



Universidade de Brasília – UnB
Instituto de Letras – IL
Departamento de Linguística, Português e Línguas Clássicas – LIP
Programa de Pós-Graduação em Linguística – PPGL

**EXPLORING THE IMPACT OF SOCIO-AFFECTIVE FACTORS ON
ADDITIONAL LANGUAGE SPEECH ATTAINMENT:
Case Studies with Brazilian learners**

Laís de Oliveira Borges

Brasília
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They sent me away to teach me how to be sensible
Logical, oh, responsible, practical
And then they showed me a world where I could be so dependable
Oh, clinical, oh, intellectual, cynical
There are times when all the world's asleep
The questions run too deep
For such a simple man
Won't you please, please tell me what we've learned?
I know it sounds absurd
Please tell me who I am.
The Logical Song - Supertramp

ABSTRACT

The majority of mainstream SLA/TESOL studies about the role of social-affective factors on language outcomes comprise correlations of self-reported psychological variables (Dörnyei, 2015), thus failing to provide a more comprehensive overview of the socio-affective domain. The present study attempts to draw attention to this gap in the literature by examining the ways in which socio-affective factors relate to English as an additional language (EAL) speech performance. Five Brazilian learners' EAL learning autobiographies were analyzed and contrasted with their instructor's reports to determine whether these narratives influenced learners' affective regimes, and the extent to which they had an impact on learners' EAL speech proficiency. Classroom observations were also employed to better understand the ways learners' self-reported affective responses to the learning process were in accordance with their actions in the language classroom. McAdams and Pals' New Big Five (2007), i.e., a proposal for a comprehensive and integrative personality theory, was adopted as a theoretical framework from which a grounded theory for socio-affective factors in a Brazilian EAL context was developed. The main study was conducted after a pilot study had been administered to examine the applicability of the instruments and the research methods. Results indicate that learners displaying higher levels of EAL speech attainment share similar affective reactions to the EAL learning process (e.g., positive cultural beliefs towards the target-language culture(s), language learning enjoyment, satisfaction with the instructor and the teaching method). Furthermore, all five students seemed to share similar individual difference profiles (e.g., extroverted, few neurotic traits, high WTC). An analysis of contrasts of affective reactions from learners who appear to have differing levels of EAL speech attainment revealed that, overall, their affective regimes do not differ in the same language component. In relation to learners' assessment of their EAL speech abilities, after their language instructor's ratings were contrasted with their own ratings, the study revealed that high scorers underestimate their EAL speech abilities, thus corroborating previous research findings. The study concludes that understanding the extent to which socio-affective factors influence speech achievement and which affective factors appear to contribute to different levels of speech attainment can assist language instructors in identifying reasons for their learners' apparent success or failure in attaining higher levels of speech attainment.

Keywords: Applied Linguistics; SLA; individual differences; socio-affective factors; EAL speech.

Explorando o Impacto de Fatores Socioafetivos no Aprendizado de Fala em Línguas Adicionais: Estudos de Caso com Aprendizes Brasileiros

RESUMO

A maioria dos estudos convencionais de ASL/TESOL sobre o papel de fatores socioafetivos em resultados de aprendizagem de línguas compreendem correlações de variáveis psicológicas autorrelatadas (Dörnyei, 2015), sendo ineficazes, portanto, no fornecimento de visão geral mais abrangente do domínio socioafetivo. O presente estudo tenta atrair atenção para essa lacuna na literatura examinando as maneiras pelas quais fatores socioafetivos se relacionam com o desempenho de fala em inglês como língua adicional (ILA) de aprendizes brasileiros. As autobiografias de aprendizagem de ILA de cinco aprendizes brasileiros foram analisadas e contrastadas com os relatos de seus instrutores para determinar de que forma essas narrativas influenciam os regimes afetivos dos aprendizes e até que ponto elas impactam a proficiência oral em ILA desses alunos. Observações em sala de aula também foram empregadas para compreender como as respostas afetivas autorrelatadas dos aprendizes ao processo de aprendizagem estavam em conformidade com suas ações em sala de aula. O New Big Five de McAdams e Pals (2007), i.e., proposta para teoria de personalidade abrangente e integrativa, foi adotado como arcabouço teórico a partir do qual uma grounded theory para fatores socioafetivos em um contexto brasileiro de ILA foi desenvolvida. O estudo principal foi conduzido após estudo piloto ter sido administrado para examinar a aplicabilidade dos instrumentos e dos métodos de pesquisa. Os resultados indicam que os alunos que exibem níveis mais altos de realização de fala em ILA compartilham reações afetivas semelhantes ao processo de aprendizagem de ILA (e.g., crenças culturais positivas em relação à(s) cultura(s) da língua-alvo, prazer em aprender a língua, satisfação com o instrutor e o método de ensino). Além disso, todos os cinco alunos aparentam compartilhar perfis de diferenças individuais semelhantes (e.g., extroversão, poucos traços neuróticos, alto WTC). A análise dos contrastes de reações afetivas de alunos que aparentam possuir diferentes níveis de realização de fala em ILA revelou que, no geral, seus regimes afetivos não diferem no mesmo componente linguístico. Em relação à avaliação dos alunos sobre suas habilidades de fala em ILA, após as avaliações de seus instrutores de idiomas serem contrastadas com suas próprias avaliações, o estudo revelou que os alunos com pontuações altas subestimam suas habilidades de fala em ILA, corroborando, assim, resultados de pesquisas anteriores. O estudo conclui que compreender como fatores socioafetivos influenciam a habilidade oral e quais fatores afetivos aparentam contribuir para diferentes níveis de realização oral podem auxiliar instrutores de línguas a identificar as razões para o aparente sucesso ou fracasso de seus alunos na obtenção de níveis mais elevados de desempenho de fala.

Palavras-chave: Linguística Aplicada; ASL; diferenças individuais; fatores socioafetivos; produção de fala em ILA.

RÉSUMÉ

La plupart des études classiques en ASL/TESOL sur le rôle des facteurs socio-affectifs dans les résultats d'apprentissage des langues s'appuient sur des corrélations entre variables psychologiques autodéclarées (Dörnyei, 2015), ce qui ne permet pas d'offrir une vision plus complète du domaine socio-affectif. Cette étude tente d'attirer l'attention sur cette lacune dans la littérature en examinant le lien entre les facteurs socio-affectifs et la performance orale en anglais langue additionnelle (ALA) des apprenants brésiliens. Les autobiographies d'apprentissage de l'ALA de cinq apprenants brésiliens ont été analysées et comparées aux récits de leurs enseignants afin de déterminer comment ces récits influencent les schémas affectifs des apprenants et dans quelle mesure ils impactent leur maîtrise de l'ALA. Des observations en classe ont également été utilisées pour comprendre comment les réponses affectives autodéclarées des apprenants au processus d'apprentissage s'alignent sur leurs actions en classe. La proposition de McAdams et Pals (2007), i.e., New Big Five, une théorie de la personnalité globale et intégrative, a été adoptée comme cadre théorique à partir duquel une théorie fondée sur les facteurs socio-affectifs dans un contexte brésilien d'ALA a été élaborée. L'étude principale a été menée après qu'une étude pilote ait été menée pour examiner l'applicabilité des instruments et des méthodes de recherche. Les résultats indiquent que les élèves qui affichent des niveaux élevés de réussite orale en anglais langue étrangère partagent des réactions affectives similaires au processus d'apprentissage de l'anglais langue étrangère (e.g., croyances culturelles positives concernant la ou les cultures de la langue cible, plaisir d'apprendre la langue, satisfaction à l'égard de l'instructeur et de la méthode d'enseignement). De plus, les cinq élèves semblent partager des profils de différences individuelles similaires (e.g., extraversion, peu de traits névrotiques, WTC élevé). L'analyse des réactions affectives contrastées des élèves qui semblent avoir des niveaux différents de réussite orale en anglais langue étrangère a révélé que, en général, leurs régimes affectifs ne diffèrent pas sur la même composante linguistique. Concernant l'évaluation par les élèves de leurs compétences orales en anglais langue étrangère, après avoir comparé les évaluations de leurs professeurs de langue avec leurs propres évaluations, l'étude a révélé que les élèves ayant de bons résultats sous-estiment leurs compétences orales en anglais langue étrangère, corroborant ainsi les résultats de recherches antérieures. L'étude conclut que comprendre comment les facteurs socio-affectifs influencent la performance orale et quels facteurs affectifs semblent contribuer aux différents niveaux de performance orale peut aider les professeurs de langues à identifier les raisons de la réussite ou de l'échec apparent de leurs étudiants à atteindre des niveaux de performance orale plus élevés.

Mots-clés: Linguistique appliquée; ASL; différences individuelles; facteurs socio-affectifs; production de la parole en ALA.

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

CAH	Contrastive Analysis Hypothesis
CPH	Critical Period Hypothesis
EAL	English as an Additional Language
L1	First Language
L2	Second Language
LX	Additional Language
NEO-FFI	Five Factor Inventory
NEO-PI	Neuroticism-Extraversion-Openness Personality Inventory
NEO-PI-R	Neuroticism-Extraversion-Openness Personality Inventory (r.)
SLA	Second Language Acquisition
TESOL	Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages
WTC	Willingness to Communicate

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PRELUDE: RESEARCH PARADIGMS IN PERSPECTIVE

To understand how this study came into fruition, I made the decision to outline, as a prelude to the present thesis, my trajectory as an applied linguist researcher, which started under a quantitative research paradigm and shifted towards a qualitative paradigmatic position during my doctoral studies. The present thesis is permeated by my insights on – and fierce criticism against – research traditions within the Applied Linguistics and TESOL (Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages) research communities. For a long time, I struggled to view studies which do not establish cause-and-effect relationships as rigorous scientific endeavors. Guided by theoretical research and a review of the empirical literature, I came to the realization that a qualitative perspective is more applicable for classroom studies on the interplay between foreign language acquisition and socio-psychological features. These reflexive practices on the nature of the scientific method are described in the current section.

I started off my academic pursuits while I completed my undergraduate studies as an Institutional Scientific Initiation Scholarship Program (PIBIC) scholar at the University of Brasilia (UnB). Supervised by Professor Vanessa de Almeida, I contrasted English as an Additional Language (EAL) oral proficiency exams (2011). This study ignited a fire within me, driving me to delve deeper into the subject. I have always been curious about the processes involved in language attainment and I realized at that point I could investigate language phenomena from a scientific standpoint. In addition to this study, my pursuit of a Master's degree was also motivated by my own experiences as an EAL teacher. Before completing my Masters in Applied Linguistics (TESOL) at University College London (2014), I had taught EAL for all age groups and levels of proficiency. My teaching experience had enabled me to appreciate the importance of individual differences in the process of learning a foreign language. I had noticed that within groups of learners who acquired EAL at the same age, there would be some who performed better than others. This phenomenon appeared to indicate that the process of learning a foreign language is influenced not only by biological timetables, but also by socio-psychological factors.

Therefore, as part of a Master's program, I investigated which beliefs about pronunciation are associated with success in this skill among Brazilian EAL learners. The results revealed that beliefs associated with language affect appear to exert a stronger effect on phonological achievement. The UCL Institute of Education selected this dissertation to

represent the program in the British Council Masters Dissertation Award scheme, and the study received a commendation for best contribution to English Language Teaching in 2014.

Looking back, I question the extent to which the quantitative nature of this study had been the driving force behind such enthusiastic response. MA students within Applied Linguistics in the UK typically refrain from pursuing quantitative endeavors due to time restraints. In case students decide to pursue quantitative research, they will have to learn Statistical Sampling and Inferential Statistics on their own. Oddly enough, this goes against the tide in the field as research traditions within Second Language Acquisition (SLA) in the UK are often oriented under positivist research paradigms¹.

In any case, driven by the results from this study, I wanted to further investigate the influence of individual differences in foreign language learning, particularly in the areas of language affect and EAL speech performance. In 2017 I was granted a UCL Overseas Research Scholarship to undertake an investigation of the affective dimensions of EAL speech achievement within Brazilian learning contexts. The board for these PhD scholarship grants is comprised of researchers from the ‘hard sciences’, who are only accustomed to objectivist paradigms of structure. There is no quota for the social sciences for PhD grant schemes at UCL. Naturally, I cannot help but wonder if I would have been granted this scholarship had I proposed a qualitative research methodology for this project.

As I resumed my academic studies, I became unconvinced that my research design was appropriate for the subject matter. How would I be able to have access to learners’ affective reactions to EAL speech attainment with questionnaire-based data, which is

¹ It should be noted that SLA research, especially in its early days, was heavily influenced by positivist paradigms; however, from the 1990s onwards, many researchers began to conduct studies with diversified methodologies. To illustrate, Schumann (1984) already emphasized the limitations of a strictly positivist and behavioral approach in the 1980s. Cadlin, in a 1983 conference, argued for a more interpretive and practical view of SLA research, linked to real teaching-learning contexts and not just experimental models. He emphasized the importance of considering the social and cultural context of learners beyond traditional teaching techniques based on formal and positivist analyses. Recent trends in global Applied Linguistics reveal a significant rise in qualitative and mixed-methods research. Mixed-methods studies, in particular, appear to be growing in prominence. Although SLA is, to this day, more drawn towards positivist research paradigms, especially in China, Europe and the U.S, in Brazil the reality is quite different. There is a strong qualitative tradition in Brazilian Applied Linguistics research.

centered on pre-determined responses? Could I establish cause-and-effect relationships between affective factors and speech performance in the target language? Surely, the process of learning a foreign language is a complex, multifaceted and ever-changing phenomenon, consisting of many variables which are context-dependent and cannot be entirely isolated².

Language classrooms, as Senior (2006, p. 15) puts it, are not “experimental laboratories (places where quantitative research of a scientific nature is traditionally conducted), because in classrooms it is impossible to exclude all the variables that may influence the findings.” How could I control the experiment? Would I be able to claim that my results were a true representation of the phenomena under investigation? These questions were at the back of my mind as I continued my path towards completing my doctoral thesis, traveling to attend an expensive course on Structural Equation Modelling and convincing the department to purchase a paid version of MPLUS, a software package for fitting structural equation models. I also took up courses on R language programming. Meanwhile, I, who had been so passionate about my academic studies, was slowly becoming disenchanted with my PhD journey. To be honest, I was not vocal about my uncertainties at that point because I simply did not envisage the scientific method in any other form. On top of all, as I was extremely busy at that time, working as a quantitative research assistant in different projects, I could not find the time to think clearly so as to devise a more effective course of action. I was overwhelmed with work and my life had become reactive. Soon enough, I would not have to make those decisions...

I developed what I believed to be at that time a burnout syndrome condition, i.e., “fatigue or frustration produced by dedication to a cause that is expected to give positive results and that creates conflict with the reality that does not correspond to the expectations of the professional (Franceschini & Santoro, 2017, p. 447).” My mother, who, as a graduate supervisor at UnB, had supervisees who had struggled with mental health problems in academia, was adamant that I should interrupt my studies. I returned to Brazil to treat my health problems, and was diagnosed with brain aneurysm. I underwent two surgeries in 2019 and avoided thinking about my research at all costs during that time. Then, COVID-19 was declared a global pandemic. I went back to work and life seemed good, despite the global

² “Human behavior is believed to emanate from a dynamic reality formed from multiple perspectives (Hadley, 2017, p.13)”.

outbreak of coronavirus. After I had been fully vaccinated, I decided it was time to resume my doctoral studies.

I was accepted into the UnB Linguistics Graduate Program in 2022 with a mixed methods research proposal. My plan was to resume my studies - this time closer to my friends and family. However, guided by my readings and discussions with my academic supervisor, Professor Rodrigo Albuquerque Pereira, my philosophical perspective on the scientific method began to evolve. In the first half of 2023, I taught, for the first time, Philosophy of Language, an undergraduate module at the Catholic University of Brasilia (UCB). I included in the first unit of the syllabus a chronological overview of philosophical approaches and schools of thought. When we talked about empiricism, I mentioned David Hume and his argument that causality cannot be proven. Because causation is defined by experience and thoughts are subjective, any cause-and-effect relationship, to him, could be inaccurate. Surprisingly, as I taught my students conceptual differences of what constitutes human language (e.g., the importance given by some philosophers to the role of mental processes in linguistic utterances or the social aspect of linguistic communication), I was more drawn towards poststructuralist and postmodernist notions of what characterizes human language. Was I becoming a qualitative researcher?

What had been so difficult to envisage before was now clear-cut: the study of affectivity in educational settings should not, or better yet, cannot be examined under a quantitative research paradigm. The dearth of qualitative studies in individual difference research³, which is often concerned with multi-faceted experiences, needs to be addressed. Particularly, the area would benefit from the development of theoretical sets from which to examine the role of affectivity on foreign language acquisition. As of now, there are no research conventions⁴ when it comes to the incorporation of theoretical frameworks to guide socio-affective studies within SLA. Epistemologically, a research paradigm that transcends the formalist tradition and is essentially interpretivist, i.e., grounded theory (Glaser & Strauss,

³ I refer to publications in top-tier academic journals. Undoubtedly, there is serious, well-conducted individual difference research in lesser-known publications; journal rankings do not determine the quality of a study, and they can certainly be faulty at times. However, rankings do matter in academia as they can determine trends within research fields and the extent to which research becomes well-known among scholars and, very often, even among a wider audience.

⁴ Despite the scattered efforts in relation to the adoption of theoretical frameworks to guide socio-affective research, SLA studies within the area have increasingly proposed complex interdisciplinary approaches, which, given the context-dependent nature of socio-affective factors, is comprehensible.

1967), was therefore adopted in the present study. As Bryman (1992, p. 60) defines, “quantitative research is especially efficient at getting to the ‘structural’ features of social life, while qualitative studies are usually stronger in terms of ‘processual’ aspects”.

Methodological choices should therefore be based on the objectives of the study, as well as on the nature of the phenomena under investigation.

The objective of this prelude was to share my researcher’s background and my philosophical beliefs concerning the scientific method. These reflexive practices can enable readers of interpretivist studies to understand the worldview of the theorist, allowing the process of data collection and analysis to become more transparent (Hadley, 2017).

– CHAPTER 1 –

INITIAL REMARKS

The present study aims to provide a better understanding of the ways socio-affective factors experienced by a group of Brazilian learners impact their process of learning English as an additional language (EAL). To this end, chapter one provides a brief overview of popular theoretical frameworks of speech production in Second Language Acquisition (SLA) research. Next, the existing, though limited, literature on EAL accented speech is examined. Then, the study takes a stance on the dichotomy between the ‘native’ and the ‘non-native’ speaker. Finally, drawing on Complex Dynamic Systems Theory, the rationale, the objectives, and the research questions for the present study are presented.

1.1 SPEECH PERCEPTION AND PRODUCTION

Research in the field of Second Language Acquisition (SLA) indicates that unfamiliar accents hamper listening comprehension (e.g., Munro & Derwing 1995; Derwing & Munro, 1997; Major, Fitzmaurice, Bunta & Balasubramanian, 2002). These studies demonstrate that LX⁵ accented speech has a direct impact on communication, which is for the most part the primary aim of foreign language learning. Since LX accented speech plays a significant role in successful communication, its study should be an important aspect of instruction within teaching and learning contexts with a socio-interactional orientation.

Yet, Foote, Holtby, & Derwing (2011) highlight that pronunciation instruction — compared to other skill areas — is still given relatively infrequent attention and inadequate instructional time in the foreign language classroom, often due to a lack of pronunciation-specific training available to L2/LX instructors, who may feel reluctant or anxious about teaching pronunciation. Darcy (2018) reports that teachers tend to avoid

⁵ The term ‘second language’ is more well suited for immersion learning contexts. With the exception of the field of SLA within Applied Linguistics, the present study adopts the term ‘additional language’ (LX) to refer to the acquisition and learning of a non-native language in any linguistic situation by both bilingual and multilingual speakers (Dewaele, 2018); it is an ‘umbrella term’ (Lôpo Ramos, 2021) whereby neither the geographical context nor the order in which the language is acquired by the speaker (L2, L3 etc.) is of particular relevance.

teaching pronunciation, citing factors such as limited time availability, methodological concerns, and the prioritization of other curricular elements⁶.

In the last few decades, however, there has been a heightened interest in global pronunciation⁷ among pedagogical professionals which can be attested by the recent increase in publications in the field (e.g. Assunção, 2019; Saito, Trofimovich & Isaacs, 2017; Isaacs, 2013; Lima Júnior, 2011).

Key researchers in the field are increasingly adopting the term ‘speech’ in lieu of ‘pronunciation’ to refer to research on perceptions of global pronunciation (e.g. Sun, Saito & Dewaele, 2024; Thomson & Isaacs, 2022). However, there are too many confounding variables in excerpts of extemporaneous speech – the methodological convention in the literature –, such as speech rate, grammatical accuracy, false starts, dysfluencies etc., to claim a true association between individual difference factors and pronunciation achievement. In order to address this methodological shortcoming, participants in the present study were specifically instructed to only examine two facets of LX speech attainment, namely, comprehensibility and accentedness.

LX speech acquisition research has traditionally adopted the Contrastive Analysis Hypothesis (CAH) formulated by Lado in 1957 to explain phenomena related to foreign accented speech (Edwards & Zampini, 2008). Simply put, the CAH proposes that difficulties in acquiring features of the LX sound system derive from the differences between the LX and the speaker’s first language. While the latter can undeniably affect LX speech perception, processing, and production, SLA studies have found that different sounds in the LX and in the first language may be easier to acquire, while other sounds that are similar in both languages may be more difficult to reproduce (*idem*). Additionally, other biological and socio-psychological factors (see section 3.2) can have a bearing on the impact of the language user’s first language in LX speech perception and production.

⁶ Levis (2024) recommends systematically integrating pronunciation instruction into broader language teaching, rather than treating it as sporadic or entirely reactive. This approach aims to help learners to communicate more effectively outside the language classroom, where listeners may not be as accommodating. Silveira (2002), in turn, critiques the marginal position of pronunciation in communicative language teaching. She points out that, while the Communicative Approach recognizes the importance of pronunciation instruction, many EAL teachers still neglect explicit pronunciation teaching due to a lack of clear strategies within communicative frameworks.

⁷ Human intuition of overall pronunciation proficiency.

This line of studies has adopted distinct scoring methods (e.g. impressionistic judgments vs. acoustic analyses) and targeted various aspects of speech (global comprehensibility and accentedness vs. specific segmental and suprasegmental features). In relation to elicitation materials, both controlled production (e.g. word-length and sentence-length prompts) and spontaneous speech (e.g. picture description) tasks have been employed (Saito & Plonsky, 2019). More recently, global measures (e.g. comprehensibility, accentdeness, intelligibility) operationalized with both native and non-native rater judgments of LX speech performance (see section 1.3 for a commentary on these terms) have been adopted in individual difference research (e.g. Mora & Darcy, 2017).

With respect to theoretical frameworks of LX speech production, Flege's Speech Learning Model (SLM, 1995), and, more recently, the Revised Speech Learning Model (SLM-r, 2021) are certainly the most popular, although they have faced their share of criticism. While the SLM describes the ways in which the language user's L1 influences the perception and production of LX sounds, the SLM-r explains the reorganization of the phonetic systems after phonetic input is received during naturalistic LX learning.

The SLM was developed in response to data indicating that even language users who had immigrated to LX environments at a young age had a noticeable foreign accent in a given LX. The model is based on the relationship between age of onset of LX learning, contextual variables (e.g., quantity and quality of input), and LX speech attainment. According to this framework, language users can only produce phonetically accurate LX sounds when they have developed a new phonetic category for those target features (in Naegle & Baese-Berk, 2022). The SLM-r, in turn, postulates not only a bidirectional link between speech perception and production, but also shifts away from the notion of the Critical Period Hypothesis (CPH; see section 3.2); the differences between L1 and LX production occur not because there is a certain age beyond which our capacity to learn speech diminishes, but because the 'mechanisms' and 'processes' that were employed in the acquisition of L1 speech do not produce the same results in an LX (Flege & Bohn, 2021).

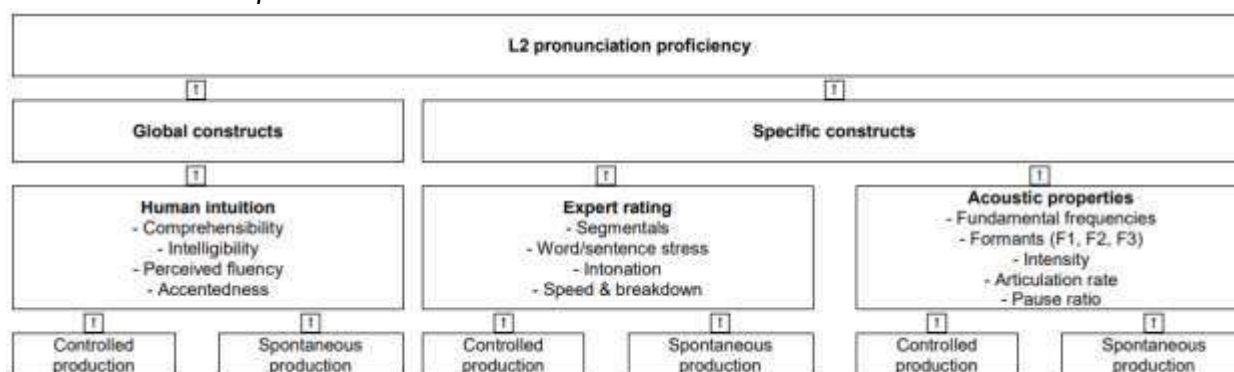
Speech production encompasses phenomena that are notoriously difficult to conceptualize, with researchers approaching speech production and perception from various theoretical perspectives (Nagle & Baese-Berk, 2022). Particularly, the link between perception and production is not thoroughly explained in these frameworks. Despite the

substantial amount of quantitative perception-production research, in view of the aforementioned shortcomings, these studies may not be methodologically valid (idem).

In order to address this issue, Saito and Plonsky (2019) recently proposed a framework for LX pronunciation measurement, which comprises a facet of speech production and perception that is particularly difficult to measure. After analyzing 77 quasi-experimental studies published in peer-reviewed journals between 1982 and 2017, they developed a model (Figure 1) to re-examine the methods and results in the pronunciation literature. Their framework was proposed for future research on the measurement of the effects of instruction on LX pronunciation development. The model comprises three distinct levels, namely, a global construct (human intuition of overall pronunciation proficiency), a construct of expert ratings of segmental and suprasegmental features of pronunciation performance, and a construct of computerized measurement of acoustic properties. The present study adopts global constructs of LX proficiency to measure learners' speech attainment, i.e., comprehensibility and accentness.

Figure 1

A Framework for L2 Pronunciation Measurement



Note. From Saito & Plonsky, 2019, p. 655.

Despite the rise in stature of LX speech research, only recently have investigators turned to studies which contemplate the effects of socio-psychological factors on the learning of this skill. SLA research has long focused on linguistic and cognitive aspects involved in the process of additional language learning. More specifically, affect constitutes a construct from educational psychology that has received less attention in the field (Mercer, Ryan & Williams, 2012). The field of SLA is clearly in need of research that contributes towards a better understanding of which socio-affective responses appear to be conducive to higher levels of LX speech ability.

1.2 THE NATIVE VS. NON-NATIVE DICHOTOMY

Owing to the use of English in the global context, there has emerged a wide range of English language use varieties. While the concept of the ‘native speaker’ is notoriously difficult to define, the term ‘non-native’ has negative connotations, and the native and nonnative distinction often underlies unequal power relations (see for example Passoni, 2017; Hashiguti, 2017; Figueredo, 2011; Schmitz, 2009 for Brazilian studies). In an attempt to challenge the inequitable relations of power between L1 and LX speakers, identities of EAL speakers should be reconstructed as legitimate users of English as a Lingua Franca (ELF) in their own right, rather than as deficient users of English (Cook, 1999). More specifically, EAL speakers are entitled the right to preserve their L1 identities when engaging in interactions in the target language, and one of the ways in which EAL users can express their L1 identity is through their accents.

Jenkins (2000) observes that the maintenance of learners’ L1 accent in English can be attributed to their ‘conscious and subconscious feelings of L1 group identity’ (Jenkins, 2000, p. 208). She also suggests that preservation of EAL speakers’ distinct accents helps them establish a sense of identity and pride in their own varieties of English. EAL speakers should therefore be allowed to operate in English with their L1 accents. As she (2000, p.16) puts it, “insisting on learners conforming to target-language norms and renouncing those of mother tongue may even be seen as forcing them to reject their own identity”.

This study attempts to investigate the relationships among socio-affective factors and perceptions of speech attainment – which is often muddled with accent perceptions as our data indicates (see section 2.7.4) –, while also being of interest participants’ accent preferences (idem). The findings from this study were shared with participants in August, 2025 in hopes of generating discussions and promoting self-reflections.

1.3 RATIONALE

When I started teaching English, I noticed that within groups of learners with roughly the same age, there would be some learners who would perform better than others⁸. I became convinced that there are other individual differences, besides age of onset, that influence L2 attainment.

My experience as an EAL instructor therefore led me to investigate for my Master's dissertation which beliefs about L2 pronunciation are associated with success in this skill among Brazilian ESL learners (UCL, 2014). Drawing on the findings from this study, which revealed that beliefs associated with affective factors appear to exert a stronger effect on L2 phonological achievement, I wanted to further investigate the relationship between affect and EAL achievement. Particularly, the present study came into fruition to better understand the ways in which a range of positive and negative emotions, attitudes and personality characteristics relate to EAL speech ability⁹. A research methodology (see chapter 2) that incorporates Complex Dynamic Systems Theory and grounded theory (see section 2.1.1) was adopted in order to address the shortcomings of the quantitative tradition in the area (discussed in further detail in section 3.2.1). Another purpose of inquiry is to understand the social conditions that produce discourses of affect, that, in turn, lead to different levels of EAL speech attainment.

Although this study falls within the scope of Applied Linguistics, SLA and, more specifically, TESOL, the contributions of Psycholinguistics, Sociolinguistics and Sociocultural Theory to the study of SLA are embraced. Drawing on Complexity Theory and following current trends within the field, this study is interdisciplinary since it adopts the view that language learning is a complex, multi-faceted phenomenon that involves not only mental processes, but also social mediation⁹. Applied Linguistics is, after all, an

⁸ This intuition stems from learners' academic performance, use of grammar, global pronunciation performance, willingness to communicate in the target language, and perceived fluency. ⁹ See section 6.3 for a summary of the study's pedagogical and theoretical implications.

⁹ "A complex view of SLA can simultaneously admit the existence of innate mental structures, as proposed by generativists, and at the same time sustain the notion that part of the language is acquired by means of repetition and the creation of automatic linguistic habits, as explained by structuralists. In such a model, input, interaction and output are also considered of paramount importance for language acquisition as they trigger both neural and sociocultural connections (Paiva, 2011, pp. 56, 57)."

interdisciplinary field and research on socio-affective factors should not ignore the social aspect as it often does.

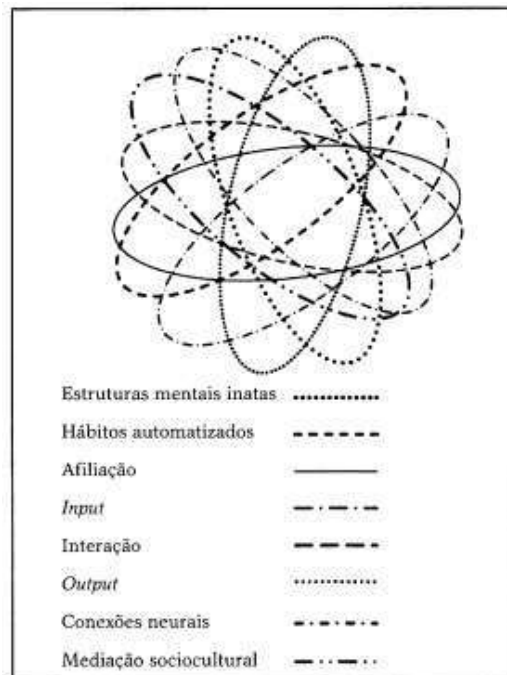
The study adopts Complex Dynamic Systems Theory, which entered the field of SLA research under various names, namely, chaos theory (Larson-Freeman, 1997), emergentism (Ellis & Larsen-Freeman, 2006), dynamic systems theory (de Bot *et al.*, 2007), and complexity theory (Larsen-Freeman & Cameron, 2008) (in Dörnyei, MacIntyre & Henry, 2014). A nonlinear system dynamics perspective conforms to the notion that learners' individual differences – which include biological, cognitive, as well as socio-psychological attributes – are interrelated, and, as such, their effects on the language learning process are viewed as the product of their combined and interactive interactions. A holistic dynamic framework therefore takes into account the multicomponential nature of learners' individuality, which has been demonstrated in traditional studies with isolated individual aspects (e.g., emotions, beliefs) of EAL learners (e.g., Elliot, 1995; Hinton, 2014). In these studies, medium to low coefficients of internal consistency are consistently found, particularly when the effects of affective factors as predictors of language attainment are examined. The heterogeneous and fluctuating nature of contextual and psychological variables may very well explain these results.

Unsurprisingly, many SLA researchers have turned to the complex dynamic systems approach to provide a rationale for complex language learning phenomena that language professionals have long known, including the observation that within groups of learners who acquire a foreign language at the same age, there will be some who perform better than others. This phenomenon clearly indicates that SLA is influenced not only by biological timetables, but also by cognitive and socio-psychological factors. The notion that individual differences are complex, intertwined and constantly changing merits further empirical investigations from a dynamic perspective.

Furthermore, Paiva (2014) posits that complexity theory can reconcile the most prominent theories of L2 language acquisition (e.g. behaviorism, innatism, sociocultural theory). To her, language learning results from complex interactions between the learner and the context in which learning takes place.

Figure 2

Second Language Acquisition as a Complex System



Note. From Paiva, 2014, p. 8. From top to bottom: ‘innate mental structures’, ‘automatized habits’, ‘affiliation’, ‘input’, ‘interaction’, ‘output’, ‘neural connections’, ‘sociocultural mediation’.

Despite the interest in the complex dynamic systems approach within the SLA research community, by the end of the 2010s there had been various theoretical endeavors, but few empirical studies of this nature in the individual difference literature (Dörnyei, MacIntyre & Henry, 2014). The dearth of data-based studies could be explained by the quantitative tradition in individual difference research, which often relies on statistical procedures that involve correlation and regression techniques to examine the results of cognitive tests and self-reported questionnaire data. The methodologies applied in these studies can only establish simple cause-and-effect relationships among isolated variables, being unable to capture the ‘symbiotic co-adaptive relationship’ (Ushioda, 2015, p. 47) which integrates psychological and contextual processes.

More recently, there has been a heightened interest in the adoption of innovative methodologies to model nonlinear change in SLA research (e.g., the use of timescales), so much so that Dörnyei, MacIntyre and Henry were able to compile in 2015 a number of empirical studies on motivational dynamics in language learning. Despite this growing body

of literature, there have been few qualitative attempts to examine socio-affective individual differences from a holistic perspective with the aim of developing a proposal of an integrative framework of social-psychological aspects involved in EAL speech achievement. The present study attempts to draw attention to this gap in the literature.

1.4 OBJECTIVES AND RESEARCH QUESTIONS

1.4.1 Main objective

The study of affectivity has yet to categorize the factors of the affective domain and the adoption of theoretical frameworks has been, in fact, one of the greatest challenges in the field since the late 1970s (e.g. Scovel, 1978). This strand of SLA research would therefore benefit from the design of a taxonomy of affective reactions to LX speech in a Brazilian teaching context.

There have been so far few studies providing a holistic emic perspective to the role of affect on LX speech performance, and to the best of my knowledge no studies to date have adopted an integrative personality theory to investigate the role of several affective factors on LX speech performance. Additionally, classroom observations are crucial to understanding the ways learners' self-reported affective responses to the learning process influence their actions in the language classroom.

The purpose of the present study is therefore to examine the ways in which socioaffective factors relate to LX speech performance.

1.4.2 Specific objectives

The study aims to investigate how EAL speakers discursively position themselves as LX users through their EAL learning autobiographies. These narratives will be analyzed to determine the extent to which they influence learners' affective reactions, which can, in turn, impact their EAL speech proficiency. It is expected that classroom observations will also shed light on the ways learners' affective responses interact with their actions in the language classroom. Crucially, the study seeks to examine the extent to which socio-affective factors experienced by learners who have attained different levels of EAL speech ability differ in

relation to EAL speech attainment. It is of particular interest to this research whether there appears to exist socio-affective factors which seem to be conducive to LX speech ability.

Furthermore, the research attempts to contrast the language instructor's perceptions of his learners' individual differences to his learners' self-reports. The study also aims to compare the language instructor's perceptions of his learners' LX speech abilities with the learners' impressions of their own LX speech abilities. The research will address the following questions:

1.4.3 Research Questions

- (a) Which affective factors appear to be conducive to LX speech attainment within this particular group of learners?
- (b) How do affective factors experienced by EAL learners who have attained different levels of EAL speech ability differ in the same language component?
- (c) How do the perceptions of the language instructor regarding the students' individual differences (e.g., personality aspects, emotions, willingness to communicate etc.) differ from the learners' self-reports?
- (d) How do the perceptions of the language instructor regarding their students' LX speech abilities differ from the learners' perceptions of their own LX speech abilities?

– CHAPTER 2 – THE PSYCHOLINGUISTIC DOMAIN

This chapter provides a brief overview of the field of socio-psychological individual differences in SLA Research. The New Big Five Model (McAdams & Pals, 2007, see table 2), an integrative and extensive personality theory, is examined; it appears to be applicable and productive to qualitative investigations of the relationship between combined sociopsychological aspects and EAL speech production since it validates their complexity and interdependence.

2.1 PSYCHOLINGUISTICS AND SLA RESEARCH

Psycholinguistics is an interdisciplinary field with researchers from distinct backgrounds, including applied linguistics, psychology, neuroscience, cognitive science, speech and language pathology, as well as discourse analysis. It is concerned with the study of the cognitive processes involved in language acquisition and use. Psycholinguistics is an essential area of enquiry within the study of SLA (Spada & Lighbown, 2010). Particularly, SLA researchers¹⁰ are interested in developing models to describe and predict L2 use (De Bot & Kroll, 2010). Common areas of research in experimental studies of L2 speech production include the role of experiential (e.g. amount of L2 use), cognitive (e.g. working memory, attention control, musical aptitude, phonemic coding ability), and sociopsychological (e.g. anxiety, motivation, willingness to communicate) factors on L2 speech performance. In order to better understand this subfield of studies, we now turn to a brief review of socio-psychological individual differences in SLA research.

¹⁰ Zoltan Dörnyei, a well-known researcher on socio-psychological aspects of SLA, on his academic trajectory: “when I initially decided to apply for a PhD in applied linguistics in 1985, I was told that there was no academic discipline called ‘applied linguistics’. But surely, I pleaded, the theory of second language learning is an important theoretical question, worthy of scientific investigation. Yes it is, was the answer, but the relevant discipline to study is not ‘applied linguistics’ but rather ‘psycholinguistics’. [...] However, I never regretted this placement, which inevitably led to most of my subsequent work on SLA becoming influenced by psychological theories (1998, p.4)”. This account illustrates how the fields of Applied Linguistics and Psycholinguistics are often intertwined.

2.2 INDIVIDUAL DIFFERENCE RESEARCH

This section reviews commonly-investigated affective reactions to the LX learning process and examines SLA research conventions. Based on this analysis, a framework to integrate socio-affective individual differences is then presented.

2.2.1 Socio-psychological individual differences in SLA Research

Among the most commonly investigated individual difference variables, age of first exposure to the target language has been largely accepted as a strong predictor of LX speech attainment (Pullen, 2012; Piske *et al.*, 2001 & Moyer, 1999). Results from these studies support the Critical Period Hypothesis (CPH), that is, the notion that there is a neurological period, ending at the onset of puberty, beyond which mastery of a second language is no longer attainable (Lenneberg, 1967).

The prominence of the CPH within the field of applied linguistics has diminished the impact of research on socio-psychological differences in EAL acquisition. Jilka (2009) claims, however, that a neurologically-based component such as age of learning onset is not the single determining factor of LX ability. He observes that the process of LX acquisition is influenced not only by biological timetables, but also by learners' socio-affective reactions to the LX learning process (Moyer, 2013; Levis, 2005; Jenkins, 2004).

In Ioup's (1989) oft-cited study, two immigrant children, namely, a successful and an unsuccessful¹¹ LX learner, are contrasted in relation to their neurological profiles and

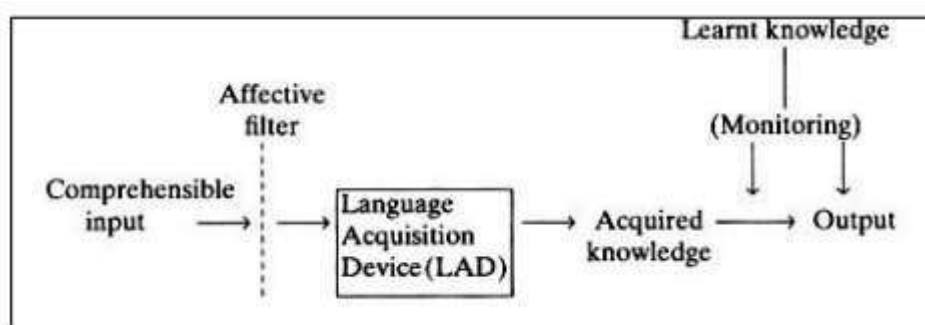
¹¹ These terms were employed by the researcher. A description of the 'unsuccessful learner' in Ioup's (1989) study: "Jeanne immigrated to the US at the age of nine. Before coming, she attended several years of primary school in Taiwan where she learned to read and write in Chinese. She is now 19 years old and a sophomore in college. (...) At the University of New Orleans Jeanne first entered the intensive ESL program. (...) This she had to repeat three times before she finally passed to the next non-intensive level, which she has also had to repeat. Typical of the sentences she produces in writing is the following taken from one of her compositions: 'because of many influences and education are for the making money' (p. 166)". A description of the 'successful learner' from the same study: "I was looking for someone who was not only considerably better in English than Jeanne, but also someone who had begun English as an adult. (...) Mihn is a male Vietnamese ESL student who began learning English as an adult and who was classified on the basis of his proficiency scores, as well as by his teacher, as a good language learner. (...) Mihn was 35 years old at the time of testing. He had been in the US for only five years. He did not begin the serious acquisition of English until he came to the States at age 30 (p.166)". Both learners took nine distinct English proficiency tests, and "in all areas, except idiom behavior, where they both do poorly, Mihn performs considerably better than Jeanne (p. 168)."

grammar skills. The results are inconclusive as the study fails to provide an apparent explanation for the unsuccessful learner's failure in acquiring higher levels of EAL proficiency. Ioup (1989, p. 170) suggests that "there could be a degree of talent in language learning ability not related to other cognitive talents".

This study demonstrates that success in foreign language learning cannot be solely explained on the basis of cognitive factors. It would seem, then, that the affective domain is a crucial aspect of LX attainment, comprising aspects of emotion, feeling, judgment or attitude which can condition behavior and influence learning (Aragão, 2011). Emotions permeate the process of language acquisition, so much so that Stern (1983, p. 386) claims "the affective component contributes at least as much and often more to language learning than the cognitive skills". Affect constitutes, however, a construct from educational psychology that has received less attention in mainstream SLA research (Mercer, Ryan & Williams, 2012).

Figure 3

The Input Hypothesis



Note. From Krashen, 1982, p. 16.

Stephen Krashen was among the first to propose a theory of LX attainment which recognizes the role of affective factors on the process of LX learning¹². His theoretical proposal of LX acquisition (1982) includes five hypotheses, namely, the acquisition-learning hypothesis, the monitor hypothesis, the natural order hypothesis, the input hypothesis, and the affective filter hypothesis. The latter was incorporated to his theory in 1985. According

¹² In this section I report influential and well-known affect studies within SLA. This section is not meant to provide a comprehensive review of affect studies within SLA; it is, however, meant to provide a brief overview of some of the most influential studies within the area.

to the affective filter hypothesis, negative emotions create an affective filter which hinders learners' ability to absorb comprehensible input. Krashen acknowledges the impact of three affective factors on LX attainment, i.e., motivation, self-confidence, and anxiety (communication apprehension, test anxiety and fear of negative evaluation) (idem).

SLA studies on motivational variables have been traditionally regarded as 'affect research' in accordance with Krashen's affective filter hypothesis. More recently, following cognitive psychology (e.g., Parrott, 2004; Brewer & Hewstone, 2004), key SLA motivational researchers (e.g., Dörnyei, 2015) have adopted the trilogy of the mind, a theory that dates back to Plato, to distinguish individual difference variables. The theory, unlike most affect research within the field of SLA, comprises cognition, motivation, and affect as separate components of the mind.

The tradition of including 'motivation' in the LX affective domain began in the 1980s. In the same year Krashen published his affective filter hypothesis, Gardner's (1985 in Gardner 1988) seminal theory of socio-psychological aspects involved in LX attainment was added to the SLA literature. His Socio-Educational Model of Second Language Acquisition (see figure 2) places 'motivation' at the center of LX acquisition. His concept of 'integrativeness', also mentioned in the literature as 'integrative motivation' or 'integrative orientation', is often contrasted to 'instrumental motivation', and was first described in 1972 (Gardner & Lambert). The former relates to the learner's personal interest in the people and culture represented by the target language group, while instrumental motivation is associated with real-world pragmatic gains involved in LX proficiency, such as attaining a job position or passing an exam (Lambert, 1974).

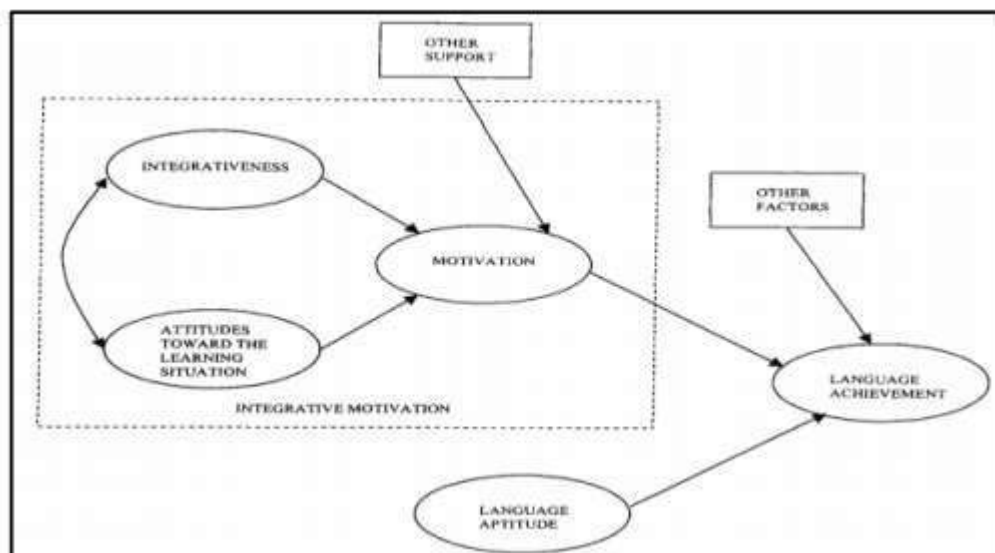
Based on Gardner's model, a learner should experience high motivation and positive attitudes to attain high levels of LX proficiency. His model takes context-dependent factors into account since 'attitudes toward the learning situation' concern learners' reactions to the learning environment, including, but not limited to, the way they perceive their general school environment, language instructor, language course, teaching methods and language learning materials.

It should be noted that Gardner's model was developed in relation to the context of Canada, a second-language learning environment. The integrative and instrumental motivational dichotomy may not be especially relevant to other learning contexts since gains

associated with LX proficiency and contact with the LX culture may not be as easily accessible outside of second-language learning environments.

Figure 4

Socio-Educational Model of Second Language Acquisition



Note. From Gardner, 1985, p. 153.

Additionally, Dörnyei's three-fold LX motivational self-system (1994) comprises a wellknown affect study which was adopted during data analysis in the present research (see section 2.7.4). His model consists of three LX motivational selves, namely, the 'ideal L2 self', the 'ought-to L2 self' and the LX learning experience. He claims that learning curricula, top-notch teaching methods and learners' cognitive skills do not guarantee successful LX acquisition since motivation is a crucial factor in LX learning. The 'ideal L2 self' is an imaginary projection of the LX attributes the learner wishes to possess to become a successful LX user. The 'ought-to L2 self', in turn, refers to other people's expectations towards the learner, i.e., learning an LX to fulfil the expectations of parents, families, teachers, or employers. Lastly, the LX learning experience is related to the learner's experience and attitudes towards the language learning environment.

Together with MacIntyre, Clément, and Noels, Dörnyei published in 1998 another model of socio-psychological individual differences that would, once again, prove to be a productive conceptual framework of linguistic, contextual, and psychological factors affecting LX use. Motivated by the question 'why do some students seek, while others avoid, LX communication? (idem)', a situational model of LX confidence and affiliation was proposed in a pyramid-shaped structure to better understand the ways in which a host of

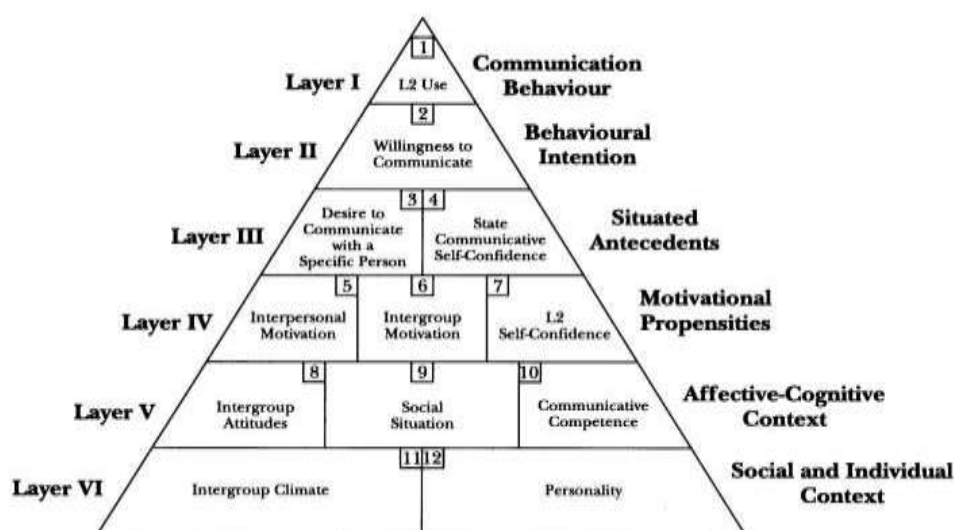
variables interact to influence LX users' intention to initiate communication in a specific situation, i.e., their willingness to communicate (WTC) in the LX (see Fig. 18).

The concept of WTC was introduced to SLA research by MacIntyre and Gardner (1994), whose model postulated the existence of two factors affecting LX WTC, namely, perceived communication competence and communication anxiety. While studies on WTC in language users' native language have consistently shown that individuals display regular WTC tendencies across situations (McCroskey & Baer, 1985; McCroskey, 1992; McCroskey & Richmond, 1991), LX WTC has been conceptualized as a situation-based variable, i.e., an intention to initiate communication at a specific time to a specific person given choice and opportunity (MacIntyre, 2007).

In MacIntyre, Dörnyei, Clément and Noels' model, LX WTC was conceptualized as the result of the interrelations among several factors, including immediate situational factors, such as the desire to communicate with a specific person, as well as more enduring influences, which involve, among others, AL self-confidence, intergroup motivation, and personality traits. From bottom to top, the layers include the social and individual context, the affective-cognitive context, motivational propensities, situated antecedents, behavioural intention, and, at the top, communication behavior.

Figure 5

Heuristic Model of Variables Influencing WTC



Note. From MacIntyre et al., 1998, p. 547.

In a recent review of the field, Dörnyei (2015) observes that the multilayered framework proposed by MacIntyre and associates in 1998 is in line with current advancements in SLA research. Not only have the factors included in their model become well-established influences on additional language attainment, but the organic integration of psychological and linguistic factors also conforms to recent trends in the field.

Notably, their conceptual model of variables affecting LX WTC has influenced the design of a large number of studies exploring the model's validity through investigations of LX WTC in relation to related individual difference variables, such as personality, communication confidence, attitudes, and motivation. These studies have often utilized a structural equation modeling technique for testing multiple-dependence relationships simultaneously (Yashima, 2002; Yashima, Zenuk-Nishide & Shimizu 2004; Peng & Woodrow, 2010; Fushino, 2010). Although mainstream affect investigations have certainly contributed for a fuller understanding of the role of emotions in the language learning process, researchers have recently pointed to limitations involving the prevailing methodological orientations and research agendas of these studies. First, SLA researchers advocate a process-oriented approach to the study of learner characteristics, claiming that learner attributes are neither 'stable' nor 'monolithic' (Dörnyei, 2015). The mainstream research methods in affect studies fail to capture "the rise and fall of emotions as a communication situation unfolds" (MacIntyre & Gregersen, 2012, p. 108), and are thus ill suited to investigating ongoing processes that connect affect to language performance.

Second, the literature has overwhelmingly prioritized the study of negative emotions, with positive emotions such as enjoyment, empathy, pride, satisfaction etc. not being as widely investigated (Dewaele & MacIntyre, 2014). Finally, Imai (2010) claims that affect research has focused on individual antecedents of emotions and overlooked their social aspects. He offers a sociocultural perspective to the study of affect, taking the view that emotions are "not just an individual's private inner workings in response to external stimuli but are socially constructed acts of communication that can mediate one's thinking, behavior, and goals (p. 278)."

To conclude, several empirical studies demonstrate that affective factors do exert an influence on language achievement (e.g., Henter, 2014; Bown, Jennifer, & White, Cynthia, 2010). Commonly-investigated affective reactions to the LX learning process include learner anxiety (e.g., De Saint Léger & Storch, 2009), beliefs related to LX learning and acquisition

(e.g., Brown, 2009), self-efficacy beliefs (e.g., Smit, 2002), the role of LX identity (e.g., Levis, 2005), learners' self-assessment of their language skills (e.g., Dłaska & Krekeler, 2008), willingness to communicate in the LX (e.g., Zarrinabadi, 2014) the effects of positive emotions (e.g., Dewaele & Wei, 2012), the role of personality on LX achievement (e.g., Hinton, 2014), and attitudes towards LX learning (e.g., Moyer, 2007). Much like research on learners' motivation to improve their language skills (e.g., Moyer, 1999), strategy use, i.e., “activities consciously chosen by learners for the purpose of regulating their own learning” (Griffiths, 2008, p. 87) comprises a field of studies (e.g., Derwing & Rossiter, 2002) that has often been linked to affect research, when, in reality, it relates more closely to learner's cognitive abilities; most strategies described in these studies are cognitive or metacognitive in nature (e.g., “do you apply your knowledge of the rules of Chinese when you need to work out the meaning of a new word in English?”).

As of now, affective factors in the LX literature include the impact of negative and positive emotions on LX performance, beliefs related to LX learning and acquisition¹³, LX self-beliefs, LX identity, self-assessment of one's LX skills, willingness to communicate in the LX, the influence of aspects of personality¹⁵ on LX ability, and attitudes towards LX learning. Recently, there have been a number of quantitative studies attempting to measure the individual as well as the combined effects of individual difference factors, with Structural Equation Modeling (e.g. Winke, 2014) often being used. There are no qualitative research conventions for SLA affect researchers. The next section will introduce a proposal of a theoretical framework to integrate individual difference factors in qualitative affect research.

¹³ “An interesting fact relating to the etymology of ‘belief’ concerns its connections to the word ‘love.’ The origins of the word ‘belief’ are rooted in a meaning of deep love, usually in a religious sense, and it was only around the 16th century that the word took on its current sense of a rational acknowledgment of the truth of something, with the word ‘faith’ taking on the more emotionally loaded, irrational aspects of belief. The point here is that belief has long had an emotional dimension, an aspect that was largely absent from the initial conceptualizations of learner beliefs. [...] Those beliefs that are deeply entrenched, to which we feel some form of emotional attachment, and which we consider central to our self-concept, are less susceptible to change. They also tend to have the greatest impact on how we approach tasks” (Dornyei & Ryan, 2015, p. 190, 191). ¹⁵ “Non-cognitive skills are personality traits that are weakly correlated with measures of intelligence, such as the IQ index (Brunello & Schlotter, 2011, p. 5).” Heckman (2008) lists as non-cognitive skills motivation, socio-emotional regulation, time preference, personality factors and the ability to work with others.

2.2.2 The New Big Five Model: An Integrative Framework

In the history of personality psychology, there has been a conceptual emphasis on individual differences between people. Starting with Bernreuter's (1931) multitrait inventory, the field has introduced hundreds of personality instruments to assess inherent variations among individuals. The purpose of these instruments is to measure variability in human responses, particularly among the dimensions revealing recurrent consistent differences between people, i.e., dominance, self-sufficiency, sociability, and neuroticism (McAdams & Pals, 2007). A correlational method has been traditionally employed in these studies, whereby stable and trait-like individual differences in basic dimensions of personality are presumably related to variation on behavioral outcomes (*idem*).

Although a lack of consensus still persists in SLA research regarding the adoption of a framework of human personality, from the end of the 20th century, the 'Big Five' model, also known as the Five-Factor Model (FFM), (Costa & McCrae, 2010/1985) has become almost ubiquitous in personality research, with the number of Big Five publications outnumbering all other models by more than 5:1 (John, Naumann & Soto, 2008). Of the three most widely employed personality theories and their accompanying inventories (The Neuroticism-Extraversion-Openness Personality Inventory, NEO-FFI-R, Costa & McCrae, 1992; the

Eysenck's Personality Questionnaire, EPQ, 1964; Myers-Briggs Type Indicator, MBTI, 1976), the Big Five Factor Model and its psychometrically sound assessment instruments (e.g. NEO-PI-R, Costa & McCrae, 1985; NEO-FFI-R, Costa & McCrae, 1992; BFI, John & Srivastava, 1999) offer the most comprehensive framework for dispositional traits of personality. Extensive empirical evidence (see John *et al.*, 2008) also indicates that "five factors - more than Eysenck's three and less than Cattell's sixteen - are necessary and reasonably sufficient for a taxonomy of individual differences" (Cervone & Pervin, 2015, p. 228). Studies based on the lexical hypothesis, in particular, have revealed that factors beyond the fifth are not replicable (Godberg, 1990; Ostendorf, 1990).

The Five-Factor model of personality consists of five basic dimensions: *Extraversion*, *Agreeableness*, *Conscientiousness*, *Neuroticism*, and *Openness to Experience*. The formulation of the Big Five was based on the lexical hypothesis (in Poddar, Kattagoni, & Singh, 2015), which holds that stable individual traits will have been noticed by speakers of

a given language, and thus encoded in that language. A comprehensive list of adjectives in a natural language can unveil the basic dimensions of personality by means of factor analysis. The five-component taxonomy began with an initial list of over 18,000 terms (McCrae & John, 1992). The five broad dimensions, usually referred as higher-order traits, subsume important facets, known as lower-order traits.

The Neuroticism-Extraversion-Openness Personality Inventory (NEO-PI-R), the revised version of the original NEO-PI, is the most comprehensive assessment instrument of the Big Five model with 240 items, in which each of the five dimensions is represented by six lower-order facets, which are in turn measured by eight items (Costa & McCrae, 1992; for a description see table 1). Given the time required to administer, this instrument is mostly impractical for interdisciplinary research. A shortened form of this inventory, the NEO Five Factor Inventory (NEO-FFI, Costa & McCrae, 1989) has been proposed by the researchers and used widely. Item selection for the NEO-FFI used the validimax factors from the NEOPI as the criteria (Costa & McCrae, 1992). However, with 180 items, the abbreviated version of the original NEO-PI instrument is still difficult to administer in interdisciplinary research.

Table 1

NEO-PI-R - Dimensions, facets and descriptors of the Big Five Model

Dimension	Facets	Descriptors
Neuroticism-Emotional Stability	- Anxiety - Angry Hostility - Depression - Self-Consciousness - Impulsiveness - Vulnerability	High scorers are anxious, impulsive, worrying, impatient, irritable, inhibited, moody, tense; low scorers are confident, optimistic, efficient, calm, relaxed, content, selfsatisfied, and eventempered.

Extraversion-Introversion	• Warmth • Gregariousness • Assertiveness • Activity • Excitement-Seeking • Positive Emotions	High scorers are friendly, warm, sociable, outgoing, pleasure-seeking, enthusiastic, energetic, and adventurous; low scorers are quiet, withdrawn, aloof, reserved, restrained, passive, and sober.
Openness to Experience	• Fantasy • Aesthetics • Feelings • Actions • Ideas • Values	High scorers are imaginative, artistic, original, curious, inventive, flexible, novelty-seeking, and untraditional; low scorers are down-to-earth, practical, unartistic, conservative, and conventional.
Agreeableness	☐ Trust ☐ Straightforwardness ☐ Altruism ☐ Compliance ☐ Modesty ☐ Tender-Mindedness	High scorers are forgiving, trusting, tolerant, kind, friendly, good-natured, likable, and cooperative; low scorers are suspicious, pessimistic, complicated, demanding, stubborn, intolerant, rude, unpleasant, and critical.
Conscientiousness	☐ Competence ☐ Order ☐ Dutifulness ☐ Achievement Striving ☐ Self-Discipline ☐ Deliberation	High scorers are efficient, organized, confident, reliable, responsible, hardworking, self-disciplined, and meticulous; low scorers are careless, aimless, disorganized, late, lazy, negligent, unreliable, and weak-willed.

Note. Adapted from Costa & McCrae, 1992, p. 350.

A key problem with the personality literature has been the lack of a broad theory or system that integrates all of the existing personality constructs which have proved to be useful and valid into one framework. Consequently, up until the end of the 20th century there was no consensus in the field regarding the adoption of a single personality taxonomy, making the results from the field and from transdisciplinary research difficult to compare (in McAdams and Pals, 2007). Most personality theories can be, however, organized according to three broad conceptual domains, according to McAdams and Pals' New Big Five (2007), i.e., a proposal for a comprehensive and integrative personality theory (McAdams 1995; Hooker & McAdams, 2003; McAdams & Pals, 2006, 2007). As shown in Table 2, level 1 encompasses dispositional traits, concerning broad individual differences in behavioral trends, and are typically measured via self-report questionnaires. Examples of dispositional traits include the Big Five framework and Eysenck's personality inventory. Level 2 contains a number of characteristic adaptations, such as motives, goals, strategies, values, and beliefs. Characteristic adaptations entail context-dependent details of psychological individuality, such as individual's desires and avoidances. Level 3 embodies the individual's life story, i.e., the individual's 'internalized and evolving self-narrative(s)', which helps reshape the past and imagine the future.

Table 2*Three Levels of Personality Constructs; The New Big Five Model*

Level	Definition	Examples
Dispositional traits	Broad dimensions of psychological individuality that describe assumedly internal, stable, and global individual functioning across different situations and over time.	• The Big Five • Cattell's (1943) 15 personality traits • Gough's (1987) folk concepts (the CPI) • Ego resiliency and ego control
Characteristic adaptations	More particular features of psychological individuality that describe personal adaptations to motivational, socio-cognitive, and developmental challenges and tasks. Characteristic adaptations are usually contextualized in time, place, situation, or social role.	• Motives, goals, and projects • Values and beliefs • Cognitive schemas and styles • Ego and psychosocial stages • Relational modes and styles • Identity statuses • Coping strategies, defense mechanisms
Life stories	Internalized and evolving narratives of the self that	□ Self-defining memories

	people construct to integrate the past, present, and future and provide life with some sense of unity, purpose, and meaning. Life stories address the problems of identity and integration in personality - problems especially characteristic of modern adulthood.	□ Nuclear strips □ Recurrent life narrative themes: agency and communion □ The redemptive self
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Note. Recreated from McAdams & Pals, 2007, p. 5.

Although a number of personality characteristics have been proposed as likely to have a bearing on EAL, the results of this line of research - which has a quantitative tradition and solely relies on self-reported questionnaire data - have been inconsistent. To offer but one illustration, the extraversion-introversion dimension has been the most widely-researched Big Five facet in SLA studies. The intuitive notion that extroverted individuals are more suited to LX learning has not been consistently corroborated. Theoretical shortcomings in these studies could explain the inconsistencies; extraversion may very well be associated with successful acquisition of LX speech since gregariousness and willingness to engage in interactions are significant traits in oral language use, but they are likely to be irrelevant in the acquisition of other language components. In fact, in the LX speech literature, extraverts have been found to obtain higher scores on EAL oral measures (e.g., Hinton, 2014; Ockey, 2011; Verhoeven & Vermeer, 2002; Dewaele & Furnham, 2000) especially within stressful contexts where their short-term memory gives them an advantage in EAL production (Dewaele & Furham, 1999). Certainly, as seen in Wong-Fillmore (1979), under distinct learning situations the quiet observant learner can achieve higher scores. Certain personality variables, therefore, may be a major factor only in the acquisition of conversational skills, but not in the acquisition of literacy or academic skills.

Dörnyei (2015) notes that in quantitative studies the correlation between personality factors and language achievement rarely explains more than approximately 15% of the variance in LX performance. In addition to their nonlinear nature, substantial evidence indicates that personality factors interact with a number of context-dependent variables,

preventing generalized and linear correlations to indicate a true association (idem). He argues that a qualitative approach is needed to adequately capture the variation and complexity of personality variables. Accordingly, the New Big Five Model (McAdams & Pals, 2007, see table 2), an integrative and extensive personality theory, appears to be applicable and productive to qualitative investigations of the relationship between combined sociopsychological aspects and EAL speech production since it validates their complexity and interdependence.

– CHAPTER 3 – THE SOCIOLINGUISTIC DOMAIN

This chapter discusses the field of Interactional Sociolinguistics, the notion of contextualization cues, frame theory, and the role of linguistic ideologies, providing a perspective to the analyses of the social dimension of socio-affective factors, which has been neglected in mainstream individual difference research.

3.1 Interactional Sociolinguistics

Interactional Sociolinguistics comprises a theory and methodology aimed at understanding the ways language users communicate and interpret meaning in social interactions through analyses which combine linguistic, anthropological and sociological standpoints (Gumperz, 1982a, 1982b). More specifically, the field examines the relationships among language, cultural diversity and social contexts, taking into account the complexity of social interactions, in which there are often differences related to language users' sociolinguistic resources and/or institutional power (Rampton, 2019). Additionally, interactional sociolinguists uncover meaning-making processes by examining how differences related to expectations and interpretations can contribute to successful interactions or communication breakdowns (Toomaneejinda & Saengboon, 2022).

The perspective was developed in a context of cross-cultural analysis, and is therefore particularly fruitful to investigations of contexts in which unconscious cultural expectations and practices are not shared by language users (Bailey, 2008). The field of Interactional Sociolinguistics is, however, interdisciplinary, and can be adopted to examine distinct language phenomena emerging from interaction. Regarding the methodology in studies of this nature, ethnographic-based research is the norm, with a range of methods being employed, including, but not limited to, observations, interviews and discourse analysis (Toomaneejinda & Saengboon, 2022).

Research interested in language use within situational social contexts started with the work of ethnographers of communication (e.g. Hymes, 1964). Hymes (1972) coined the term 'communicative competence' to address language users' knowledge of what is "possible, applicable, acceptable, and feasible" within speech acts situated in a given context

(Albuquerque, 2022, p. 143, 144). The notion of language users' 'communicative competence' intended to encompass linguistic knowledge that went beyond what is considered (a)grammatical (idem). In 1986, Kramsch added to the theory by proposing the concept of 'interactional competence'. Within foreign language learning contexts, pedagogical practices aim to develop learners 'communicative competence' with formulas which restrict intercultural negotiation. In this sense, Kramsch's notion of 'interactional competence' highlights language users' mutual construction of meaning within situated discursive practices. This distinction between what precisely 'communication' and 'interaction' entails is fundamental in the field of Interactional Sociolinguistics (see Table 4). Within SLA research, 'communication' and 'interaction' are often not differentiated as they should, given the socio-intercultural context of these studies (Albuquerque, 2022).

Table 3

From Communication to Interaction

To Communicate	To Interact
	
+ given (formulaic)	+ negotiable (fluid)
+ conventionalized	+ subversive
+ stable (less movable)	+ unstable (more movable)
+ material (communication system)	+ immaterial (social indexation)
+ within practices (communicative)	+ within forces (interactional)
+ within situations (communicative)	+ within behaviors (interactional)
+ centered on what is said	+ contemplates what is beyond what is said
+ conceptual / interpretative <i>frame</i>	+ interpretative / interactional <i>frame</i>
+ context (situational / cultural)	+ context (socio-cognitive)
+ focus in objective contextual properties	+ focus in subjective contextual properties
+ (Non)verbal signals	+ Mutual discursive construction
+ Meaning (social acquisition)	+ Meaning in interaction (emerges from interaction)
+ Communicative projection (intelligibility)	+ Projections based on identity and ideology
+ from locutor to interlocutor	+ among interlocutors
	46

+ linear	+ scattered
+ rules are shared (speech community)	+ engagement (practice community)
+ social analyst (communicative competence)	+ emancipated subject (interactional competence)
+ centered on the enunciator	+ centered on mutual action
+ receptor / information processor	+ co-producer of meaning
+ clues carry information	+ subjects assign meaning to clues
+ presupposition (<i>a priori</i>)	+ action as the interaction unfolds
+ predictability	+ unpredictability
+ to communicate in our communication	+ to communicate about our communication
+ semantic	+ pragmatic / discursive

Note. Recreated from Albuquerque, 2022, p. 145, 146. (translation)

The field of Interactional Sociolinguistics appears particularly relevant to discussions of what precisely entails LX speech attainment and the extent to which certain socio-affective factors (e.g., willingness to communicate) may relate to higher levels of LX attainment. In particular, three concepts were fundamental for the present study's analysis of the social dimension of socio-affective factors, i.e, the notion of contextualization cues, frame theory, and linguistic ideologies (see sections 2.7.4 and 5.3, and 5.4), which are discussed in the following sections.

3.1.1 Contextualization Cues

Goffman (1964) stresses the role of the social situation in language use, referring to it as the 'neglected' factor. According to him, a social situation comprises "an environment of mutual monitoring possibilities, anywhere within which an individual will find himself accessible to the naked senses of all others who are 'present', and similarly find them accessible to him (p. 135). On their own, isolated correlates of speech which include age, gender, country of origin, region, schooling etc. cannot account for language use since the social situation, i.e., the context in which language is produced, will determine the value of these attributes (idem). To illustrate, researchers must consider the interlocutor's gender, the power relations among interactants, whether the social situation is formal / informal, rehearsed / spontaneous, routine / emergency, to name only a few.

Given the multifaceted nature of language production and perception, the concept of contextual cues may help shed light on the intricate ways in which human interaction takes place. Contextual cues refer to “verbal and nonverbal, segmental and nonsegmental, prosodic, paralinguistic and other (cues) that, as past and ongoing research shows, speakers and listeners demonstrably rely on as part of the inferential process (Gumperz, 2001, p. 223). Researchers operating in the field of Interactional Sociolinguistics investigate the ways in which language users understand and make themselves understood (Holmes, 2013), while also researching what accounts for successful or unsuccessful interchanges, and how interactional strategies are employed and perceived (Rampton, 2017).

3.1.2 Frame Theory

Both framing and positioning comprise useful theoretical frameworks to analyses of everyday interactions. They offer insight into the multifaceted essence of human interaction as they interpret the “discursive construction of multiple selves, and the complexity of language use (Gordon, 2015, p. 324).” These methodologies may explain the ways in which linguistic and paralinguistic features help shed light on how language users negotiate meanings and identities. Framing and positioning were introduced into the literature to grasp the flexibility of social interactions, analyzing them as ‘constructed moment by moment (idem).’ Both frameworks accept the view that social life is multifaceted, complex, and often ambiguous. Importantly, framing and positioning consist of relevant frameworks as they encompass both social and psychological aspects of interaction, which is precisely the aim of the present study.

Framing, in particular, has a sociological and anthropological background and it can be traced back to Bateson’s (1972) “A theory of play and fantasy”. According to Goffman (1974, p.10), frames are ‘definitions of a situation’ that language users form in interaction. To illustrate, a ‘real experience’ will be framed differently than a ‘theatrical performance’ (Gordon, 2015, p. 325). Framing is related to interactional issues when interlocutors, for instance, share differing views of what constitutes a situation. One example would include students who believe they are talking to a friend when, in reality, they are engaging in conversation with an undercover narcotic officer (idem).

To better understand frame theory let us turn to the notion of ‘footing’ (Goffman, 1981).

To Goffman, “a change in footing implies a change in the alignment we take up to ourselves and the others present as expressed in the way we manage the production or reception of an utterance; [...] it is another way of talking about a change in our frame for events” (p. 128). Participation framework, in turn, incorporates “the alignments of hearers to utterances” (Goffman, 1981). On the one hand, some participants are ratified, acknowledged in the encounter, and even may be addressed. On the other hand, participants may be perceived but are unrati ed in relation to their involvement in the encounter. As Gordon observes, “these distinctions indicate that, like speakers, hearers are multifaceted (p. 326).”

3.1.3 Linguistic Ideologies

Linguistic ideologies relate to language users’ views on language and speech. Such notions refer to what language is and what it should be (Philips, 2015). The adoption of the term ‘ideologies’ in lieu of terms such as ‘culture’, ‘beliefs’, ‘attitudes’ etc. is intentional because it reinforces the idea that language users’ views about language are formed not only by political and economic interests, but also by unequal relations of power.

Linguistic ideologies should be investigated as views about language allow us to retain control over speech, thus affecting actual language use. Ideas about language impact the form of languages, dialects, and registers by both what is concrete, and by broader ideologies. Education, in particular, is the area where linguistic ideologies are most evident.

‘Language policies’, which are unavoidably ideologically charged, are used by the state, through education systems, to establish the languages of the nation. A case in point was the decision to exclude compulsory Spanish classes for years 6, 7, and 9 from the national curriculum in Brazil. According to the National Curriculum Parameters for Secondary Education (2025), “knowing and using current foreign languages as tools of access to information, other cultures and social groups (p. 15)” consists of a competency that should be developed in the learning-teaching process in the course of Secondary Education in Brazil. However, only one foreign language is compulsory during these learning stages, with English often being the language of choice.

As Philips puts it (p. 569),

the idea that English should be the language of wider communication throughout the world projects such an ideology

to the global level. This ideology is normative, prescriptive, and purist. In the recent great blossoming of language revitalization research, this state-driven role for schools is recognized as a key force in the elimination of the threatened languages that activists and scholars want to see revived and sustained.

INTERLUDE: WHY SPEECH ATTAINMENT?

Language learning autobiographies are intimate and self-revealing. I can never expect my participants to be transparent about their autobiographical EAL learning narratives when *I* am not. As a qualitative researcher investigating socio-affective factors, it is my responsibility to foster self-reflections that may lead to healthier socio-affective regimes. Being open and reflexive about my trajectory may encourage others to do the same.

I found many parallels between my experiences and those of the learner who participated in the pilot study. In the early processes of learning EAL, we were both trying to make sense of who we were while striving for an ideal accent. We both seem to share a ‘concern for pronunciation accuracy’ (Purcell & Suter, 1980).

I have always been preoccupied with accented speech, and this concern precedes my experiences with the English language. I was born in Northeast Brazil, a region rich in dialects and culture. When I was 5, my parents, my brother and I moved to Brasília, Brazil’s capital city. When we moved to Brasília, everything I uttered became ‘wrong’; the first primary school teacher I had corrected Northeastern dialectal markers in my speech. Quickly, I sensed I had to speak the way people around me did. During my early teens, I worked very hard to erase Northeastern markers from my speech. I wanted to fit in.

When I was 14, my parents decided to spend a year in Washington, D.C. This was the turning point in my life. I was an impressionable teenager trying to find my own sense of self. I felt, perhaps because of my L1 learning experiences, that sounding ‘right’ would raise my status in school. Importantly, I sensed that my teachers regarded ESOL students as less capable than their counterparts. This belief encouraged me to want to sound North-American. Meanwhile, I was also doing well academically. Prior to those experiences, I had never won anything at school. In the U.S, my teachers seemed to notice me; they never had before. We only lived there for a year, but it was enough to have a profound impact on my sense of self. Obviously, from that point on, English would become a focal point of interest. It has been what I did my BA on, what I research and what I enjoy teaching. Later, as I did my Masters in the UK, I was also awarded for my work. Naturally, being perceived as someone who is ‘good’ at speaking English has become one of the most important components of my identity. Growing up, I rejected my own identities not only as a Northeasterner, but also as a Brazilian

woman. These self-reflections seem to explain why I have gravitated towards this line of research, and the rationale for the present study's research questions.

Reflections concerning linguistic ideologies, language variation, linguistic discrimination, as well as language users' self-esteem come to the fore through my language learning accounts. After having been exposed to the field of Linguistics, I can look back and critically examine the ways some of my pronunciation beliefs were shaped and how they may negatively impact one's L1 and LX selves. Particularly, I was first introduced to the notion of L1 linguistic discrimination when I did my BA in Language and Literature at University of Brasilia, UnB (e.g., Bagno, 1999). During my MA studies, as I researched the impact of learner beliefs on language outcomes, I became familiar with studies on language identity (e.g., Norton, 1997) and the relationship between language learning beliefs, emotions, and identities (e.g., Barcelos, 2003; 2015). Later, during my doctoral studies, I came across studies on linguistic discrimination in L2/LX settings (e.g., Schneider, 2009). My trajectory as a language researcher has led me to reevaluate these long-held notions. It is important, however, to discuss them as they may encourage others to overcome their own self-limiting beliefs.

To conclude, socio-affective factors, the relationship between instructor and learners, and pronunciation, in particular, have always stood out throughout my L1 and L2 learning trajectories. The interplays between language affect and speech attainment have long been of interest as a language user and, later, as a language professional and researcher. To many language users, higher levels of EAL speech attainment may not be associated with pronunciation skills, being more related to other facets of speech such as grammar accuracy or speech rate. These impressions and how they may relate to socio-affective factors are at the core of this present investigation.

– CHAPTER 4 – METHODOLOGY

This chapter reports the purposes of qualitative research and, more specifically, the purposes of the employment of a grounded theory. It also provides a description and rationale of the methods of analysis adopted in the study, as well as information about the instruments and procedures involved in data collection. Finally, the results from the pilot study are discussed.

4. 1 RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

4.1.1 Qualitative Research

Qualitative research is not associated with one single method, technique, or philosophy. It has emanated from a range of intellectual and disciplinary traditions (Mackey & Gass, 2015). Simply put, the term ‘qualitative research’ is employed to “refer to research that is based on descriptive data that does not make (regular) use of statistical procedures (idem, p. 162).” Its origin dates back to the 19th century, when ethnographers began to investigate issues of race and colonialism. Qualitative research was first adopted by 19th century researchers interested in colonial anthropology, and later by 20th-century urban sociology and anthropology researchers (Vidich & Lyman, 1994 in Denzin, 2017).

Interpretive, participant observational fieldwork methods involve

- (a) intensive, long-term participation in a field setting; (b) careful recording of what happens in the setting by writing field notes and collecting other kinds of documentary evidence (e.g., memos, records, examples of student work, audiotapes, videotapes); and (c) subsequent analytic reflection on the documentary record obtained in the field, and reporting by means of detailed description, using narrative vignettes and direct quotes from interviews, as well as by more general description in the form of analytic charts, summary tables, and descriptive statistics. (Erickson, 1985, p. 121)

Mackey and Gass (2015, pp. 162, 163) list the following defining characteristics of qualitative research:

- Rich description;

- Natural and holistic representation;
- Few participants;
- Emic perspectives;
- Cyclical and open-ended processes;
- Possible ideological orientations;
- Research questions tend to be general and open ended, and hypotheses may be generated as an outcome of qualitative research rather than in the initial stages of the study.

The most commonly adopted qualitative data collection methods comprise ethnographies, interviews, diaries/journals, case studies, and observational techniques (idem).

At the heart of qualitative research lies a commitment to call attention to issues related to unequal power relations, such as the politics of racial and social justice, White privilege, and patriarchal capitalism. This preoccupation sets qualitative and quantitative traditions apart. While the latter has certainly delved into the aforementioned issues, a positivist tradition essentially complies with colonialism. Simply put, “the positivist apparatus could study, but not make the problems and politics of racial and social justice, and White privilege go away (Denzin, 2017, p. 10).”

These issues appear to be at the core of an investigation of socio-affective reactions to the process of acquisition and learning of the English language in a Brazilian educational setting. Language, especially one that holds the power that English does, can serve imperialistic purposes. It is, after all, “the English language that primarily sustains the power of the United States and Britain in many parts of the world today, facilitating other forms of cultural, educational, and political hegemony” (Canagarajah & Said, 2011, p. 391). The present study adopts a critical perspective to SLA as it attempts to resist linguistic imperialism; unlike positivist research traditions, students’ voices will be at the center of the present investigation.

Linguistic imperialism is certainly an uncomfortable discussion for any TESOL/SLA/Applied Linguist, especially for TESOL professionals who do not fit the ‘native’ slot and who research and report research in English – as I do - in a country where English does not hold neither official nor co-official status in its constitution and its legislations, but where it is still used as a medium of international communication (e.g. academic publications). I was neither aware nor concerned with these issues when I did my

Master's, but being affiliated with a Brazilian Graduate Program has made me sensitive to the potential perpetuation of unequal power relations in a study of this nature. The adoption of a qualitative methodology and a grounded theory, which we shall discuss in the following section, stems from these reflections.

4.1.2 Grounded Theory

In the early 20th century, qualitative, theory-generating research was generally regarded as “unscientific, subjective, and biased” (Denzin & Lincoln, 1998, p. 7) even within the social sciences. By the late 1950s, researchers – especially those concerned with social phenomena - began to question the long-standing research conventions of experimental quantitative research. Barney Glaser and Anselm Strauss were among the researchers who put forward theories and methodologies which appeared to be more suitable to holistic investigations of individuals situated in social groups.

In their seminal work, Glaser and Strauss (1967/2006) propose a grounding theory in social research for generating data. They also introduce a general method of comparative analysis with procedures which are meant to generate grounded theory (GT). Simply put, they urge researchers to develop new theories and perspectives from empirical field data. GT was developed around the notion that “logically deduced theories based on ungrounded assumptions [...] can lead their followers far astray in trying to advance sociology (Glaser & Strauss, 1967/2006, p. 4).” The researchers clarify that in GT not only are hypotheses and concepts generated from data, but the theories are also systematically developed while the research occurs (*idem*).

In relation to their method of comparative analysis, the researchers explain that it comprises a methodological tool to generate theory in which a conceptual category or a conceptual property of the category may be generated from one fact alone. The researcher should then seek possible diverse indicators in the data for the comparative analysis. The similarities and dissimilarities of the facts at the center of the investigation should be compared in order to generate properties that will increase the ‘generality and explanatory power’ (*idem*, p. 24) of the conceptual categories. In short, the purposes of comparative analysis include producing empirical generalizations, specifying concepts, and verifying and generating theory.

Unlike researchers operating under quantitative research paradigms who test preconceived notions, i.e., hypotheses, researchers adopting a grounded theory methodology must be careful to avoid transferring their preconceived notions to the process of data analysis. Instead, grounded theorists allow the data to orient their analysis. Inductive data analysis consists of ‘multiple examinations and interpretations of the data’ in line with the research objectives, with the categories emerging from the data (Mackey & Gass, 2015).

Additionally, it should not be the ultimate concern of the researcher who investigates human subjectivity the extent to which the evidence may be unquestionably accurate since undeniable accuracy may be unattainable even in studies which are primarily concerned with it. Instead, concepts should undoubtedly represent a relevant theoretical abstraction about what is being investigated (idem).

Data selection in GT research is referred as theoretical sampling by Glaser and Strauss (1967/2006), and it differs from other methodologies as subjects are not chosen before the research begins. The emergence of themes in the initial stages of the research will determine data selection in the subsequent stages. Hadley (2017) advises applied linguists employing a GT methodology to begin the process of data collection with less structured instruments and shift to more focused exchanges as the research advances. The analysis should be exploratory at first, and gradually become centered on specific issues¹⁴. During the process of data analysis, the researcher employing a Glaserian approach writes a summary of the interview, which is then coded. If the researcher is producing interview transcripts - which are more accepted in current GT research –, the transcripts should be coded. Predetermined coding inventories are not employed. On the contrary, GT coding is interpretative and it stems from the data generated from the interactions between the researchers and their informants. Drawing from a Critical GT perspective, which addresses issues related to power, inequality, gender, and justice, Hadley (2017, p. 54) suggests the adoption of the following questions to guide the coding process

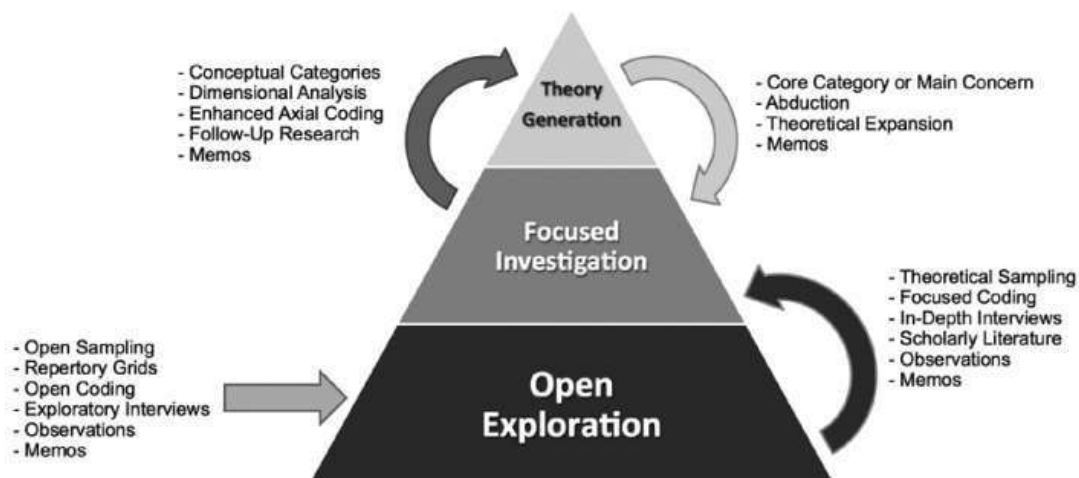
- How would you describe the way dominance is being maintained here?

¹⁴ In total, five classes were observed for the present research. Only two, however, were included in the analysis. The first two classes during the pilot study and the first class during the main study were not registered since their purpose was to allow students to become familiar with the researcher’s presence, thus reducing learners’ discomfort. This methodological procedure attempted to minimize the ‘observer’s paradox’ (Labov, 1972), which states that the act of observing a phenomenon inevitably alters the phenomenon itself, making it difficult to study the ‘natural’ state. Furthermore, this procedure allowed the data to orient the analysis.

- What strategy is being used to privilege one group's narrative over another?
- How are things of value being gained here?
- How could one encapsulate the way in which things of value are being lost here?
- How can you summarize the tactics used to gain an advantage over others?
- How would you describe the activities that led some to be marginalized?
- In what way is the disadvantaged/disenfranchised resisting?
- How might gender/age/class be affecting the dynamics discussed here?
- Who are the 'invisible ones' excluded from the established narrative, and what activities are they engaging in while the dominant group is carrying out their plans?
- What are the problems that arise from the social processes of dominant and disenfranchised groups?

Figure 6

Summary of Techniques Used in Grounded Theory Methodology



Note. Hadley, 2017, p. 131.

Common themes emerging from the data are classified as categories. Examples of these include 'being 'kind'', 'working hard for students' or 'encouraging students to try' in the case of a study on what students wished they could receive from their language teachers (Hadley, 2017). Researchers should include in the analysis both similar and negative cases of the categories and their properties. Glaser and Strauss (1967/2006) name these descriptions 'theoretical memos'. Diagrammatic representations of the data should be produced, becoming part of the theory-generating process. Finally, towards the research conclusion, the

grounded theorist can explain the conceptual categories in an analytical style, tracing their theoretical associations, and proposing a core category or a basic social process. Alternatively, another approach involves writing a narrative based on the core category while including interrelated categories and their properties (Hadley, 2017).

GT has proved to be a fruitful methodology for generating qualitative data in the social sciences. In fact, two decades ago, a survey found that nearly two-thirds of the qualitative studies in the social sciences had entirely or partially adopted a GT methodology (Titscher *et al.*, 2000). Due to its popularity, in 2017, Hadley put forward a practical guide for the employment of GT in applied linguistics research. Unlike other research areas, he observes that GT has been greatly underrepresented in Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages (TESOL) studies. While this line of research has focused on issues surrounding curriculum design, second language acquisition theories, corpus development, and materials design, it still has not embraced one of the most prolific research methodologies in the social sciences (*idem*).

In fact, it is quite apparent that the applied linguistics academic community privileges controlled quantitative research when prestigious publications, university departments, and funding organizations for applied linguistics are examined. Analyses of publications from high-impact journals in applied linguistics have found incredibly low acceptance rates of qualitative research. Lazaraton (2000) reported that only 10 per cent of the studies featured in the top-four journals in the field had qualitative or even mixed-methods approaches. Richards' (2009) and Hashemi's (2012) more recent investigations have generated similar conclusions. These results are surprising given the nature of the phenomena under investigation; language teaching and learning are essentially dynamic, multifaceted and complex processes.

The present study therefore adopted an integrative personality theory (The New Big Five Model, McAdams & Pals, 2007, see 3.2.2) to investigate the role of several affective factors on LX speech performance; a grounded theory was implemented¹⁵ in the hopes of developing a theory for the role of socio-affective factors on LX speech performance within a particular group of Brazilian EAL learners. Qualitative enquiries with exploratory research

¹⁵ A theoretical framework, i.e., The New Big Five Model (McAdams & Pals, 2007), was adopted from which a grounded theory for socio-affective factors in a Brazilian EAL context was developed. In addition to that, research instruments such as interview guides and detailed stimulated recall protocols were incorporated during the process of data collection.

methodologies are necessary to provide a deeper understanding of the complex processes involved in additional language learning.

4.2 RESEARCH METHODS

This section provides a review of the methods adopted in the study, i.e., semi-structured interviews, stimulated recalls, and classroom observations. The triangulation of these methods hopefully shed light on the extent to which learners' affective responses propels them to behave in certain ways as language learners in classroom environments, and whether affectivity as well as social factors play a role in learners' LX oral production.

4.2.1 Semi-structured interviews

Interviews comprise a popular research method within applied linguistics since they allow researchers to investigate subjective phenomena that is not directly observable (e.g., learners' self-reported perceptions or attitudes). Not unlike verbal questionnaires, in structured interviews, participants answer a set of standardized questions, which enables researchers to compare answers from different respondents. In unstructured interviews, on the other hand, no preexisting list of probe questions guides the procedure. Unstructured interviews are employed in qualitative research to allow respondents to share their thoughts and express themselves in their own terms (Rolland, Dewaele & Costa, 2020). As opposed to unstructured interviews, researchers conducting semi-structured interviews adopt a list of questions that orients the procedure, while still being free to digress or probe for further information. This study takes the epistemological stance that, more than simply being a tool to collect information, research that includes interviews provides knowledge that is socially constructed (Kvale & Brinkmann, 2009).

A major caveat involving the adoption of interviews relates to the “selective recall, self-delusion, perceptual distortions, memory loss from the respondent, and subjectivity in the researcher's recording and interpreting of data (Hall & Rist, 1999, pp. 297-298).” The employment of multiple interviews, or at least including in the procedures more than one interview session, is one way to address this drawback (*idem*). The adoption of a pilot study also enables researchers to test the interview guide and to practice their interviewing skills.

To address some of the issues concerning the use of interviews, Mackey and Mackey (2015) suggest that researchers should

1. Be mindful of participants' demographic characteristics (e.g. age, gender, cultural background) while developing the interview guide and conducting the interview;
2. Elicit further information by keeping silent or by asking 'anything else?' rather than accepting participants' first contributions as their complete response to a question;
3. Plan ahead communication problems;
4. Encourage the interviewee to open up by setting a comfortable atmosphere, (e.g. beginning the interview with small-talk, being friendly, conducting the interview in a familiar setting);
5. Place important questions in the middle of the interview since interviewees may be anxious in the beginning and tired by the end of the session;
6. Repeat interviewees' answers neutrally to allow them to reflect on their own responses and to provide further input.

Rolland, Dewaele and Costa (2020) also advise researchers to be sensitive to questions of power in the relationship between the research participant and the interviewer. Specifically, in the development of the interview guide, they recommend the use of openended questions so that participants are allowed to base their answers on what is important to them. Moreover, leading questions, too many preexisting assumptions and the use of jargon should all be avoided. In relation to its overall structure, the interview guide should start with an introductory question or an ice-breaker to set a comfortable atmosphere. Questions should be organized by topic areas to allow the interview to flow naturally. Questions that deal with more sensitive matters should be placed in the middle or towards the end of the interview since by then it is more likely that rapport will have been established between the interviewer and the interviewee. The researcher should also include a closing question that enables the participant to mention anything else they might feel is relevant. In the case of semi-structured interviews, the researcher should be very familiar with the interview guide to be able to make moment-by-moment adjustments based on how the narrative unfolds (idem).

4.2.2 Stimulated Recalls

Introspective methods are used within the fields of philosophy, psychology, sociology and linguistics to observe internal processes. These studies assume that individuals are, up to a certain extent, able to verbalize their internal thought processes. In SLA research, stimulated recalls are employed as a data elicitation method to explore learners' thought processes and strategies while a given task or activity is performed (Gass & Mackey, 2000). To this end, researchers elicit learners' retrospective reports, i.e., their descriptions of those thoughts after the task or activity has been completed. Due to potential issues with memory and retrieval, stimulated recalls are conducted with some type of support - which can include audio recordings, videotapes or learner's output -, and this stimulus is employed to elicit learners' verbal descriptions of their motivations and thought processes during each stage of task completion (Mackey & Gass, 2015).

Much like other introspective methodologies, there are limitations involved in data collection methods of this nature. Studies adopting carefully planned procedures are thus necessary to avoid potential shortcomings. Mackey and Gass (2015) advise researchers to collect data as soon as possible after the event has occurred to allow learners to access their short-term memory during their verbal recollections. Moreover, they contend that decisions associated with the amount of structure involved in the recall procedure should be based on the research questions. When less focused instructions are provided, learners' recalls are not as susceptible to researcher interference. Simply put, if learners are allowed to initiate recalls themselves as they engage with the stimulus episodes, researcher interference will be less likely to occur during data collection.

The adoption of this research method stems from the interest in accessing and contrasting learners' autobiographies and narratives¹⁶ with their own actions in the language classroom. Their recollections of how they felt while in class will be triangulated with their

¹⁶ Biographical research centers on individuals' life stories, narratives, and lived experiences as a means to understand broader educational or social phenomena. In SLA classroom research, biographical narratives can bring depth and personal context to the process of additional language learning by allowing participants to narrate their life stories, reflect on their learning, and engage in identity-forming self-reflections through storytelling (e.g., Pavlenko, 2017; Benson, 2014; Ellis, 2016).

actions, which will hopefully integrate two perspectives that have been treated separately within Applied Linguistics, the social and the psychological facets of SLA. Additionally, the instructors' perceptions and recollections will contribute towards a more nuanced view of the socio-affective factors involved in EAL learning.

4.2.3 Classroom Observations

Researchers who adopt observation methods generate data by immersing themselves in a given research setting. They are interested in one or several dimensions of that setting, which can include interactions, actions, events, etc. Observational data can be collected through field notes, audio or visual recordings (Mackey and Gass, 2015). William Labov in his approach to the study of linguistic variation (1972) described the observation and recording of vernacular speech. He recognized that the act of observation in itself may prevent researchers from obtaining the most unmonitored speech styles, which he named 'the observer's paradox' (idem). When adopting observational techniques, researchers need to be mindful of the 'observer's paradox', i.e., their influence on the events in which the learners are engaged. In the case of classroom observations, the observer's presence may be felt in the classroom, potentially affecting the validity of the data. The events observed by the researcher in a classroom setting may not be a true representation of the class in its typical behavior. Despite the caveats involved in classroom observations, they remain a productive research method within applied linguistics.

It should be noted that the present study adopts the sociolinguistic assumption that LX production does not represent a static phenomenon, being affected by external factors, including, but not limited to, characteristics of the educational setting, the relationship between the learners and the language instructor, and the interaction among the learners. In this study, data collected from interviews and stimulated recalls will be contrasted and analyzed in conjunction with sociolinguistic phenomena, which will, in turn, be gathered during classroom observations. Learners' affective reactions in classroom settings are, after all, the result of their attitudes towards the LX, their emotional responses to classroom situations and tasks, and their interactions with their instructor and peers.

In short, it is expected that classroom observations will enable participants' actions as learners situated in a language classroom setting to be analyzed and contrasted with their self-reported attitudes and emotions. The triangulation of these methods will hopefully shed light on the extent to which learners' affective responses propel them to behave in certain ways as language learners in classroom environments, and whether affectivity as well as social factors play a role in learners' LX oral production.

4.3 INSTRUMENTS

4.3.1 Interview Guide

In the elicitation instrument used in the sessions with the learners who participated in the pilot study as well as in the main study (see Figure 4 and 5), the main questions are highlighted in bold and are followed by prompts to elicit further details. These follow-up questions were used according to the development of the interviews. Semi-structured interviews were conducted in a way in which the exact wording and order in which the questions were used varied according to how each interaction unfolded. Additionally, in accordance with research conventions, some questions which are not in the interview guide were asked spontaneously based on the participant's responses. Following Rolland, Dewaele and Costa (2020), the instrument also includes generic questions which were used to ask for clarification, elaboration, and to understand personal significance.

Level 3 of McAdams and Pals' New Big Five (2007, see section 3.2.2), which entails learners' life stories and their self-narratives relating to their past, present and future experiences as learners of English as an LX, were addressed during the interview sessions. According to the model, these self-defining memories are internalized and keep evolving, reshaping learners' past and imagining their future as EAL users. Level 2 of McAdams and Pals' integrative personality theory (*idem*), which encompasses various characteristic adaptations, such as motives, goals, strategies, values, desires, avoidances and beliefs were also targeted. These characteristic adaptations comprise context-dependent details of psychological individuality. The interview sessions and stimulated recalls were included to address research questions (a) and (b), i.e., which affective factors appear to be conducive to LX speech attainment within this particular group of learners? How do affective factors

experienced by EAL learners who have attained different levels of EAL speech ability differ in the same language component?

The first session with the instructor will be conducted to discuss learners who may be suited to participate in the study. Learners should meet the language criterion (B2-CEFR) and should be studying in the same class. The second session with the instructor will be carried out to address research questions (c) and (d), i.e., how do the perceptions of the language instructor regarding the students' individual differences (e.g., personality aspects, emotions, willingness to communicate etc.) differ from the learners' self-reports? How do the perceptions of the language instructor regarding their students' LX speech abilities differ from the learners' perceptions of their own LX speech abilities?

Figure 7

Interview Guide for Session 1 with learners – Portuguese Version

Guia de Entrevista <i>Sessão 1: Histórias de Vida, Narrativas Identitárias (passado, presente e futuro), Memórias Definidoras do Self</i> Aluno(a)
☐ O que você geralmente assiste, lê ou escuta em inglês no seu dia-a-dia? Por exemplo: séries, filmes, notícias, músicas, podcasts, videos do YouTube, livros, video-games. Por que você consome esse(s) conteúdo(s) em inglês? Aproximadamente, quanto tempo você passa consumindo esse(s) conteúdo(s) em inglês no seu dia-a-dia? Como você se sente consumindo esse(s) conteúdo(s)?
☐ Qual foi o seu primeiro contato com o inglês (na escola, em casa etc.)? Como foram essas primeiras experiências com o inglês?
☐ Você pode me contar sobre como foi o início da sua aprendizagem do inglês? Por que você começou a aprender inglês? Onde você começou a aprender (na escola, em casa etc.)? Quantos anos você tinha? Como você se sentia nessa época quando lia, ouvia ou tentava falar em inglês?
☐ Como você se sente quando você fala em inglês? Você se sente diferente quando fala em português e em inglês (formal/ informal, emotivo/racional, sociável etc.)? Outras pessoas comentam sobre alguma diferença quando você fala em inglês? Você gosta de inglês? Por que sim/não?

☐	Você pode me contar como é a sua participação em sala de aula? Sempre foi assim (depende do semestre, professor)? Como foi no passado? Você costuma participar mais/menos que a maioria dos alunos? Por que você acha que participa muito/pouco?
☐	Como são suas aulas de inglês? Você gosta de estudar inglês? Por que sim/não? Você gosta de ir para a aula? Por que sim/não?
☐	Você pode me contar sobre as suas experiências com o inglês? Você já visitou algum país de língua inglesa? Como foram essas experiências? Você pretende ter alguma experiência que envolve o uso da língua inglesa fora do Brasil (estudar fora/ turismo etc)? Quão importante para você é ter essa experiência? Você tem algum plano concreto de estudar fora/ viajar à turismo a países de língua inglesa?
☐	Você gostaria de falar mais alguma coisa que considera relevante e que não foi mencionada?
Perguntas Genéricas: - Me diga mais sobre isso... - Por que você se sente assim? - Por que isso foi importante para você? - Como isso te afetou? - Você pode explicar o que quis dizer com isso? - Como isso mudou você? - Você poderia me dar alguns exemplos de X? - O que você quer dizer quando diz X? - Parece que você está dizendo [reformular a resposta], correto?	

Figure 8

Interview Guide for Session 1 with learners – English Version with Rationale

Interview Guide Session 1: <i>Life Stories, Narratives of the Self (past, present and future),</i> <i>Selfdefining Memories</i> Learner
--

- **What do you normally watch, read or listen to in English in your daily life?** For example: TV shows, movies, the news, songs, podcasts, YouTube videos, books, video-games. Why do you consume this content in English? Approximately, how much time do you spend consuming this English content in your daily life? How do you feel when you consume this content?

This is a conversational starter to put the interviewees at ease by discussing their hobbies. More importantly, we are trying to get a sense of their overall attitudes towards the language, i.e., do they appear to mostly have positive, indifferent or negative attitudes towards EAL? Learners who willingly expose themselves to English outside of the language classroom in activities that are not work-related are more likely to foster positive associations. The question does not include productive language skills (speaking and writing) due to learners' context of LX use where English is not actively used.

- **What was your first contact with the English language (at school, at home etc.)?** How were these first experiences with the English language? This question was designed to elicit life stories, past narratives of the self, and self-defining memories.

- **Can you tell me about how you started learning English?** Why did you start learning English? Where did you start learning (at school, at home etc.)? How old were you? How did you feel at that time when you read, listened to or tried to speak in English?

This question was designed to elicit life stories, past narratives of the self, and self-defining memories.

- **How do you feel when you speak in English?** Do you feel different when you speak in Portuguese or in English (formal/informal, emotional/rational, sociable etc.)? Do others comment that you seem different? Do you like English? Why/ why not?

This question was designed to elicit present narratives of the self.

- **Can you tell me about your classroom participation?** Has it always been like this? How was it in the past? Do you participate more/less than most of your classmates? Why do you think you participate a lot/too little? This question was designed to elicit present narratives of the self and self-defining memories.

This question was designed to elicit life stories, past and future narratives of the self and self-defining memories.

□ Is there anything else you would like to say that you consider relevant and has not been mentioned?

Closing question.

Generic Questions:

- Tell me more...
- Why do you feel this way?
- Why was that important to you?
- How did that affect you?
- Can you explain what you mean by that?
- How has that changed you?
- Could you give me some examples of X?
- What do you mean when you say X?
- It sounds like you're saying [rephrase their response], is that correct?

4.3.2 Field Notes during Classroom Observations

In accordance with the qualitative nature of this study and its object of investigation, checklists were not adopted during classroom observations. However, a guide to note-taking during observations was developed and some of the coding schemes used for students' behaviors in the Target Language Observation Scheme (TALOS; Ullmann & Geva, 1985, see Figures 6, 7 and 8) were adapted for the present research (see Figure 9). It should be noted that this instrument was merely a loose guide to note-taking, and was not systematically completed during the observations.

Figure 9

Target Language Observation Scheme (TALOS) (continued)

General Information

1. Observer				
2. Date				
3. School				
4. Name of French teacher				
5. Name of home-room teacher				
6. Grade				
7. Observation (circle one)	1st	2nd	3rd	4th
8. Lesson start				
9. Lesson end				
10. French room (circle one)		yes	no	
11. Teacher French Displays?		yes	no	
12. Student French Displays?		yes	no	
13. Francophone French teacher?		yes	no	

Note. From Ullmann & Geva, 1985. In: Mackey & Gass, 2005, p. 193.

Figure 10

Target Language Observation Scheme (TALOS) (continued)

										Who -- STUDENT										
Teaching Act										L Use	To Whom			What Type of Utterance			Type of Questions			L use
drill																				
narrate																				
explain																				
discuss																				
compare																				
answer																				
meta-comments & questions																				
cognitive questions																				
low level questions																				
correct																				
reinforce																				
routine																				
discipline																				
I ₁																				
I ₂																				
large																				
small																				
peer																				
teacher																				
other																				
sound																				
word																				
sentence fragment																				
sentence																				
extended discourse																				
non verbal																				
no response																				
meta-comments & questions																				
cognitive Q																				
low Q																				
routine Q																				
I ₁																				
I ₂																				

Note. From Ullmann & Geva, 1985. In: Mackey & Gass, 2005, p. 194.

Figure 11

Target Language Observation Scheme (TALOS) (continued)

The High Inference TALOS					
Teacher	extremely low	low	fair	high	extremely high
Use of L ₁	0	1	2	3	4
Use of L ₂	0	1	2	3	4
teacher talk time	0	1	2	3	4
explicit lesson structure	0	1	2	3	4
task orientation	0	1	2	3	4
clarity	0	1	2	3	4
initiate problem solving	0	1	2	3	4
personalized questions & comments	0	1	2	3	4
positive reinforcement	0	1	2	3	4
negative reinforcement	0	1	2	3	4
corrections	0	1	2	3	4
pacing	0	1	2	3	4
use of audio-visual aids	0	1	2	3	4
gestures	0	1	2	3	4
humour	0	1	2	3	4
enthusiasm	0	1	2	3	4
<i>Students</i>					
Use of L ₁ on task	0	1	2	3	4
Use of L ₂ on task	0	1	2	3	4
student talk time on task	0	1	2	3	4
initiate problem solving	0	1	2	3	4
comprehension	0	1	2	3	4
attention	0	1	2	3	4
participation	0	1	2	3	4
personalized questions & comments	0	1	2	3	4
positive effect	0	1	2	3	4
negative effect	0	1	2	3	4
S to S interaction on task	0	1	2	3	4
<i>Program</i>					
linguistic appropriateness	0	1	2	3	4
content appropriateness	0	1	2	3	4
depth	0	1	2	3	4
variety	0	1	2	3	4
listening skill focus	0	1	2	3	4
speaking skill focus	0	1	2	3	4
reading skill focus	0	1	2	3	4
writing skill focus	0	1	2	3	4
formal properties	0	1	2	3	4
functional properties	0	1	2	3	4
integration with general curriculum	0	1	2	3	4

Note. From Ullmann & Geva, 1985. In: Mackey & Gass, 2005, p. 195.

Figure 12

Annotated Classroom Observations – Guide for Field Notes

Annotated Classroom Observations – Guide for Field Notes <u>General Information:</u>
Date:
School:
Instructor:
Observation #:

Class time:
<u>Class Procedures:</u>
Description of class procedures and language tasks: <u>Learner's Oral Production: L1</u> use: EAL use: Learner's interactions with whole group, small groups, peer, and instructor: Types of Utterances (sound, word, sentence fragment, sentence, extended discourse): Learner Talk Time: Spontaneous Utterances: Utterances which result from instructor elicitation: Description of learner's overall oral production:
<u>Learner's Actions:</u> Evidence of Comprehension: Evidence of Attention: Linguistic, para-verbal and non-verbal cues to affective responses: Class Participation:

4.3.3 Stimulated Recall Protocol

Audio-stimulated recall interviews took place immediately after the classroom observations. The audio was played and stopped periodically so the researcher could ask what the learner had been thinking or feeling at that particular point in time. A protocol adapted from Leeman (1999 in Gass & Mackey, 2013) (see Figure 9) was used to conduct the recall sessions.

Figure 13

Stimulated Recall - Detailed Protocol

Stimulated Recall - Detailed Protocol
I'm interested in finding out what you were thinking and feeling while you were in class. I know what you said, because that's on the recording, but I'd also like to know what was going through your mind at certain points during the lesson.

So now we're going to listen to the tape, and I want you try to remember what you were thinking then, not what you think about it now.
<i>(Put audio recorder close to participant. Show how to pause the recorder).</i>
I want you to stop the recorder whenever you remember what you were thinking. I'll also stop the recorder from time to time and ask you to think back and tell me what was going through your mind.
<i>(Ask if there are questions about procedure. Ask, 'Is it clear what we're doing?')</i>
<i>(Begin playback. Pause after participant's first utterance and ask, "What were you thinking right then?" After answer, wait a few seconds and ask, "Do you remember anything else about what you were thinking at that moment?")</i>
<i>(If participant speaks without pausing the recording, pause it for him/her, then wait for him/her to unpause it. If he/she doesn't, wait for a few seconds of silence, then ask, "Do you remember anything else about what you were thinking at that moment?")</i>
<i>(After the stimulated recall is complete, move to debriefing questions. Ask all questions, even if the participant already provided answers during stimulated recall: 1. What did you think of the class? 2. Did you learn anything? (If so, what?) 3. What did you think of your interaction with instructor/classmates?)</i>

Note. Adapted from Leeman, 1999. In Gass & Mackey, 2013, p. 53.

4.4 DESIGN

Research within the field of “SLA does not lend itself easily to quantitative investigations (Dörnyei, 2009, p. 242).” Particularly, the effects of affective reactions to the process of LX acquisition cannot be accurately measured since there are too many confounding variables to establish causality. Pavlenko (2013) notes that quantitative endeavors in affect research fail to capture learners’ individual learning experiences, which is, in fact, one of the purposes of the proposed research. To understand the ways in which a given psychological construct interacts with language achievement, the effects of a large number of other sociopsychological aspects, as well as contextual and temporal variations, must be examined, making cause-effect analyses of isolated variables from questionnaire-based data mostly impractical.

Most notably, the study of affectivity has utilized theories “generated by logical deduction from *a priori* assumptions (Glaser & Strauss, 1967, p.3)”. Quantitative research designs in

which the researcher pre-determines expected affective reactions are the norm in SLA affective studies. Yet, the affective reactions of learners in the language classroom are highly individual and situational. In order to address this methodological issue, a grounded theory (idem) was adopted to generate a theory, i.e., a framework of affective responses to LX speech production, from data which was systematically obtained and analyzed. A general method of comparative analysis was employed to develop conceptual categories, i.e., the factors which comprise the affective domain, and the evidence from which each factor emerged was used to exemplify each affective response.

A pilot study was conducted with the same population of the main study, namely, the instructor and one learner, to validate the feasibility of the research design. Having established that the research design is effective, the study was replicated with the instructor and four other learners. Following Complex Dynamic Systems Theory (see section 1.2.1), the present study also adopted a holistic approach that considered the combined and interactive interplay among various socio-affective factors which appear to be relevant to EAL speech attainment within a group of Brazilian EAL learners from public-funded language courses.

Except for its ‘dispositional traits’ dimension, McAdams and Pals’ New Big Five model (see section 3.2.2, Table 3, p. 69) was employed as a theoretical framework to account for learners’ socio-affective individual differences. Dispositional traits refer to relatively stable individual propensities, i.e., the Big Five personality factors of openness to experience, conscientiousness, agreeableness, neuroticism and extroversion (see section 3.2.2, Table 2). They comprise the only dimension of the model that has been linked to LX speech ability in previous research. These studies have, unsurprisingly, provided inconclusive results, given the ever-changing and context-dependent nature of affective reactions in learning environments (see section 1.3). Characteristic adaptations, denoting highly contextualized aspects of individuality, and integrative life narratives, operationalized as EAL learning autobiographies, are, in turn, at the center of the present investigation.

A case study methodology was employed with a small sample of six participants to address the research questions. It must be noted that this study was only tentative in associating its findings to the population from which the cases were drawn. Phenomenological research is primarily concerned with the presence of factors and their

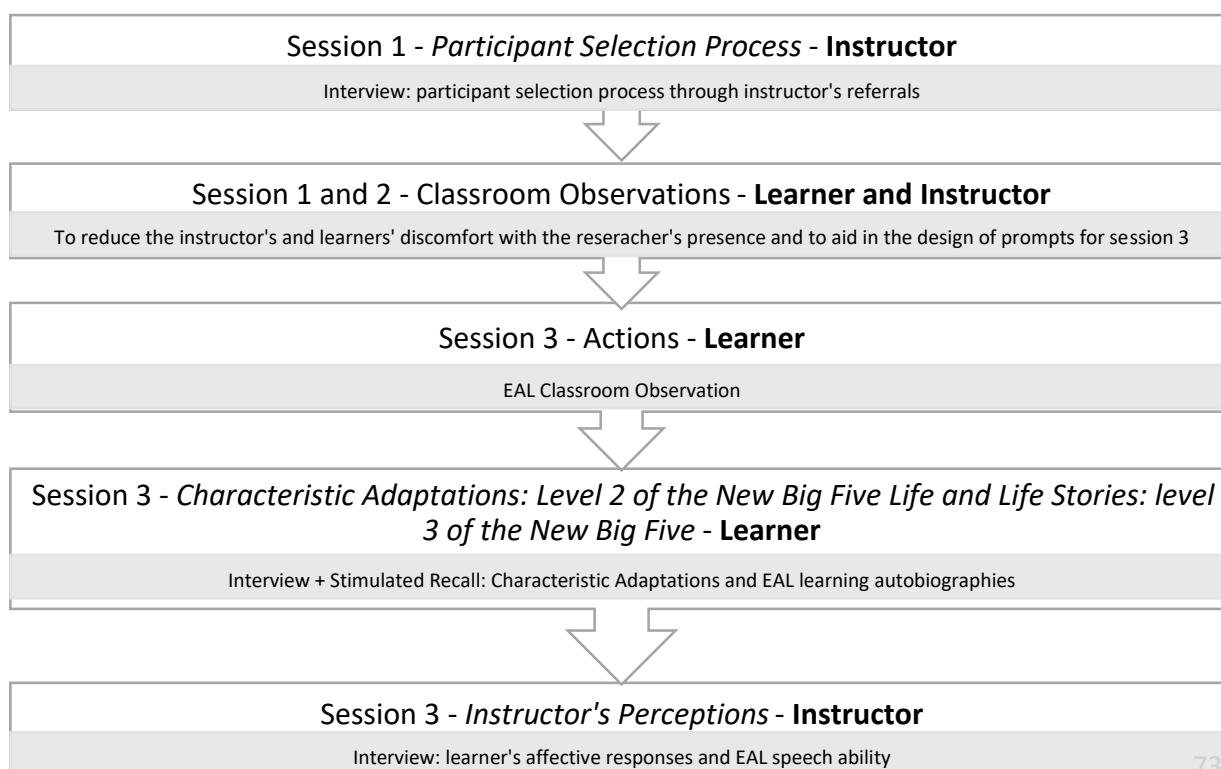
effects in individuals (Lester, 1999), and qualitative validity is not related to the production of generalizable findings.

The case studies were relational, explanatory, and evaluative (Duff, 2007) to examine how factors are related to one another, to answer ‘how’ questions, and to determine which affective reactions appear to be more conducive to LX speech ability. To this end, data was generated from a combination of ethnographic interviews, classroom observations, and stimulated recalls. Semi-structured interviews were conducted with the learners and their instructor separately and individually. The prompts were based on emerging themes about affective factors from initial classroom observations.

In affect research, solely relying on self-reported data can produce unreliable findings; respondents may not answer truthfully, especially on sensitive issues. Classroom observations were thus employed to investigate the interplay between learners’ self-reports and their actions in the language classroom. Immediately after the classroom observations, a stimulated-recall interview was conducted with each learner individually to elicit learners’ reflections on their emotions, as well as their thought-processes and decision-making processes (e.g., momentary restraining forces when they were choosing whether or not to initiate communication) during specific events related to speech production in the lesson.

Figure 14

Research Design



4.5 PARTICIPANTS

A total of six participants were recruited for this research, namely, one EAL instructor and five adult intermediate language learners of EAL (B2 – CEFR) from a Brazilian public funded EAL course. Intermediate language learners were selected because they have more extensive experiences as EAL learners than beginners, while also potentially reflecting more variability in LX speech ability than advanced learners. Participants were recruited based on the instructor's referrals. The instructor, in turn, was selected based on personal referrals. All participants are native speakers of Portuguese.

The present study does not aim to reinforce unequal power relations (researcher – instructor – student). These procedures were adopted solely due to accessibility; the instructor indicated students who were willing to participate and who represent differing levels of EAL speech attainment. Additionally, the instructor and the students were instructed that they could wish to withdraw from the study at any point during the process (see Appendix A).

I initially approached the language school and the school's principal introduced me to an EAL instructor who was willing to take part in the study. The EAL instructor, in turn, introduced me to students who he thought would also be willing to participate. Participants were presented with information about the research as well as the procedures involved in data collection. The study was approved for fieldwork at public-funded language schools (see Appendix B).

4.6 DATA ANALYSIS

Following Glaser and Strauss (1967), a general method of comparative analysis was adopted. This method of analysis involves identifying key themes and suggesting categories, which ultimately resulted in an integrated theory (*idem*).

First, occurrences of comments about affective responses were identified. Then, tentative categories were developed and relations among them were examined (Milles & Huberman, 1994).

After recurrent factors and relations were identified, a negative case analysis, which is “the search for evidence that does not fit into emergent findings and that leads to a reexamination of our findings” (Ely, 1991, p. 98), was conducted (in Kang, 2005). At this

stage, the analysis could be reshaped to explain the negative cases in relation to their interactions among the factors. The process of data collection and analysis was dynamic (Merriam, 1998), and theoretical notions were constantly redesigned and reintegrated as data is reviewed.

Finally, a cross-case analysis was carried out to develop a theory of affective reactions for a specific group of learners, and to contrast these socio-affective regimes in relation to LX speech ability.

4.7 PILOT STUDY

4.7.1 Purposes

The pilot study did not attempt to address all the research questions since it did not involve cross-case analyses. The main purpose of this testing stage was to examine the research methods and to make alterations in the instruments when necessary. Research questions (a) and (b) were therefore not addressed during this initial stage of data collection. Preliminary reflections concerning research questions (c) and (d) were able to be drawn. The procedures involved in data gathering as well as considerations from the classroom observation, stimulated recall and semi-structured interview are reported in the following sections.

4.7.2 Procedures

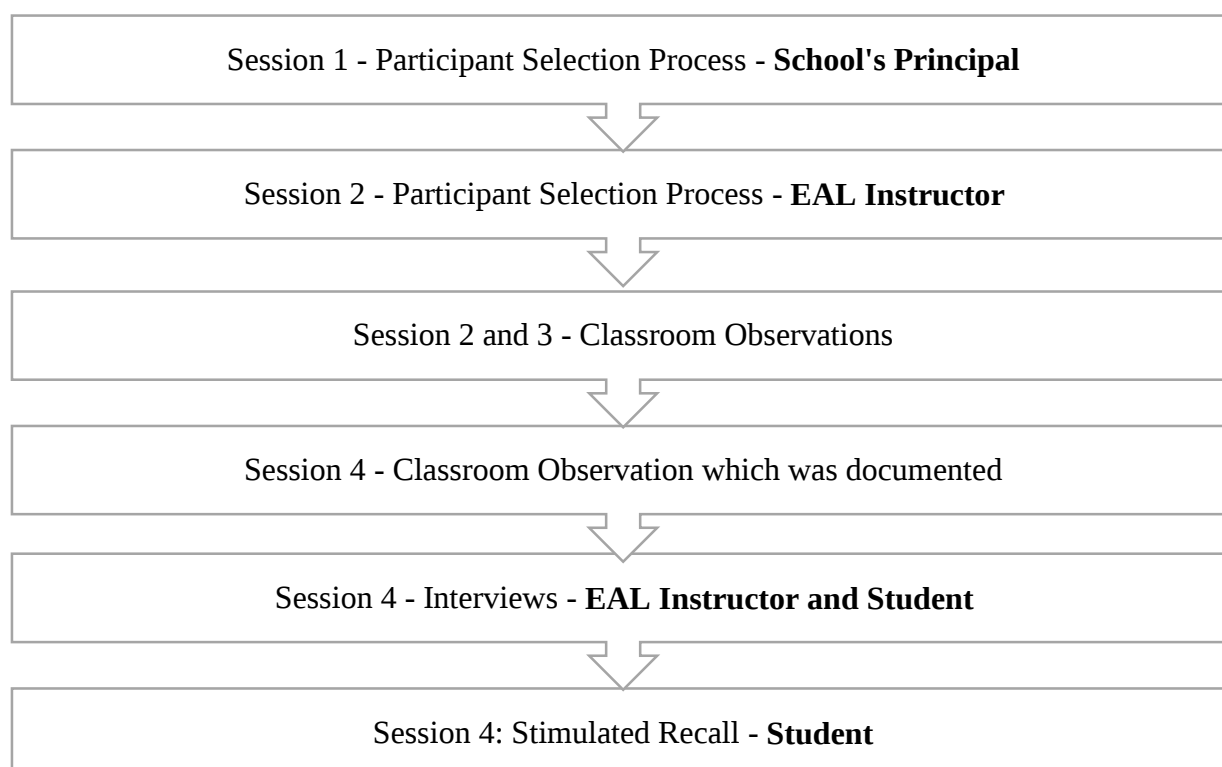
The pilot study was conducted with the same population of the main study, i.e., the instructor and one learner, to validate the feasibility of the research design. I spent three months (August to October, 2023) attempting to obtain approval to collect data at public-funded language schools. Once the approval was obtained, I approached a public-funded Brazilian language school (Centro Interescolar de Línguas, CIL, 02, Asa Norte, Brasília – DF, Brazil) and the school's principal introduced me to an EAL language instructor, who she thought would be willing to take part in the study. First, the EAL instructor was presented with information about the study and agreed to participate. Then, he introduced me to one of his students, who *he* thought would be an ideal fit for the study. The

instructor told me that the student is talkative, approachable and very dedicated to her studies. The student also agreed to participate in the study.

Data was generated in October, 2023, and data collection involved the following stages:

Figure 15

Research Design: Pilot Study



A short interview was conducted with the language instructor to address research question (c). During this stage, the instructor explained his rationale for approaching that specific learner to participate in the study, i.e., she was gregarious, talkative, extroverted, participative and open, and, by being talkative and extroverted, she would possibly provide plenty of data to the study. In relation to language production, she was top of her class.

The instructor invited me to observe his one-hour long lessons, which the studentparticipant attended. The three observations took place in October, with only the lesson conducted on 20th October 2023 being recorded. For practicality and accessibility reasons, immediately after the third lesson was observed, the interview and recall session were conducted with the language learner.

4.7.3 Pilot Study: Classroom Observation

The instrument designed for note-taking during classroom observations proved to be a resourceful tool for data collection. Some adjustments were made on the original instrument (see Fig. 13).

Figure 16

Annotated Classroom Observation – Pilot Study

Annotated Classroom Observations – PILOT STUDY <u>General Information:</u>
Date: 20 TH OCTOBER 2023
School: Centro Interescolar de Línguas, CIL 02, ASA NORTE, BRASÍLIA, DF
Instructor: Referred as “T”. The instructor appeared to be in his mid-30s and was full of energy. He has great rapport with his students.
Students: Referred as “Ss” (students) or “S” (student). The Ss seemed comfortable, participated a great deal throughout the lesson, and frequently code-switched from L1 to LX, which is expected given their proficiency level. There were 9 Ss in class. They appeared to be in their mid-20s to mid-30s.
Space: The room was cramped, but there were desks for each of the Ss. The room was airconditioned and there was a whiteboard, a computer, and an audio set.
Observation #: 1. Pilot Study.
Proficiency Level: Intermediate (B2-CEFR)
Class time: 1 hour (8h-9h)
<u>Class Procedures:</u> Description of class procedures, language tasks, and T-talk: 1. TEST CORRECTION – 10 MINUTES - T plays an audio recording with descriptions of physical appearance of pictures on the exam they are correcting. He often stops the recording to check if students understood what was said, and translates some of the descriptions to L1 (Portuguese). Even at this stage of the lesson, the T is humorous and Ss laugh at his jokes, e.g. “He is heavy. Ele é pesado. Estranho em português, né? [This is odd in Portuguese, isn’t it?]” - T asks Ss if he can divulge their final grades. Ss agree with this procedure. T proceeds to inform the whole group what each of their grades were on the exam.

Linguistic, para-verbal and non-verbal cues to affective responses:

- (2) Ss giggle as soon as the T introduces the topic of the lesson, i.e., love. From this point on, it is clear that they are engaged and interested in the topic.
- (2) T asks “Do you have love stories?” A S answers: “Only tragedies” All Ss proceed to laugh. Jokes such as this set the tone for the class, which has a relaxed atmosphere.
- (3) Throughout this activity I overheard words such as “bisexual”, “gay”, “bisexuality” etc. The group seemed very open to love stories that were not heteronormative. I imagine that Ss’ age range and geographical location may be factors at play here; this class consisted of early adults, who are more open to sexuality than previous generations in Brazil. The lesson took place at a school located in the most progressive part of town (Asa Norte). Moreover, this could also indicate that Ss feel at ease to be more intimate and revealing in their love accounts.
- (3) Many cultural differences between dating in Brazil and in other cultures are shared. The T, for example, explains that ‘ficar’ (a word that refers to casual dating in Portuguese) has no equivalent in English because of cultural differences in dating. Ss seem very interested in these cultural differences. This indicates that learners are curious not only about the language they are learning, but also about the culture(s) associated with the target language.

Learners’ Oral Production:

L1 use:

- (1) Ss speak in their L1 while the T collects the tests.
- (2) Ss ask the translation to many words, e.g. sofrência, auto-cuidado (‘suffering’, ‘selfcare’). The T promptly provides them with the translations. This indicates that Ss are engaged and curious.
- (3) Ss start the activity in the L1, but they naturally start sharing their stories in the target language as the activity progresses.
- (3) T: “Eu entendo que quando o tópico mexe com o nosso interior tem uma tentação de falar português [I understand that when the topic stirs us we feel tempted to speak in Portuguese], but this is the moment to use the vocabulary.”

EAL use:

- (2) Ss spontaneously answer the T, offering key words related to ‘love’ (e.g. ‘animals’, ‘nature’). Everyone appears to participate.

- (3) Ss use the target language to complete the task. They seem engaged and interested in each other's stories.
- (4) S's speech production that served as a debriefing stage for stage 3: "we talked for a month and we not date [sic] (T fills in: 'started staying, this is very Brazilian'), and we dating one year hiding [sic] (T: 'hidden') because his family very involved [sic] (T: I understand) and after we date one year we decide live together [sic]. One day I bring back everything [sic] he had and we live together [sic]. Nowadays, his family is more comfortable and tolerating (T: oh, so good). Ss applaud.

The learner's actions during class appeared to be consistent with the accounts she shared during the interview, and with the instructor's perceptions of this particular learner's individual differences, i.e., extroverted, talkative, engaged. The student participated throughout the lesson and used the target language as much as possible. It was also shared during class that her grade on the exam was 9.35/10, which further indicates that this particular learner is high-achieving and committed to the learning process.

Importantly, the class observation made me familiar with the instructor's teaching style. He made students feel at ease throughout the lesson and provided plenty of opportunities for students to practice their EAL speech abilities. Students were not asked to reproduce formulaic language; the instructor fostered interactive practices (see section 4.2, p.75). In fact, during the interview with the learner, the student shared that her teacher provided her with many opportunities to practice her oral production. She hinted, in a very respectful manner, that in the past this had not always been the case, suggesting that perhaps she has more opportunities to speak in class with this particular instructor because of her proficiency level, which is now at intermediate level. This comment made me reflect on the extent to which her proficiency level is really the factor here. As a former language instructor, I recall a comment from a student who complimented the time I allocated to speaking activities during my lessons. This recollection, the learner's comment on this study, and this particular classroom observation made me reflect whether in language classes one of the factors that appear to lead to student satisfaction is the amount of speaking opportunities the lesson/instructor/language material offers learners.

Based on the observation, it appears that the students in this class seem to share similar individual difference profiles (e.g., extroverted, few neurotic traits, high WTC), had similar grades on the language exam, exerted positive emotions, and participated evenly during the lesson. It is crucial to this research the analyses of contrasts of affective reactions from learners who appear to have differing levels of LX attainment and/or distinct individual difference profiles.

4.7.4 Pilot Study: Interview and Stimulated Recall

While I interviewed the language learner, and later when I listened to the interview recording, I sensed that the language learner was not being truthful. She was very charismatic and extroverted; it seemed that she wanted to please me with her answers. Her language was too formal, her answers too polished, and she mentioned the employment of language learning strategies that seemed far-fetched (e.g. “if the documentary is 20 minutes long, I watch it for 40 minutes. First, I watch it with subtitles on, and then without the subtitles).

After thoughtful consideration, I came to the realization that the life stories and characteristic adaptations that the learner decided to share with me comprise *her* versions of her own process of EAL learning; they could represent her ‘ideal L2 self’ (see section 3.2.1, p. 62). She may have shared with me a) what she *really* does and feels; b) what she thinks she *should* be doing to become a more effective language learner; c) what she *hopes and intends* to do to become a more effective language learner. This analysis led me to interpret motivational aspects of LX learning as a facet of LX learning that is more closely related to affective responses than I had originally envisaged (see section 3.2.1, p. 62). Lately, there has been a trend in SLA research to treat ‘motivation’ and ‘affect’ as separate components of language acquisition. For this particular learner, it seems that this may not be the case.

Importantly, none of the questions during the interview were about language learning strategies (see interview guide, section 2.2.1, p.33). An attempt was made to include openended questions that generated discussions about the language learners’ life stories, past, present, and future self-narratives, and self-defining memories that relate to the process of EAL acquisition and learning. The learner spontaneously shared, however, a number of strategies she employs outside of her language classroom to learn EAL more effectively (e.g.

“a música é meu principal aliado. Eu tento reproduzir o que eu ouço nas músicas e nas séries, o sotaque americano... e tento reproduzir as palavras que eu ouço [music is my main ally. I try to reproduce what I hear in songs and TV shows, the American accent... and I try to reproduce the words I hear]. There were many specific strategies mentioned during her interview (see section Table 1) related to pronunciation attainment; they seem to help shape the learner’s self-concept, i.e., her self-image as a hard-working learner who is actively engaged in her own learning process. Self-beliefs and values related to language investment appear to be a fundamental facet of the affective responses of this learner to EAL learning.

In her autobiographical account of EAL learning, discussions about race and gender were also raised. The learner mentioned that she used to be a singer and she enjoyed Destiny’s Child’s - a former American music girl group - music. This musical trio of black women was popular in Brazil in the early 2000s. The learner, a black woman, mentioned that her interest in English sprung from her musical interests. Particularly, she noted that they looked like her, (“elas pareciam comigo”). In the early 2000s there were even fewer black women portrayed in the Brazilian media. Unsurprisingly, striving for an ‘American’ accent was also mentioned at another point during the interview. These contextual clues appear to indicate that the learner’s language (e.g., “I try to reproduce...the American accent”) and cultural (e.g., “I liked the [American] music [growing up]”) beliefs reflect identity markers.

The exertion of both positive and negative emotions was reported, particularly language anxiety (e.g., “I’m afraid of speaking”) and enjoyment (e.g., “I love English”). More research on the impact of positive emotions on the EAL process is needed; the literature has overwhelmingly prioritized the study of negative emotions, with positive emotions such as enjoyment, empathy, pride, satisfaction etc. not being as widely investigated (Dewaele & MacIntyre, 2014).

In terms of methodological reflections, it appears that characteristic adaptations and life stories are intrinsically related and it may not be practical to distinguish them. I also examined my interviewing skills at this stage of the research; moving forward, I will not interrupt learners’ speech turns as often as I did. Table 1 outlines the affective factors that emerged during the interview.

Table 4*Socio-affective factors in EAL learning: Pilot Study*

Socio-affective factors	Life stories and characteristic adaptations		
	PAST	PRESENT	FUTURE
□ Cultural beliefs	“Growing up, I loved Destiny’s Child. They looked like me”.	“I try to reproduce what I hear in the songs and in TV shows, the American accent...” “I like TV shows, movies, documentaries [in English]”.	
□ Language and learning beliefs	In the past, “I used to think [English] was fancy, far from reality”.	Learning “English is a must”. “Knowing how to communicate [in English] opens doors”. “I love English”. “English [means] overcoming [obstacles] to me. It breaks a lot of what the social [sphere] imposes. It breaks stigmas”. “The lesson is the moment to make mistakes. I try to expose myself”. “Other classes [instructors] were less conversation, more information. The method is excellent”. “Each one [of my classmates] has a distinct level; one has the vocabulary, while the other is better at pronouncing the words...”	
□ Self-efficacy beliefs	“I only began to think I could speak English when I was 17”. Before, “I liked the [American] music, but I used to think English was a distant dream for me”. During “the time I spent abroad, in France, I left much too be desired [in terms of speaking in English]”.	“I have an alright vocabulary and my pronunciation is average”. “Speaking is still difficult”.	

☐ Motives, goals and projects	"I started a graduate program and everything was in English. I had to study to understand the research papers".	"My brother is 14 and he's the captain of the basketball team in Brasilia. We're the only ones in our	"Traveling is my main investment". "I want to learn English to become
	"I didn't use to travel internationally because I felt insecure [about my proficiency]."	family who study English".	[my brother's] legal guardian abroad".
☐ Language investment		"I'm shameless. Music is my main ally. I try to reproduce what I hear in from the songs and TV shows , the American accent... and I try to reproduce the words I hear". "I don't have free time; when it's time for my car and for gym [I practice English]. (...) if it's a 20minute documentary, I watch 40 minutes; I watch it with subtitles and then without subtitles".	
☐ Language enjoyment		"I love English".	
☐ Language anxiety	"I didn't use to travel internationally because I felt insecure [about my proficiency]."	"I'm afraid of speaking".	

The stimulated recall generated reflections about the learners' classmates, instructor and the events that happened during class, (e.g. [everybody tries; you can see that the class is hard-working] "todo mundo tenta; dá pra ver que a turma é esforçada", [other classes were less conversation, more information] "outras aulas eram menos conversação e mais informação", [the method is excellent]), "o método é excelente"). When triangulated with the data generated from the other methods, tendencies were noted. It seems that the learner shares with her classmates similar affective reactions to the EAL learning process, e.g. language enjoyment; satisfaction with the instructor and the teaching method; high levels of WTC.

Tentative social-affective categories were drawn based on a review of the literature on socio-psychological aspects of SLA (see section 3.2.1, p. 64) and the New Big Five Model (McAdams & Pals, 2007, see section 3.2.2, p. 68). The research design was therefore replicated with the instructor and four other learners in the main study. The integrative personality categories of characteristic adaptations and life stories was not differentiated in

the main study as they seemed to be intrinsically related. Analyzing the learner's identity narratives chronologically (past, present, and future) proved to be effective in the design of preliminary categories.

POSTLUDE: THE SOCIO-AFFECTIVE DOMAIN

I remember entering my foreign language English school, *Cultura Inglesa*, which offered courses after school hours, and feeling as though I was entering a different world. The walls were made of brown tiles, no one spoke a word of Portuguese, there were magazines in English at the school library, and beautifully-decorated boards spread out everywhere. I was ten, maybe eleven, and I remember collecting stickers of a famous English-speaking actor, Leonardo DiCaprio, and being obsessed with the movie *Titanic*, which was also in English. My favorite band was the Backstreetboys – I had albums full of pictures and magazine cutouts of the Orlando-based group. I remember watching Disney movies at the cinema; *Hercules*, in particular, left a lasting impression. My world, even at that young age, revolved around cultural expressions that were North-American. Many millennial adults, i.e., those who were born between 1981 and 1996, from all over the world may share similar narratives given the soft power (e.g., Myers & Nye, 2004) the United States possessed at that moment in time.

I wonder what stories Gen Zs, i.e., those born between the late 1990s and early 2010s, will have when it comes to additional language learning. Undeniably, South-Korean culture has taken over as the nation that exerts the most soft power (Kim, 2022). Korean pop music and TV drama have become extremely popular to the point that there has been a growing interest in the learning of the language.

In short, language learning autobiographies shed light on the ways socio-affective factors influence the process of additional language learning. Given my personal experiences as a language user and language professional as well as the results of the studies I have been a part of, socio-affective factors appear to be, in fact, one of the most important factors to successful acquisition of an additional language.

– CHAPTER 5–

A GROUNDED THEORY FOR SOCIO-AFFECTIVE FACTORS

The current section aims to provide a better understanding of the ways socio-affective factors experienced by a group of Brazilian learners impact their process of learning English as an additional language (EAL). First, data is reported and examined. Next, a grounded theory for socio-affective factors is proposed based on individual and cross-case analyses. Finally, the research questions are addressed individually.

5.1 Purposes

The study addressed all the research questions since it involved individual and cross-case analyses. Accordingly, reflections concerning the following research questions were able to be drawn.

- (a) Which affective factors appear to be conducive to LX speech attainment within this particular group of learners?
- (b) How do affective factors experienced by EAL learners who have attained different levels of EAL speech ability differ in the same language component?
- (c) How do the perceptions of the language instructor regarding the students' individual differences (e.g., personality aspects, emotions, willingness to communicate etc.) differ from the learners' self-reports?
- (d) How do the perceptions of the language instructor regarding their students' LX speech abilities differ from the learners' perceptions of their own LX speech abilities?

The procedures involved in data gathering as well as considerations from the classroom observations, stimulated recalls and semi-structured interviews are reported in the following sections.

5.2 Procedures

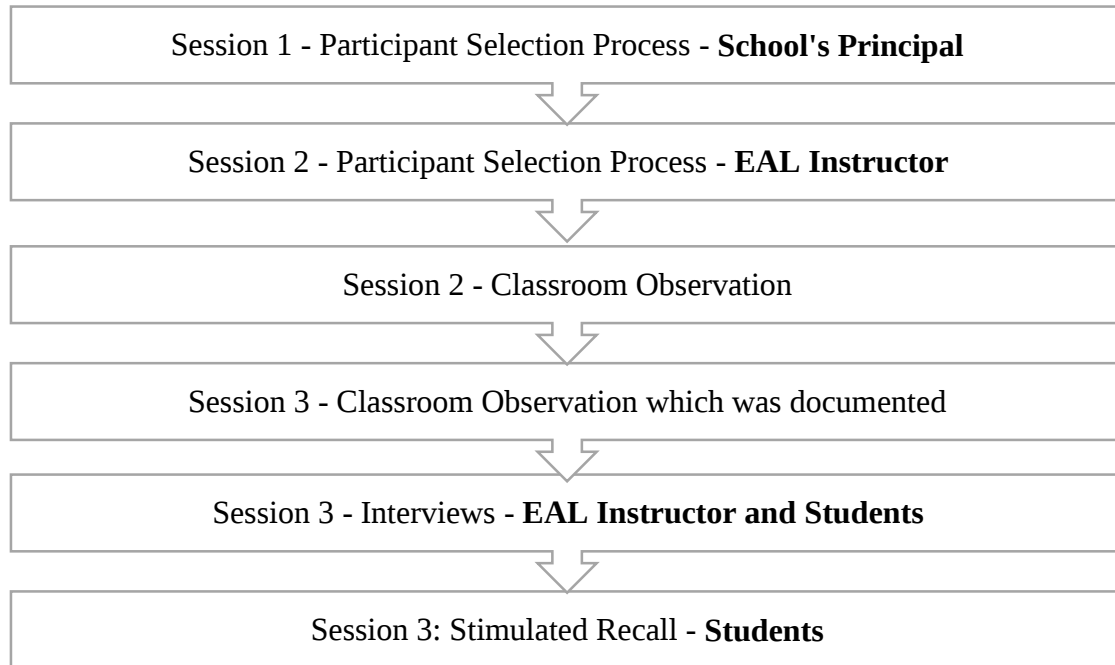
The main study was conducted with one instructor and four EAL learners who represented the population of the study, i.e., Brazilian learners of LX English studying at public-funded language schools in Brasilia, DF, Brazil. Four students were selected to participate in the study so as to contrast the socio-affective regimes of two groups of language learners, namely, high and low LX speech scorers. Once the approval to collect data at public-funded language schools was obtained (see appendix B), I approached a public-funded Brazilian language school in Brasilia, DF, Brazil (Centro Interescolar de Línguas, CIL, 02, Asa Norte, Brasília – DF, Brazil) and the school's principal introduced me to an EAL language instructor who she thought would be willing to take part in the study. This particular instructor may have been selected based on his previous experiences collaborating in Graduate research or he could have been singled out because of his personality traits, e.g., receptive, agreeable and extroverted.

First, the EAL instructor was presented with information about the study and agreed to participate (see appendix A). Then, he asked his group of students who would like to participate in the study. Four intermediate-level EAL students, i.e., two Brazilian adult men and two Brazilian adult women in their mid-20s, volunteered. The students were presented with information about the project (*idem*) and agreed to participate in the study.

Data was generated in May, 2025, and data collection involved the following stages:

Figure 17

Research Design: Main Study



An interview was conducted with the language instructor to address research questions (c) and (d). During this stage, the instructor reported that all four learners are communicative, extroverted, engaged, and dedicated. All of them speak frequently in L1 Portuguese during class given their current stage of LX acquisition, which is at intermediate level. The instructor also reported that the two male students appear to have attained lower levels of EAL speech ability and the two female students have attained higher levels of EAL speech. When asked how he would grade their EAL speech abilities, the instructor assigned a score of 10/10 to the women, and 5/10 to both men. Following the LX speech literature (see section 1.1, p. 18) and the results from the pilot study (see section 2.7, p. 47), these scores were based on two 10-point rating scales representing two distinct facets of LX speech ability, i.e., comprehensibility and accentedness (Figures 18, 19, 20, 21).

Figure 18

Instructor Rating Scale: Accentedness

Instructor Rating Scale # 1									
Please rate your student's oral production in English (1= heavy foreign accent; 5= noticeable foreign accent; 10 = not accented at all).									
1.	2.	3.	4.	5.	6.	7.	8.	9.	10.

Figure 19

Instructor Rating Scale: Comprehensibility

Instructor Rating Scale # 2									
Please rate your student's oral production in English (1= almost incomprehensible; 5= not always comprehensible; 10 = very comprehensible).									
1.	2.	3.	4.	5.	6.	7.	8.	9.	10.

Figure 20

Learner Rating Scale: Accentedness

Learner Rating Scale # 1									
Please rate your oral production in English (1= heavy foreign accent; 5= noticeable foreign accent; 10 = not accented at all).									
1.	2.	3.	4.	5.	6.	7.	8.	9.	10.

Figure 21

Learner Rating Scale: Comprehensibility

Learner Rating Scale # 2									
Please rate your oral production in English (1= almost incomprehensible; 5= not always comprehensible; 10 = very comprehensible).									
1.	2.	3.	4.	5.	6.	7.	8.	9.	10.

In quantitative oral production research, the adoption of nine-point numerical rating scales makes the results comparable to other studies. Despite nine-point numerical rating scales being the convention in the literature, a ten-point numerical rating scale appears to be more appropriate for qualitative endeavors. The occurrence of a ceiling effect did not interfere with the results. More importantly, learners are more familiar with assessments that include ten-point scales. In the present study, these scales were not employed as statistical tools, but as a way to promote instructor's and learners' (self)reflection regarding performance, functioning as a starting point for discussions and interpretations of both current and ideal LX performance.

Raters, i.e., the instructor and the learners, were instructed that a score of ten indicated that the learners' EAL oral production is 'not accented at all' and 'very comprehensible'. A score of five represented a 'noticeable foreign accent', 'not always comprehensible' and a score of one meant that the learner has a 'heavy foreign accent' and at times is almost incomprehensible (see Figures 4, 5, 6, and 7).

The instructor invited me to observe his one-hour long lessons, which the studentparticipants attended. The documented observation took place on 7th May 2025 and was recorded. For practicality and accessibility reasons, immediately after the lesson was observed, the interviews and recall sessions were conducted with all four language learners. These interviews were conducted individually.

5.3 Main Study: Classroom Observation

The instrument designed for note-taking during classroom observations underwent a few adjustments during the pilot study (see section 2.7.3, p. 49), and proved to be a resourceful tool for data collection in the main study (see Fig. 14). Information such as ‘types of utterances’, ‘learner talk time’, and ‘learners’ interactions with whole group, small groups, peer, and instructor’ appeared to be irrelevant to the analysis during the pilot study, and were subsequently removed from the instrument.

Figure 22

Annotated Classroom Observation – Main Study

Annotated Classroom Observations – MAIN STUDY <u>General Information:</u>
Date: 7 TH MAY 2025
School: Centro Interescolar de Línguas, CIL 02, ASA NORTE, BRASÍLIA, DF
Instructor: Referred as “T”. The instructor appeared to be in his mid-30s and was full of energy. He has great rapport with his students.
Students: Referred as “Ss” (students) or “S” (student). The Ss seemed comfortable, participated a great deal throughout the lesson, and frequently spoke in the L1, which is, to a certain extent, expected given their proficiency level. There were 8 Ss in class. They appeared to be in their mid20s to mid-30s.
Space: The room was well-lit, and there were desks for each of the Ss. The room was air-conditioned and there was a whiteboard, a computer, a projector, and an audio set.
Observation: Main Study.
Proficiency Level: Intermediate (B2-CEFR)
Class time: 1 hour (14h-15h)
<u>Class Procedures:</u> Description of class procedures, language tasks, and T-talk: 5. REVIEW OF PREVIOUS CLASS AND ACTIVATION OF SCHEMATA – 10 MINUTES

- T reminds Ss of the pronunciation of –ed regular verbs in the past tense.
- T reminds Ss of the topic of the previous lesson, i.e., ‘money’. T elicits vocabulary from the previous lesson, “what happens when you can’t afford something? What does it mean?” Ss are attentive and engaged during this stage of the lesson.

6. TEXTBOOK EXERCISE - 20 MINUTES

- T asks Ss to open their books. Before the activity is conducted, Ss clear up doubts, asking the T questions in L1 Portuguese. The T proceeds to review vocabulary related to ‘money’, which was introduced in the previous lesson, “when you buy something you can return [sic] and you get a refund”. Ss ask many questions related to the target vocabulary.
- T reminds Ss that they had started to do exercises related to a reading activity, i.e., “steps to become money smart”, on their previous lesson. T explains that they will now finish these exercises. T reads the prompt, “read and listen to the grammar in context. Is the sentence true or false?” T goes through each of the sentences, further explaining target vocabulary, “how do you say ‘doar’? (...) give away.”
- T plays the recording and Ss read and listen to the sentences being read.
- T asks someone to volunteer to read the exercise. No one volunteers, so the T asks a S to read, “D., can you please?” While the S is reading, the S stops to ask vocabulary questions, “what is a money journal?” The T promptly answers the question and other Ss ask more questions related to money journals.
- T proceeds to do the exercise with the whole group.

7. TEACHING OF TARGET LANGUAGE - 10 MINUTES

- T explains the grammar point of the lesson, i.e., the use of ‘going to’. He uses the whiteboard to show Ss how ‘going to’ is used in affirmative and negative forms.
- T asks Ss, “what are you going to do next weekend?” A S replies, “I’m going to a party.” T asks each of the Ss in class to answer his question. Ss reply in LX English.

8. TEXTBOOK EXERCISE – 20 MINUTES

- T asks Ss to complete a grammar exercise on the use of ‘going to’. T answers the first question with the whole group and Ss volunteer to answer the other questions.

- T encourages Ss to finish the exercise individually. He assigns 5 minutes to this activity, but the activity takes longer than expected. The class is over and Ss are dismissed.

Linguistic, para-verbal and non-verbal cues to affective responses:

- (1) At this initial stage of the lesson, the T sets the tone for the class, which has an inviting atmosphere. Ss clearly feel comfortable in class given their high engagement throughout the lesson. T makes many jokes during this early stage. For example, when a S is late to class and arrives with a big backpack, the T then observes, “Jesus, what are you hiding?” Ss proceed to laugh.
- (2) At times, no one answers the questions asked by the T, “why does he hide money in his jacket? (silence).” In these instances, the T readdresses the question to a specific S, “why, R.?” This procedure does not seem to cause discomfort and Ss appear to be willing to participate.
- (2) Ss feel comfortable asking the T questions related to the topic of the lesson. Throughout the lesson, the T enthusiastically clears up doubts and answers questions in L1 Portuguese and in LX English. Ss clearly feel at ease and motivated. The stages of the lesson are often compromised because Ss keep interrupting the T to ask questions related to the topic of the lesson; this appears to indicate that Ss are intrinsically motivated and eager to learn.

Learners’ Oral Production:

L1 use:

- (2) T switches to L1 Portuguese to further explain the target vocabulary, “se é meu, eu posso ir lá pegar...não é bem assim...você vai pedir...se não for suficiente você ainda vai falar ‘você consegue me devolver’, can you give me back, please?” A S then asks a question in L1 Portuguese, “poderia usar ‘could’?” T: “Poderia. É mais educado ainda.” Clearly, Ss are used to interacting among themselves and with the T in L1 Portuguese. No attempt is made to speak in LX English.
- (2) A S asks “alguém tem apontador? [does anyone have a sharpener?] and the T replies in English, “I think I have one”. Ss talk among themselves in L1 Portuguese while the T is setting up the projector. A S comments “Teacher, falando disso daí..borrow e tal...eu fui lá pedir emprestado, né, aí ele queria pegar de mim, como é que ele fala ‘você pode me

devolver?’ [speaking of which...borrow and such...I went to borrow something, right, then he wanted to borrow something, how does he say ‘can you give me back’?]

EAL use:

- □ During the entire lesson, not a single question was asked in the target language. While the use of the L1 is understandable at times given Ss’ proficiency level, more use of the target language is expected at this stage of LX language learning.

The learners’ actions during class appeared to be consistent with the accounts they shared during the interviews (see section 5.4, p. 11), and with the instructor’s perceptions of these learners’ individual differences, i.e., communicative, extroverted, engaged. The teacher’s comments, learners’ perceptions about their own socio-affective profiles as well as the observed behavior of students during class appear to indicate that learners’ individual difference profiles were similar among all five students who participated in the study. I hypothesize that cultural factors may have influenced these findings; stereotypically, Brazilians are expected to be talkative and extroverted, and these traits are encouraged and well regarded in mainstream Brazilian culture. Cross-cultural research on profiles of human self-descriptions provide, however, differing results. In a study about the personality traits of individuals from 56 nations, adopting the NEO-PI-R, an instrument that measures self-reported Big Five Traits¹⁷ (McAdams & Pals, 2007, see section 3.2.2, p. 68), South American participants had one of the lowest scores on the ‘extraversion’ trait (.70), only scoring higher than African participants (.55) and South and Southeast Asian individuals (.64). In this study (Schmitt *et al.*, 2007), the highest scorers on the ‘extraversion’ trait were North-Americans and Western Europeans, both scoring .84. In spite of these results, it should be noted that methodological decisions may have impacted the study’s findings, particularly regarding different sample sizes for each cultural region represented in the research. To represent North-America, for example, 373 Canadian men and 666 Canadian women were interviewed. In addition, 106 Mexican men and 109 Mexican women participated, and 999 American men and 1,794 American women were included in the study. Since the number of participants

¹⁷ Findings from the NEO-PI-R were normalized in respect to age and gender.

from each country comprising the North-American region differs considerably, the results may not be an overall true representation of the traits of these individuals from this region. The same methodological shortcoming appears for each of the other cultural regions included in the study. As a matter of fact, only 42 Brazilian men and 55 Brazilian women participated, while 110 Argentinean men and 136 Argentinean women were included in the South-American sample. Therefore, more rigorous personality studies with multicultural participants may produce alternative results. Although comprehensive crosscultural personality research is still scant, cultural factors may very well have influenced learners' individual difference profiles, and more research is thus needed to determine which factors lead to similarities in individuals' personality profiles.

In relation to EAL use, the students participated throughout the lesson, but failed to use the target language spontaneously. Most of their contributions were shared in L1 Portuguese. Importantly, the class observation made me more familiar with the instructor's teaching style. He made students feel at ease throughout the lesson. I had already observed this language instructor teaching a different group of learners in the pilot study. Both lessons, however, differed substantially. While the instructor provided plenty of opportunities for students to practice their EAL speech abilities during the first classroom observation, in this particular class, students frequently spoke in L1 Portuguese and had few opportunities to practice their EAL speaking skills. The instructor did not encourage students to speak in the target language, and he often code-switched to L1 Portuguese to explain target-language vocabulary. Students seemed engaged and high-achieving and there is no apparent reason for the extensive use of L1 by the teacher and the students throughout this class.

During the class observation, it became clear that the instructor has established a strong rapport with the learners. During the interviews with the language learners, they all reported how much they enjoyed this particular instructor. Despite appreciating their teacher, the students whose EAL speaking skills were considered to be the lowest by their instructor appeared to be less enthusiastic about learning English, "[I like learning English only] a little bit. I try to (Pedro¹⁸)."

By contrast, the students who were assigned by their instructor the highest scores appeared very enthusiastic about their EAL classes. Olivia, in particular, praised her instructor exceedingly, "at his class we interact a lot (...) wow, this teacher, I think he is wonderful, he teaches very well, he clears up all our doubts". Ana even remarked

¹⁸ Pseudonyms were adopted to protect learners' identities.

how short her EAL classes are and how she would like them to be longer, “I even think the time is short for what I wanted to learn”.

All four students contrasted their current EAL classes to the EAL classes they had at their regular schools. All of them observed that in their current classes the instructor is primarily concerned with improving learners’ conversational skills. Conversely, all four learners reported that grammatical skills appear to be the focus of the EAL classes they had while they were in school, and that they believe their current classes “are much better”. These remarks corroborate the findings from the pilot study, i.e., in language classes one of the factors that appear to lead to student satisfaction is the amount of speaking opportunities the lesson/instructor/language material offers learners.

Based on the observation, it appears that the students in this class seemed to share similar individual difference profiles (e.g., extroverted, few neurotic traits, high WTC), while also exerting positive emotions, and participating evenly during the lesson, despite failing to use the target language spontaneously. An analysis of contrasts of affective reactions from learners who appear to have differing levels of LX speech attainment revealed that, overall, the affective factors experienced by EAL learners who have attained different levels of EAL speech ability do not differ in the same language component (research question b). Pedro was the only student who seemed reluctant when asked whether he enjoyed learning English. Gabriel, whose English speaking skills were regarded by the language instructor to be at lower levels, reported that he likes his English classes and that he has always enjoyed them.

5.4 Main Study: Interviews and Stimulated Recalls

5.4.1 Students with lower levels of EAL speaking skills according to their language instructor

5.4.1.1 Student 1, Pedro.

Pedro reported that he rarely reads or listens to EAL outside of his language classroom, “sometimes I watch TV shows in English with Portuguese subtitles”, and he explained that he does not watch TV shows without subtitles “because I often watch these shows with my mom, who does not speak English”. Additionally, he does not listen to

podcasts or watches YouTube / TikTok videos in English. These comments appear to indicate that this student is not particularly interested in the target language culture(s).

Pedro started learning English when he was five years old. “Quando eu tinha oito anos, comecei a fazer aulas de inglês particular (...) eu fiz quase um ano [when I was eight years old, I started taking private English classes (...) I studied for nearly a year].” He started studying at his current EAL school when he was in his early 20s. As an adult learner, he originally wanted to learn LX French, but there were no LX French classes available at his school. Only then did he decide to learn English. Learning English was therefore not a priority for this language learner.

In relation to EAL use, he reports that he rarely speaks in English, “na minha família ninguém fala inglês, acho que mais o básico mesmo [in my family no one speaks English, only the basics]”, “não converso muito em inglês com meus pais ou coisa assim, não [I don’t talk much in English with my parents or stuff like that, no]”. Despite having started his EAL studies when he was only five years old, Pedro mentions that he did not use EAL outside of his language classes, “não assistia desenhos em inglês quando era criança [I didn’t watch cartoons in English when I was a kid].”

When asked if he enjoyed his EAL classes when he was little, he replied unenthusiastically, “yeah, they were ok”. Pedro was silent for a few seconds when asked whether he enjoyed his current EAL classes. I noticed his hesitation and encouraged him to be sincere, and he reluctantly replied, “yeah...I mean.... it is different, right. I don’t really know. Sometimes it is good to try new things. It is a bit odd, but when I leave my English class I sometimes say a few things in English. I think in English.” I hypothesize that the student wanted to save face with his reply. I was left with the impression that he does not enjoy his current EAL classes, but was too polite to be straightforward. Contextual clues include his hesitation when answering the prompt and vague word choice, e.g. “[my EAL classes are] different”. Furthermore, I asked him whether he liked English, to which he replied, “a little bit, I try to”. Matters related to linguistic ideology also appear to influence Pedro’s behavior when answering this particular question. Being utterly sincere, especially with someone who is a researcher and could even be an instructor, could be likely avoided by LX learners due to social issues related to linguistic-discursive and political-ideological aspects; students are presumably expected to refrain from criticizing their instructor’s pedagogical stance, their class delivery or even the class curriculum.

In relation to his current EAL classes, he mentioned that he participates during class, but does not particularly enjoy going to class. He spontaneously contrasted the English classes he had at his regular school with the English classes he currently has in his EAL class, “the English classes at my regular school focused on grammar points, while the focus of my current EAL classes [at this school] is on conversational skills”.

Finally, I asked him about his future plans involving the use of EAL and he reported that he “would like to travel to Australia and study there after college”. It should be noted that regardless of their EAL speech abilities all four learners expressed a desire to study in an English-speaking country. Their desire to study abroad stems from linguistic ideologies that are widely propagated in Brazil, in which studying abroad is synonymous with professional advancement / growth.

Pedro was asked to rate his speaking skills in order to address research question (d), i.e., how do the perceptions of the language instructor regarding their students’ LX speech abilities differ from the learners’ perceptions of their own LX speech abilities? Drawing on the rating scales (see pages 3 and 4), he rated his speaking abilities as a 6/10, which is similar to the score his language instructor assigned to his speaking skills, 5/10. This learner and his instructor appeared to be in a similar frame. I expected students with lower levels of EAL speaking skills to overestimate their abilities in consonance with the findings from my MA study (Borges, 2014), which revealed that students with lower scores tend to overestimate their abilities in the target language, while learners with the highest scores underestimate their language abilities. For this particular learner, this does not appear to be the case. I hypothesize that Pedro was the only student whose rating was similar to his instructor’s due to certain dispositional traits; he could exhibit higher levels of agreeableness (see section 3.2.2), thus displaying higher levels of compliance, modesty, and sympathy, which comprise subtraits of this larger facet of human behavior.

5.4.1.2 Student 2, Gabriel.

Unlike Pedro, Gabriel reported that he frequently reads and listens to English outside of his EAL classes, “I listen to a lot of music in English and I often watch TV shows in English with Portuguese subtitles. I am currently watching Rick and Morty [A North-

American adult animated science fiction sitcom]”. He mentioned that he watches TV shows in English nearly every day and that he frequently listens to music in English, “eu gosto de rap e trap [I like rap and trap music].” He enjoys listening to Tyler the Creator’s music, a North-American rapper. He also listens to Kendrick Lamar, Drake and Ken Carson, who are all North-American rappers. When asked how he started listening to this kind of music, he reflected that his older friends influenced him to develop his music taste. Clearly, Pedro and Gabriel’s affective regimes differ considerably. Their comments appear to indicate that the affective factors experienced by EAL learners who have attained different levels of EAL speech ability do not differ in the same language component (research question b).

Gabriel remembers his first contact with the English language. He mentioned that he watched an English video when he was around nine years old and he did not understand the video. This event seems to have left an impression on him and a desire to learn the language.

While Pedro began his English studies when he was only five, Gabriel only started learning English when he was a teenager, at 13 years old. Despite having English classes at his regular school, his mother enrolled him in English classes at a language school. Gabriel reported that he has always enjoyed his English classes.

In relation to his current EAL classes, he mentioned that he participates in class, although he observed that he communicates in English and in Portuguese with his teacher and only communicates in Portuguese with his classmates.

Much like Pedro, Gabriel also reflected that the focus of his English classes at his regular school was on grammatical skills, while his EAL classes at his language school are more “advanced”. Similar to Pedro, Gabriel also wants to study in an English-speaking country; he expressed a desire to study in the United States while he is in college, which does not come as a surprise based on his musical preferences – Gabriel only mentioned North American rappers when describing his musical taste. Contrary to popular perception, cultural beliefs such as this may not be restricted to high achieving learners.

To conclude, Gabriel rated his EAL accent as an 8/10 and he mentioned that his accent is “good”. However, in terms of comprehensibility he rated his speaking skills as a 6/10. To confirm his impressions, I asked him whether he thought his EAL accent was good, but not very comprehensible and he agreed. This observation appears to suggest that the perceptions of this particular learner in relation to his speaking skills are unclear. One would expect accent

and comprehensibility ratings to be quite similar since they are both similar facets of speaking ability. In addition to that, his language instructor rated Gabriel's accent and comprehensibility levels to be a 5/10. Unlike Pedro's, Gabriel's ratings corroborate the Dunning-Kruger effect, which could explain differences in self-ratings and expert-ratings. Studies on self-assessments have consistently demonstrated that higher judge's scores tend to yield lower self-ratings, while overly confident learners generally receive the lowest scores on LX performance (in Dlaska & Krekeler, 2008). This finding supports the Dunning-Kruger effect (in Dunning, 2011, p. 247), i.e.,

poor performers in many social and intellectual domains seem largely unaware of just how deficient their expertise is. Their deficits leave them with a double burden – not only does their incomplete and misguided knowledge lead them to make mistakes but those exact same deficits also prevent them from recognizing when they are making mistakes.

5.4.2 Students with higher levels of EAL speaking skills according to their language instructor

5.4.2.1 Student 3, Ana.

As soon as the interview started, Ana began to enthusiastically share with me her interests outside of her EAL classes, “I enjoy watching TV shows in English. I am currently watching ‘Young Sheldon’ [a North-American sitcom television series]. [Essa série] fala muito do cotidiano, o que tem a ver com o que a gente tá estudando agora [this TV show addresses daily life, which is related to what we are currently studying]”. She also mentioned that she listens to pop music in English, and that she wants to read the novel ‘Red, White and Royal Blue’ in English. She has already read the translated version of this novel, but she wants to challenge herself to read the original version, which is in English. Ana estimates that she spends approximately three hours listening to music or watching TV shows in English every day. I asked her if she also watches Brazilian TV shows. She reflected that she already spends most of her time speaking Portuguese. For this reason, she prefers to watch TV shows in English, which allows her to practice her EAL skills. This comment seems to indicate that this learner enjoys high levels of language investment.

Much like Pedro, she started learning English at an EAL school at a young age, when she was only six years old. She stopped learning English when she was eight years old and then resumed her studies as an adult learner. She remembered that she thought her English classes were “easy” and she enjoyed going to class. She also remarked that she had many friends at this language school, which encouraged her to want to go to class. She mentioned that she still enjoys learning English, “eu gosto de aprender inglês, acho muito legal [I like learning English, I think it is very cool]”.

Ana mentioned that she would like to take Italian classes at some point because she enjoys the language. This indicates that this learner appreciates the process of learning a foreign language. She also shared that she studies English and Italian at Duolingo, a NorthAmerican educational technology company that offers free foreign language lessons.

It was apparent throughout this interview that Ana is a highly motivated language learner. The experiences of this particular language learner appear to differ from the experiences shared by the learners whose English speaking skills were ranked at lower levels. She seems extremely passionate about EAL learning, which was not noticed during the previous interviews.

Ana mentioned that she feels frustrated at times with how she does not know how to formulate sentences in English. This is expected given her EAL proficiency, which is at intermediate level. I hypothesize that this frustration could drive her to want to study more.

In relation to her classroom participation, she commented that she participates a great deal and she speaks in English with her teacher whenever she can. She noted that she would speak in English with her classmates if they spoke in English as well. I noticed that she feels frustrated with her classmates for not speaking in English more often during class. However, to her, “[as aulas] são tranquilas [classes are ok]”. She also mentioned that she wishes her classes were longer, “eu acho até pouco tempo para o que eu queria aprender [I even think the time is short for what I wanted to learn].” Ana’s passion for the language leads her to seek out different input sources, i.e., TV shows, books, Duolingo, etc, which certainly contributes to better performance. An interesting triad appears in Ana’s narrative, namely, access to different input resources, an emotional connection with the language, as well as an emotional connection with her learning journey. This passion towards the language and her desire to learn more materializes in her ‘confessions’ – she wanted longer classes and she wanted to speak only in LX English while in class.

When asked whether she would like to visit an English-speaking country at some point, she reflects that even if she travels to a non-English speaking country she would have to speak in English since it is a lingua franca. She mentioned that she wants to travel abroad very much and she studies English to be able to travel internationally. At some point, she also shared that she would like to study in Canada or in England. Furthermore, Ana points out that she is studying to become a civil servant and that there is an English exam that she has to take to achieve this goal. She is, therefore, both intrinsically and extrinsically motivated to learn English.

Finally, she assigned a 6/10 to her English accent, “não é tão bom, mas não é tão ruim, não [it is not very good, but it is not very bad either]”. Regarding comprehensibility, she rated her speaking skills a 7/10. Her instructor, in turn, rated her speaking skills a 10/10. Once again, these findings corroborate the results from my MA study and appear to reflect the Dunning-Kruger effect.

5.4.2.2 Student 4, Olivia.

Olivia shared that she frequently watches North-American TV shows. Her favorite TV shows include ‘Gossip Girl’ and ‘the Big Bang Theory’. Curiously, Olivia mentioned that she employs the same language learning strategy that was previously brought up during the pilot study, i.e., she watches episodes of her favorite TV shows in Portuguese and then she watches the same episode a second time in English. Olivia also reflected that she spends a great deal of time watching North-American TV shows and YouTube / TikTok videos in English, “nossa, passo muito tempo assistindo série e vídeos em inglês [gee, I spend a lot of time watching TV shows and videos in English]”.

She remembered that her first contact with EAL happened during childhood because her younger brother would watch many TV shows in English when she was around him. As a child, she began having English classes at her regular school. Regarding differences between her English classes at her regular school and at her language course, the same comments previously made by the other learners were shared by Olivia; she mentioned that the English classes at her language school are much more “advanced” than the English classes she had at her regular school.

Olivia has been learning English at CIL 02, a language school, for three years. Curiously, despite being ranked highly by her instructor, Olivia mentioned that she finds learning English to be quite difficult, “eu tenho dificuldade com o inglês (...) eu acho muito complexo [I find English difficult (...) I think it is very complex].” When she first started having EAL classes at CIL 01, she commented that she was in class with students who knew more than she did and their vocabulary skills were more advanced than hers. Slowly, she noticed that she got used to learning English. She reported that she enjoys her current EAL teacher and she praises his teaching methods, “na aula dele a gente dialoga bastante (...) nossa, esse professor, eu acho ele maravilhoso, ele ensina super bem, ele tira todas as nossas dúvidas [at his class we interact a lot (...) gee, this teacher, I think he is wonderful, he teaches very well, he clears up all our doubts]”. She also likes her classmates, “eu achei que não ia me enturmar, mas o pessoal é muito tranquilo [I thought I wouldn’t get along with my classmates, but they are very easy going]”.

Specifically, in relation to her speaking skills, she mentioned that she could do better, “acho que pode melhorar, eu não acho ainda que é o que eu gostaria [I think I could improve, I don’t think it is already what I would like it to be].” In Olivia’s narrative, socio-affective factors are deeply connected with her self-criticism. Challenges appear to drive this learner to dedicate more time to studying the language – and this dedication tends to lead to improved performance. Olivia sees herself as still far from the performance she deems ideal, unlike her instructor, who sees her as a high-performing student.

Much like Ana, Olivia also studies another foreign language, i.e., LX Spanish, but she mentioned that she prefers learning LX English. Both learners with higher levels of EAL speaking skills seem to enjoy learning foreign languages.

Regarding her future plans involving the use of EAL, Olivia shared that she would like to travel to the United States and to Europe. She also wants to study in an English-speaking country in the future. She mentioned how she can use English as a lingua franca while traveling internationally. When asked why she is learning English, she shares that “eu penso muito no futuro, pro trabalho e mesmo para viagens [I think a lot about the future, for work and even traveling]”.

To conclude, Olivia rated her EAL accent a 6/10 and she rated her degree of comprehensibility a 7/10. Conversely, her language instructor rated her speaking skills as a 10/10 once again corroborating previous research findings.

5.5 Addressing the research questions

5.5.1 Which affective factors appear to be conducive to LX speech attainment within this particular group of learners?

The exertion of both positive and negative emotions were reported by learners who were assigned high levels of EAL speaking skills. Olivia, in particular, mentioned that she finds learning English to be quite difficult. Ana, in turn, noted that she feels frustrated with how she at times does not know how to formulate sentences in English. In their accounts, positive emotions were, however, plentiful. Olivia and Ana frequently expose themselves to the target language outside of their language classroom. They report spending a considerable amount of time in their daily lives consuming TV shows and music in English. It became apparent that they enjoy these activities.

In relation to language learning strategies, both learners mentioned specific strategies they already employ or wish to employ to improve their EAL skills. Ana mentioned that she wants to read the novel ‘Red, White and Royal Blue’ in English. She has already read the translated version of this novel, but she wants to challenge herself to read the original version, which is in English. Olivia shared that she employs the same language learning strategy that was previously brought up during the pilot study, i.e., she watches episodes of her favorite TV shows in Portuguese and then she watches the same episode a second time in English.

Importantly, it appears that being highly enthusiastic about LX learning may be related to higher levels of LX speech attainment. Both high scorers seem passionate about the process of learning EAL, and both study an additional foreign language. To them, learning a foreign language appears to be an enjoyable endeavor.

Ana and Olivia share future life plans which are related to EAL use. Some of their life goals involve travel, study, and work. Their future plans indicate that they are both intrinsically and extrinsically motivated to learn LX English. When asked whether she would like to visit an English-speaking country at some point, Ana reflects that even if she travels to a non-English speaking country she would have to speak in English since it is a lingua franca. She mentioned that she wants to travel abroad very much and she studies English to be able to travel internationally. She also shared that she would like to study in Canada or in

England. Furthermore, Ana points out that she is studying to become a civil servant and that there is an English exam that she has to take to achieve this goal. Olivia shared that she would like to travel to the United States and to Europe. She also wants to study in an Englishspeaking country in the future. She mentioned how she can use English as a lingua franca while traveling internationally. When asked why she is learning English, she shares that “eu penso muito no futuro, pro trabalho e mesmo para viagens [I think a lot about the future, for work and even traveling]”.

Curiously, both learners are not satisfied with their current speaking skills. They mentioned that they want to improve their EAL speech ability. Olivia mentioned that she could do better, “acho que pode melhorar, eu não acho ainda que é o que eu gostaria [I think I could improve, I don’t think it is already what I would like it to be].” Ana, in turn, reflected that her English accent “não é tão bom, mas não é tão ruim, não [it is not very good, but it is not very bad either]”. Table 2 outlines the affective factors that emerged during their interviews and stimulated recalls.

Table 5

A Grounded Theory for Socio-affective factors in EAL learning: Main Study

Socio-affective factors	Life stories and characteristic adaptations		
	PAST	PRESENT	FUTURE
□ Cultural beliefs		“I spend a lot of time watching TV shows and videos in English.” “I frequently watch North-American TV shows. My favorite TV shows include ‘Gossip Girl’ and ‘the Big Bang Theory’”.	
□ Language and learning beliefs	In the past, “I thought my English classes were easy and I enjoyed going to class. I had many friends at this class”.	“I like learning English, I think it is very cool.” “Gee, this teacher, I think he is wonderful, he teaches very well, he clears up all our doubts.”	

□ Self-efficacy beliefs		My English accent “is not very good, but it is not very bad either.” “I think I could improve; I don’t think it is already what I would like it to be.	
□ Motives, goals and projects		“I’m studying to become a civil servant and there is an English exam that I have to take to achieve this goal”.	“I want to travel abroad very much and I study English to be able to travel internationally”. “I would like to study in Canada or in England”. “I think a lot about the future, for work and even traveling”.
□ Language investment		“I also study English at Duolingo”. “I speak in English with my teacher whenever I can”.	
		“I watch episodes of my favorite TV shows in Portuguese and then I watch the same episode a second time in English.” “Gee, I spend a lot of time watching TV shows and videos in English”.	
□ Language enjoyment		“I like learning English, I think it is very cool.” “Gee, I spend a lot of time watching TV shows and videos in English.”	

□ Dissatisfaction with one's EAL speaking skills		"I feel frustrated at times with how I don't know how to formulate sentences in English". "I even think the time is short for what I wanted to learn". "I find English difficult (...) I think it is very complex." "I think I could improve; I don't think it is already what I would like it to be."	
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The stimulated recall generated reflections about the learners' classmates, instructor and the events that happened during class, (e.g. "na aula dele a gente dialoga bastante (...) nossa, esse professor, eu acho ele maravilhoso, ele ensina super bem, ele tira todas as nossas dúvidas [at his class we interact a lot (...) gee, this teacher, I think he is wonderful, he teaches very well, he clears up all our doubts]"). When triangulated with the data generated from the other methods, tendencies were noted. It seems that both learners share similar affective reactions to the EAL learning process, e.g. language enjoyment; satisfaction with the instructor and the teaching method; high levels of WTC; dissatisfaction with their current EAL speaking skills; high levels of language investment.

Social-affective categories were drawn based on a review of the literature on sociopsychological aspects of SLA (see section 3.2.1, p. 64) and the New Big Five Model (McAdams & Pals, 2007, see section 3.2.2, p. 68). Table 2 reports the grounded theory which was generated at this stage of the study. A general method of comparative analysis was employed to develop conceptual categories, i.e., the factors which comprise the affective domain, and the evidence from which each factor emerged was used to exemplify each affective response. The socio-affective factors revealed during the main study include cultural beliefs, language and learning beliefs, self-efficacy beliefs, motives, goals and projects, language investment, and a positive and a negative emotion, namely, language enjoyment and dissatisfaction with one's EAL speaking skills.

These findings highlight the role of linguistic ideologies on the process of foreign language learning (see section 4.1.4, p.78); according to the data, learners' beliefs comprise a significant facet of socio-affective reactions to EAL learning. Furthermore, learners' autobiographies revealed future goals and projects involving the use of EAL. This particular socio-affective factor was, however, raised by all four language learners, constituting a category that is not solely linked to higher levels of LX speech performance.

Similar to the results from the pilot study, language learning strategies were also spontaneously mentioned during the accounts of both high achievers, highlighting the role of investment on language outcomes. Language enjoyment was once again reported in the accounts of high achievers. Finally, a specific negative emotion emerged during the interviews with both women, i.e., dissatisfaction with learners' own current EAL speaking skills, which could lead students to strive to improve their LX speech abilities; this socioaffective category also reinforces the Dunning-Krueger effect (see page 13).

5.5.2 How do affective factors experienced by EAL learners who have attained different levels of EAL speech ability differ in the same language component?

Based on the observation and learners' self-reported language learning narratives, it appears that the four students seem to share similar individual difference profiles (e.g., extroverted, few neurotic traits, high WTC), while also, to a certain extent, exerting positive emotions, and participating evenly during the lesson, despite failing to use the target language spontaneously. An analysis of contrasts of affective reactions from learners who appear to have differing levels of LX speech attainment revealed that, overall, the affective factors experienced by EAL learners who have attained different levels of EAL speech ability do not differ substantially in the same language component. Pedro was the only student who seemed reluctant when asked whether he enjoyed learning English. Gabriel, whose English speaking skills were regarded by the language instructor to be at lower levels, reported that he likes his English classes and that he has always enjoyed them, much like Ana and Olivia. Furthermore, motives, goals, and projects related to EAL speech use were raised by all four learners, as well as cultural beliefs. Two socio-affective factors appear to be, however, exclusively associated with more successful language outcomes, namely, language investment and

dissatisfaction with one's current LX speaking skills. These two factors only emerged in the accounts of the learners who were assigned higher levels of EAL speech attainment.

5.5.3 How do the perceptions of the language instructor regarding the students' individual differences (e.g., personality aspects, emotions, willingness to communicate etc.) differ from the learners' self-reports?

Learners' actions during class appeared to be consistent with the accounts they shared during the interviews, and with the instructor's perceptions of these learners' individual differences, i.e., communicative, extroverted, engaged. The teacher's comments, learners' perceptions about their own socio-affective profiles as well as the observed behavior of students during class appear to indicate that learners' individual difference profiles were similar among all five students who participated in the study.

5.5.4 How do the perceptions of the language instructor regarding their students' LX speech abilities differ from the learners' perceptions of their own LX speech abilities?

Pedro was asked to rate his speaking skills in order to address research question (d). He rated his speaking skills, i.e., comprehensibility and accent, as a 6/10, which is similar to the score his language instructor assigned to his speaking skills, 5/10. I expected students with lower levels of EAL speaking skills to overestimate their abilities in consonance with the findings from my MA study (Borges, 2024), which revealed that students with lower scores tend to overestimate their abilities in the target language, while learners with the highest scores underestimate their language abilities. For this particular learner, this does not appear to be the case.

Gabriel, in turn, rated his EAL accent as an 8/10 and he mentioned that his accent is "good". However, in terms of comprehensibility he rated his speaking skills as a 6/10. To confirm his impressions, I asked him whether he thought his EAL accent was good, but not very comprehensible and he agreed. This observation appears to suggest that the perceptions of this particular learner in relation to his speaking skills are unclear. One would expect accent

and comprehensibility ratings to be quite similar since they are both similar facets of speaking ability. In addition to that, his language instructor rated Gabriel's accent and comprehensibility levels to be a 5/10. Unlike Pedro's, Gabriel's ratings corroborate the Dunning-Kruger effect, which could explain differences in self-ratings and expert-ratings. Studies on self-assessments have consistently demonstrated that higher judge's scores tend to yield lower self-ratings, while overly confident learners generally receive the lowest scores on LX performance (in Dlasaka & Krekeler, 2008). This finding supports the Dunning-Kruger effect (in Dunning, 2011, p. 247), i.e.,

poor performers in many social and intellectual domains seem largely unaware of just how deficient their expertise is. Their deficits leave them with a double burden – not only does their incomplete and misguided knowledge lead them to make mistakes but those exact same deficits also prevent them from recognizing when they are making mistakes.

Furthermore, Ana assigned a 6/10 to her English accent, “*não é tão bom, mas não é tão ruim, não* [it is not very good, but it is not very bad either]”. Regarding comprehensibility, she rated her speaking skills a 7/10. Her instructor, in turn, rated her speaking skills a 10/10. Once again, these findings corroborate the results from my MA study and appear to reflect the Dunning-Kruger effect.

Finally, Olivia rated her EAL accent a 6/10 and she rated her degree of comprehensibility a 7/10. Conversely, her language instructor rated her speaking skills as a 10/10 once again corroborating previous findings.

– CHAPTER 6 –

CONCLUSIONS

The present section provides the study's conclusions. First, a summary of the research findings is reported. Next, the limitations of the study are described. Finally, the study's pedagogical and theoretical implications are examined.

6.1 Summary of Research Findings

The present study aimed to design a taxonomy of affective reactions to EAL speech in a Brazilian teaching context. As of now, there are no research conventions regarding the adoption of a theoretical framework which categorizes the factors of the affective domain in mainstream SLA/TESOL research. This is largely due to insufficient results from studies providing a holistic emic perspective to the role of affect on LX speech performance; most mainstream SLA studies on the role of social-affective factors on language outcomes comprise correlations of self-reported psychological variables (Dörnyei, 2015), failing to provide a more comprehensive overview of the socio-affective domain. Furthermore, few SLA studies on socio-psychological factors are based on theoretical frameworks. In fact, this line of studies emerged in its vast majority from empirical studies, constituting a 'researchthen-theory' field of research (Skehan, 1989).

Accordingly, the present study examined the ways in which affective factors relate to LX speech performance. Five Brazilian learners' EAL learning autobiographies were analyzed and contrasted with their instructor's reports to determine whether these narratives affected learners' affective reactions, and the extent to which they had an impact on learners' EAL speech proficiency. Classroom observations were also employed to better understand the ways learners' self-reported affective responses to the learning process were in accordance with their actions in the language classroom. McAdams and Pals' New Big Five (2007), i.e., a proposal for a comprehensive and integrative personality theory, was adopted as a theoretical framework from which the study's grounded theory for socio-affective factors in a Brazilian EAL context was developed. More specifically, the characteristic adaptations category – motives, goals, strategies, and values, which are context-dependent details of psychological individuality – as well as the individual's life story category – the individual's internalized and evolving self-narrative(s), which helps reshape the past and imagine the future – were included in the analysis.

Results revealed that learners displaying higher levels of EAL speech attainment¹⁹ share similar affective reactions to the EAL learning process, namely, positive cultural beliefs towards the target-language culture(s), language learning enjoyment, satisfaction with the instructor and the teaching method, high levels of WTC, future goals related to the use of the target language, dissatisfaction with their current EAL speaking skills, and high levels of language investment.

Based on the observation, the instructor's comments, and learners' self-reported language learning narratives, all five students seemed to share similar individual difference profiles (e.g., extroverted, few neurotic traits, high WTC). Furthermore, an analysis of contrasts of affective reactions from learners who appear to have differing levels of LX speech attainment revealed that, overall, the affective factors experienced by EAL learners who have attained different levels of EAL speech ability do not differ in the same language component.

Unlike Pedro, Gabriel, who is reported to have attained lower levels of EAL, overestimated his EAL speech abilities, in consonance with the findings from my MA study (Borges, 2024) and the Dunning-Krueger effect, both indicating that students with lower scores tend to overestimate their abilities in the target language, while learners with the highest scores underestimate their language abilities. When contrasted with their language instructor's ratings, Ana and Olivia's self-ratings revealed that they underestimated their EAL speech abilities, thus corroborating previous research findings.

6.2 Limitations of the Study

Certain limitations which are inherent in a study of this nature prevent us from interpreting the research conclusions as ultimate answers to the role of socio-affective factors on EAL speech attainment. A case study methodology was employed with a small sample of six participants to address the research questions. This study was only tentative in associating its findings to the population from which the cases were drawn. Phenomenological research is, after all, primarily concerned with the presence of factors and their effects in individuals (Lester, 1999), and qualitative validity is not related to the production of generalizable

¹⁹ According to their language instructor.

findings. The results from this study only represent the affective reactions and EAL speech attainment of a small group of language learners and they may not be extended to the population it investigates. Cross-cultural mixed-methods studies with larger samples are thus needed to corroborate this study's findings.

6.3 Pedagogical and Theoretical Implications

The fundamental objective for conducting empirical studies of this nature is to inform the language classroom. More specifically, this research sought to contribute to three areas of classroom practice: first, understanding the extent to which affect influences speech achievement and which affective factors appear to contribute to different levels of speech attainment within a specific group of Brazilian EAL learners can assist language teachers in identifying reasons for their learners' apparent success or failure in attaining higher levels of speech ability. This knowledge can enable instructors to offer students the opportunity to modify their affective regimes in a favorable direction.

The results indicate that fostering positive cultural beliefs towards the target-language culture(s), adopting methodological decisions which aim to improve language learners' enjoyment and, therefore, their satisfaction with the instructor and the teaching method, motivating learners to participate in class, and encouraging students to be critical towards their own EAL speaking skills should become primary objectives in the foreign language speaking classroom.

Second, looking at the affective processes involved in LX speech attainment and how they may or may not be influenced by social conditions may lead to a more complete understanding of LX speech acquisition, for which language instructors operating in this particular educational context might be provided with context-specific training on learner affect.

All learners reported satisfaction with their instructor and the teaching method. Particularly, learners with higher levels of LX speech ability praised their instructor and their language classes exceedingly. Pedro, one of the students who was reported to have attained lower levels of LX speaking skills, was more reticent in his answers and the analysis suggested that he is less enthusiastic about his language classes than his peers. Clearly, in the present study, learners' affective regimes are related to the social aspect of language learning, which involves learners' experiences in the language classroom.

Third and last, the results of this study can also contribute towards the development of speech teaching materials and methodologies aimed at encouraging positive affective reactions and manipulating affective regimes that appear to be detrimental to speech attainment.

In relation to classroom strategies, the findings from this study indicate that the adoption of certain pedagogical practices may enhance learners' experiences in the EAL speaking classroom. First, fostering positive cultural beliefs towards target-language communities can be achieved by incorporating authentic cultural materials, intercultural projects, and opportunities for contact with native or proficient LX speakers. Second, in order to increase learners' enjoyment and satisfaction, instructors should adopt varied methodological approaches, integrating interactive tasks, gamified activities, and learner choice in speaking topics. Third, motivating active participation requires the creation of a supportive classroom environment where mistakes are normalized as part of the learning process, and where collaborative speaking tasks are scaffolded to build learners' confidence. Finally, encouraging students to critically reflect on their own speaking skills can be facilitated through self-assessment tools, structured peer feedback, and the development of audio or video portfolios that allow learners to monitor their progress over time. Together, these practices can potentially promote not only linguistic development but also learner autonomy, intercultural competence, and sustained motivation in speaking.

In what regards the theoretical implications of this research, an investigation of a wider range of emotions, attitudes and personality characteristics can contribute towards the design of a framework for affective reactions to LX speech performance. The results of this investigation also provide new insights on the role of affect on LX speech performance, as few studies to date have provided a holistic emic perspective to the interaction between affective variables and speech ability in the target language.

In the case of the instructor and the learners who participated, the results of the study were shared with the participants, which hopefully fostered reflective practices. It was also expected that the combination of qualitative methods would not only uncover patterns that can have a direct bearing on LX speech research, but would also provide an emic perspective to the role of affect on this area of language attainment, thus contributing to the development of a more advanced theory of speech acquisition in a foreign language.

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– APPENDICES –

Appendix A

Termo de Consentimento Livre e Esclarecido

Você está sendo convidado a participar da pesquisa “Além da Hipótese do Período Crítico: estudo das dimensões afetivas de habilidade oral em LA”, de responsabilidade de Laís de Oliveira Borges, aluna de pósgraduação da Universidade de Brasília. O objetivo desta pesquisa é analisar fatores afetivos relacionados às habilidades orais em língua inglesa de alunos dessa língua. Assim, gostaria de consultá-lo(a) sobre seu interesse e disponibilidade de cooperar com a pesquisa.

Você receberá todos os esclarecimentos necessários antes, durante e após a finalização da pesquisa, e lhe asseguro que o seu nome não será divulgado, sendo mantido o mais rigoroso sigilo mediante a omissão total de informações que permitam identificá-lo(a). Os dados provenientes de sua participação na pesquisa, tais como questionários, entrevistas, fitas de gravação ou filmagem, ficarão sob a guarda do pesquisador responsável pela pesquisa.

A coleta de dados será realizada por meio de gravações das aulas, entrevistas semiestruturadas, recordações estimuladas e pontuações de habilidade oral com os participantes do estudo (professor e estudantes), a fim de possibilitar uma análise do pesquisador após o momento da aula. É para estes procedimentos que você está sendo convidado a participar. Sua participação na pesquisa implica em mínimo risco que se relaciona ao potencial desconforto gerado pelas gravações das aulas. No entanto, este procedimento poderá ser substituído pela observação das aulas.

Espera-se com esta pesquisa compreender de que formas fatores socioafetivos influenciam o desempenho oral de alunos de inglês como língua estrangeira.

Sua participação é voluntária e livre de qualquer remuneração ou benefício. Você é livre para recusar-se a participar, retirar seu consentimento ou interromper sua participação a qualquer momento. A recusa em participar não irá acarretar qualquer penalidade ou perda de benefícios.

Se você tiver qualquer dúvida em relação à pesquisa, você pode me contatar através do telefone 61996257151 ou pelo e-mail laisborges_295@gmail.com.

A equipe de pesquisa garante que os resultados do estudo serão devolvidos aos participantes por meio de um encontro presencial para tratarmos desses resultados com os interessados e por meio de uma síntese enviada para os e-mails de todos os participantes, podendo ser publicados posteriormente na comunidade científica.

Este projeto foi revisado e aprovado pelo Comitê de Ética em Pesquisa - Ciências Humanas e Sociais - CEP/CHS. As informações com relação à assinatura do TCLE ou os direitos do sujeito da pesquisa podem ser obtidos através do e-mail do CEP/CHS: cep_chs@unb.br.

Este documento foi elaborado em duas vias, uma ficará com o(a) pesquisador(a) responsável pela pesquisa e a outra com o senhor(a).

Assinatura do (a) participante

Assinatura do (a) pesquisador (a)

Brasília, ____ de _____ de _____

Appendix B



Governo do Distrito Federal
Secretaria de Estado de Educação do Distrito Federal
Diretoria de Inovação, Tecnologias e Documentação
Gerência de Formação Continuada para Inovação, Tecnologias e Educação
a Distância

Memorando Nº 117/2023 - SEE/EAPE/DITED/GITEAD

Brasília-DF, 14 de setembro de 2023.

À Coordenação Regional de Ensino de Brazlândia, Ceilândia, Gama, Guará, Núcleo Bandeirantes, Paranoá, Planaltina, Plano Piloto, Recanto das Emas, Samambaia, Santa Maria, São Sebastião, Sobradinho, Taguatinga,

Assunto: Autorização para pesquisa

Senhor(a) Coordenador(a),

Após análise documental da solicitação de pesquisa no âmbito desta Secretaria de Educação, encaminhamos autorização para a realização de pesquisa^[1] de **Doutorado** de **Laís de Oliveira Borges**, intitulada ***“Além da Hipótese do Período Crítico: estudo das dimensões afetivas de habilidade oral em Língua Adicional”***, em elaboração no âmbito do **Programa de Pós-Graduação em Linguística – PPGL**, pela **Universidade de Brasília (UnB)**.

Salientamos que a autorização final da coleta dos dados na escola dependerá do aceite do(a) gestor(a) da unidade escolar ou do setor objeto da pesquisa. Nas pesquisas que envolvam profissionais e estudantes, é necessário cumprir os princípios que norteiam as Resoluções CNS 466/2012 e 510/2016 e, quando for o caso, observar os requisitos normativos do Programa de Pós-Graduação da Instituição de Ensino Superior.

Na medida em que houver o aceite final do(a) gestor(a) da unidade escolar e/ou do setor objeto da pesquisa, a Secretaria de Educação coloca-se ciente de suas corresponsabilidades enquanto instituição coparticipante do referido projeto de pesquisa e de seu compromisso no resguardo da segurança e do bem-estar dos(as) participantes, dispondo da infraestrutura necessária para a garantia dos elementos necessários à segurança e bem-estar de todos(as) os(as) envolvidos(as).

[1] Esta autorização tem validade de seis meses, a contar desta data de expedição.

Atenciosamente,



Documento assinado eletronicamente por **ELIANE LUIZ FREITAS - Matr.0248656-3, Professor(a) de Educação Básica**, em 14/09/2023, às 09:41, conforme art. 6º do Decreto nº 36.756, de 16 de setembro de 2015, publicado no Diário Oficial do Distrito Federal nº 180, quinta-feira, 17 de setembro de 2015.



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