of Novi Sad)

Yasunari Harada (Japan, Wesada University)

Maria Jodłowiec (Poland, Jagiellonian University in Kraków)

Małgorzata Karczewska (Poland, University of Zielona Góra)

Sonja Kitanovska-Kimovska (North Macedonia, Ss. Cyril and Methodius University)

Agnieszka Łojewska (Poland, Polish Naval Academy of the Heroes of Westerplatte)

Zakaria Othmane (Morocco, Mohammed V University of Rabat)

Zejko Pavic (Croatia, University of Osijek)

Małgorzata Pilecka (Poland, Ateneum Academy in Gdańsk)

Danica Pirsli (Serbia, University of Nis)

Solzica Popovska (North Macedonia, Ss. Cyril and Methodius University)

Alina Reznitskaya (USA, Montclair State University)

Sanja Simel Pranjić (Croatia, University of Osijek)

Nektarios Stellakis (Greece, University of Patras)

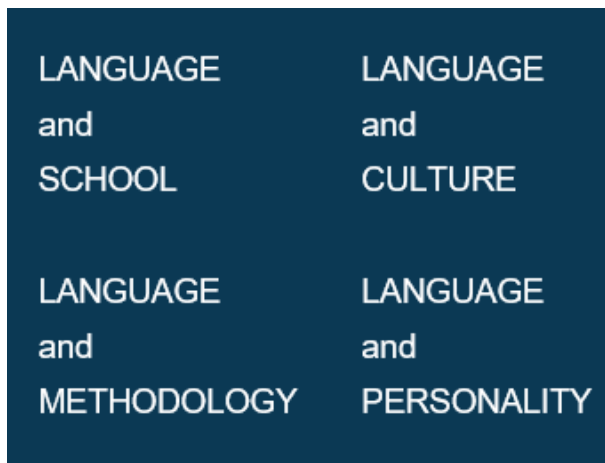
Gertrud Tarp (Denmark, Aalborg University)

Alina Tenescu (Romania, University of Craiova)

Silvana Tokić (Croatia, University of Split)

ERL Journal – Scope Major

Key premise. **The educational role of language, reaching far beyond school(ing), is determined by multiple aspects relating to culture, methodology and/or personality.** To be suitably comprehensive, studies blending educational with linguistic studies need to comprise all these aspects.



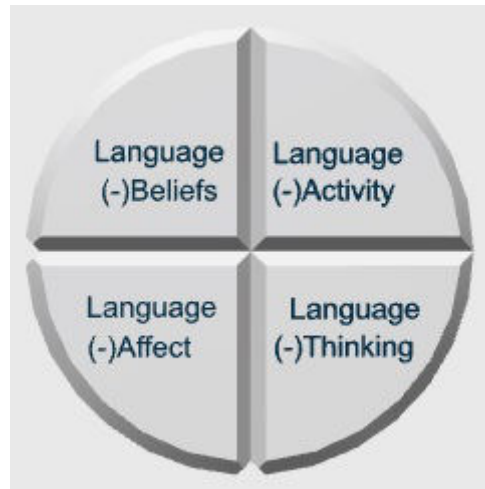
General rationale. Language lies at the heart of schooling, culture, (learning and teaching) methods, and personality – thus underlying education on the individual and on the social level. Its social existence determines its experiencing by an individual person and vice versa. Both these levels matter when it comes to learning and teaching methods as well as schooling as a whole. Socially determined and individually experienced, language shapes culture and education, and, from an individual perspective, it defines a person’s place in the world and defines the world in which a person is placed.

Specific issues. Accordingly, ERL Journal welcomes papers addressing issues such as: language of schooling, bilingual education, language identity, intercultural competence, discourse analysis, children narratives, personal constructs, language in special education, transversal skills, language mediation, academic language, elicitation, plurilingual teaching, CLIL, functions of language, etc.

Expected outcome. Systematization of knowledge concerning the educational position of language; aggregation of empirical findings pertaining to social and cultural determinants of how language serves education; development of interdisciplinary educational and linguistic studies; recognition of problems calling for research and discussion of ways of putting language theories into practice.

ERL Journal – Scope Minor

Key premise. **A person's education is determined by how language operates on four levels – beliefs, activity, affect and thinking.** To be maximally educational, the experiencing of language by a person comprises these four dimensions, which implies a need for their comprehensive studies.



General rationale. How language affects a person's education depends on multiple axiological, psychomotor, affective, and cognitive factors. For instance, what a person thinks of language (e.g. on whether it is worth speaking or not) and how much a person speaks determines that person's mental faculties. Conversely, how a person understands a given issue (as well as how s/he feels about it) impacts on how interesting utterances s/he produces. Hence, there exist relationships between language and all the aforementioned educational domains.

Specific issues. Accordingly, ERL Journal welcomes papers concerning issues falling within one or more of the four domains, such as: status of language in school curricula, language of textbooks, language activity of children or grown-ups, stages of language fossilization, argumentative skills, language learning styles, verbalization of knowledge, approaches to oracy, personal experiencing of language skills, language image of the world, cognitive discourse functions, language reflectivity, etc.

Expected outcome. Collection of theoretical proposals and empirical data supporting learner-oriented educational practice; exploration of the relationship between language and four educational domains; detection of factors determining learners' language identity/personality; accumulation of data providing assistance in construction of language-grounded educational systems.

ERL Journal is designated for papers on cross-disciplinary, educational and linguistic, issues. It is meant to address (I) the position of language and how it is put into practice across different schools, cultures, methods and personalities, and (II) the experiencing of language by learners in terms of their language beliefs, activity, affect and cognition. ERL Journal includes theoretical and empirical papers, presenting qualitative and quantitative approaches. Resting on the overarching premise of language shaping our reality and education (assignment of meanings to the world and subject matter learnt), it ultimately aims to unravel this process and to boost the position of language in education.

ERL Journal is international, interdisciplinary, peer-reviewed, and double-blinded.

It is open access and follows free-of-charge policy for authors.

<http://educationalroleoflanguage.org/erl-journal/>

