Intersubjectivity in the German Foreign Language Classroom

By

Jana C. Martin

A dissertation submitted in partial fulfillment of

the requirements for the degree of

Doctor of Philosophy

(German)

at the

UNIVERSITY OF WISCONSIN – MADISON

2015

Date of final oral examination: May 20, 2015

The dissertation is approved by the following members of the Final Oral Committee:

Monika Chavez, Professor, German
Mark Louden, Professor, German
Charles James, Professor, Curriculum & Instruction / German
Jeanne Schueller, Faculty Associate, German
Diana Frantzen, Professor, Spanish & Portuguese

Acknowledgments

This dissertation would not have been written if it were not for the support of an encouraging and truly extraordinary community of the German Department at UW-Madison. It has been an honor to study and teach alongside so many wonderful people.

Who would have imagined that a person I met first at the department as I was applying to the graduate school (and who shared some chocolate with me right then, in her office) would become the most instrumental person in my graduate studies, including but not limited to, this dissertation. Through the years marked by thought-provoking and at the same time very student-friendly classes, inspiring conversations, tons of emails, and pages upon pages of feedback, Professor Monika Chavez has been my guide, a fan, a very constructive and helpful critic, and above all, a role model. Your generosity, Monika, with your time and comments on writing (even during your sabbatical!) has been very much appreciated. Your kindness, helpfulness, professionalism, expertise, and creative energy constitute in my mind the persona of an 'ideal' advisor. I am deeply thankful for your guidance and honored by your friendship.

I am also very grateful for the support I received from my dissertation committee members, Prof. Mark Louden, Dr. Jeanne Schueller, Prof. Charles James, and Prof. Diana Frantzen. I have a deep respect for all of you. Mark, thank you for wonderful and stimulating classes I had a privilege to attend. Jeanne, your classes left me with fond memories of engaging class discussions and spirited small group conversations. Thank you both for your friendship, encouragement, and kindness, both on a professional and personal level. Charles, I would like to express my gratitude for your insights on teaching that you have always been willing to share. Your expertise and dedication to pedagogy have been very inspirational to me. Diana, to you I am thankful for your words of encouragement and support through the weeks of writing of this

dissertation. To all of you, I am appreciative of the time you took out of your busy lives to serve on my dissertation committee.

It is clear that I would not be able to conduct this dissertation research without the help from my wonderful TA colleagues, ‘Wayne’, ‘Magdalena’, ‘Lester’, and ‘Eric’ and their students who agreed to participate in my study. A special thank-you goes to ‘Lester’ and ‘Eric’ who accommodated me in my class observations, and to my focal (and some non-focal) student participants who took part in the personal and group interview parts of the study. I also owe a debt of gratitude to my statistician, Carol Eckerly, who helped me make sense of all my data.

I thank my family for their understanding and quiet support. Paul, you have been there for me during my whole graduate studies (either by bringing me coffee or by letting me disappear to write or study). Without you, I would not have been able to achieve what I did. I also need to thank Yoli, the first reader of my drafts, for her patience and comments; and to Alec and Vierka for their acceptance and understanding. I am thankful to my parents and sisters for their unconditional love and support they have always given me. I feel blessed.

I would also like to thank my friends in the department. Thank you, Kelsey and Frieda, for being my dissertation ‘sisters’; I will cherish my memories of our conference hotel stays and friendly chats. Thanks to all the fellow graduate students in the department who made my graduate study experience unforgettable. I am also very grateful to Mark, Katja, and Joan for their willingness to help at moment’s notice.

Lastly, I would like to thank my friend Nancy who for the past five years has been sitting with me in the same boat, paddling away. Thank you for being on the other side of the phone line when it mattered. I am immensely grateful for your support and true friendship. Our journey has been memorable.

Table of Contents

Acknowledgments i
Table of Contents iii
List of Tables and Figures viii

1.0 Rationale 1

2.0 Theoretical Background 1

2.1 Social theories of language use and learning 2
2.1.1 *Socio-cognitive theory* 2
2.1.2 *Complexity theory* 3
2.1.3 *Theory of self-efficacy* 4
2.1.4 *Subjectivity theory* 5
2.1.5 *Intersubjectivity theory* 6
2.1.5.1 Defining intersubjectivity 6
2.1.5.2 Origins of intersubjectivity 8
2.1.6 *Personality theory* 9
2.1.6.1 *Myers-Briggs Type Indicator* (*MBTI*) 10
2.1.6.2 The *Big Five model* 11

3.0 Literature Review 13

3.1 The social character of a FL classroom 13
3.1.1 Group dynamics and coherence 14
3.1.2 Relatedness 15
3.1.3 FL classroom community of practice 16
3.2 SLA research on student interaction 18
3.2.1 Interaction and learning 19
3.2.2 Interaction across classroom settings 20
3.2.3 Interaction and learner agency 20
3.2.4 Interaction and social dynamics 22
3.2.4.1 Patterns of interaction 23
3.2.4.1.1 Patterns that promote learning 23
3.2.4.1.2 Patterns that have negative influence on learning 24
3.3 SLA research on student personality 25
3.3.1 *MBTI* in SLA personality research 26
3.3.2 The *Big Five model* in SLA personality research 28
3.4 SLA research on student beliefs 30
3.4.1 Theoretical approaches to SLA research on student beliefs 30

3.4.1.1 Beliefs and change 31
3.4.1.2 Beliefs and action 32
3.4.2 Student beliefs about learning 33
3.4.3 Student beliefs about their selves 34
3.4.3.1 Self-evaluation research in social psychology 34
3.4.3.2 Self-efficacy beliefs 35
3.4.3.3 The motivational conceptualization of self 36
3.4.4 Student beliefs about class peers 37
3.4.4.1 First impressions 37
3.4.4.2 Beliefs about ideals 39
3.4.4.3 Positive beliefs about class peers 41
3.4.4.4 Negative beliefs about class peers 42
3.4.5 The substance of intersubjectivity 43

4.0 Research Methodology 44

4.1 Overview of research methodology of the present study 44
4.2 Research instruments 46
4.2.1 Quantitative research instruments 46
4.2.2 Qualitative research instruments 49
4.2.2.1 Class observations 49
4.2.2.2 Personal interview protocols 50
4.2.2.3 Group interview protocol 51
4.2.2.4 *General Disposition Questionnaire* (*GDQ*) 51
4.3 Data collection procedures 51
4.3.1 Collection procedures for quantitative data 52
4.3.2 Collection procedures for qualitative data 52
4.3.2.1 Procedures applied to class observations 54
4.3.2.2 Procedures applied to personal interviews..... 54
4.3.2.3 Procedures applied to group interviews 55
4.3.2.4 Information gathering via the *GDQ* 56
4.4 Participants 57
4.4.1 Research participants: *SDQ1*, *SDQ2*, and *GDQ* 58
4.4.1.1 Class section 1 (CS1) 59
4.4.1.2 Class section 2 (CS2) 60
4.4.1.3 Class section 3 (CS3) 60
4.4.1.4 Class section 4 (CS4) 61
4.4.2 Research participants: Class observations 63
4.4.3 Research participants: Personal interviews 64
4.4.4 Research participants: Group interviews 65

5.0 Results 67

5.1 Theme 1: The makings of a hypothetical ideal peer 67
5.1.1 RQ1a 68
5.1.2 RQ1b 70
5.1.2.1 Responses from students in CS1 71
5.1.2.2 Responses from students in CS2 72
5.1.2.3 Responses from students in CS3 74
5.1.2.4 Responses from students in CS4 75
5.1.2.5 Comparison of students' responses among the CSs: Descriptive analysis 76
5.1.2.6 Comparison of students' responses among the CSs: Inferential analysis 79
5.1.3 RQ1c 81
5.1.4 RQ1d 84
5.1.5 RQ1e 88
5.1.6 RQ1f 91
5.1.7 RQ1g 92
5.1.8 RQ1h 93
5.1.9 RQ1i 94
5.2 Theme 2: The contribution of the three personality constituents to students' beliefs about their selves 96
5.2.1 RQ2a 97
5.2.2 RQ2b 99
5.2.3 RQ2c 102
5.2.4 RQ2d 103
5.2.5 RQ2e 104
5.2.6 RQ2f 105
5.3 Theme 3: Students' beliefs about what percentage of their peers possessed qualities connoted with each of the three personality constituents 106
5.3.1 RQ3a 107
5.3.2 RQ3b 110
5.3.3 RQ3c 112
5.3.4 RQ3d 113
5.3.5 RQ3e 114
5.3.6 RQ3f 115
5.4 Theme 4: Students' beliefs about what percentage of their peers perceived qualities connoted with each of the three personality constituents in them 116
5.4.1 RQ4a 117
5.4.2 RQ4b 119

5.4.3 RQ4c 121
5.4.4 RQ4d 122
5.4.5 RQ4e 123
5.4.6 RQ4f 124
5.5 Theme 5: Students' beliefs about the makings of a hypothetical ideal peer vs. students' beliefs about their selves 125
5.5.1 RQ5a 126
5.5.2 RQ5b 127
5.5.3 RQ5c 128
5.5.4 RQ5d 129
5.6 Theme 6: Students' beliefs about what percentage of their peers possessed qualities connoted with each of the three personality constituents vs. students' beliefs about what percentage of their peers perceived qualities connoted with each of the three personality constituents in them 130
5.6.1 RQ6a 130
5.6.2 RQ6b 131
5.6.3 RQ6c 132
5.6.4 RQ6d 134

6.0 Discussion 135

6.1 How students imagined their 'ideal' peers 135
6.1.1 Multidimensionality of the ideal peer 136
6.1.2 Zooming in: The role of individual attributes in an ideal peer 139
6.1.2.1 The highest-rated attributes in an ideal peer 139
6.1.2.1.1 Patience 139
6.1.2.1.2 Helpfulness 140
6.1.2.1.3 Intent to work hard 141
6.1.2.2 The lowest-rated attributes in an ideal peer 142
6.1.2.2.1 Being funny 142
6.1.2.2.2 Creativity 143
6.1.2.2.3 Proficiency 144
6.1.2.3 Other notable attributes 145
6.1.2.3.1 Tolerance 146
6.1.2.3.2 Focus 147
6.1.3 Suggestions for future research: The ideal peers 149
6.2 How students 'measure up': Students' beliefs about their selves vs. students' beliefs about ideal peers 150
6.2.1 How students saw their selves 151
6.2.2 Convergence and divergence between beliefs about selves and beliefs about

ideal peers 152
6.2.3 Suggestions for future research: The self 154
6.3 In the real, not ideal classroom: Students' beliefs about actual peers 155
6.3.1 The perceived make-up of the actual class 156
6.3.1.1 First impressions 156
6.3.1.2 From first impressions to familiarity 158
6.3.1.3 Familiarity and positive impressions 159
6.3.1.4 Familiarity and fun 160
6.3.1.5 Familiarity and negative impressions 161
6.3.2 What do the others think of me? 163
6.3.3 Suggestions for future research: The actual peers 164
6.4 Students' beliefs: Shared, static, dynamic 166
6.4.1 Students' shared beliefs 166
6.4.2 Stability of students' beliefs 167
6.4.3 Changes in students' beliefs 168
6.4.4 Suggestions for future research: Beliefs and time 169

7.0 Limitations 170

7.1 Limitations resulting from the research instrument 171
7.2 Limitations resulting from the makeup of participants 172
7.3 Limitations resulting from the timing of the questionnaires' administration 174

8.0 Pedagogical Implications 175

8.1 Providing opportunities to get to know each other 175
8.2 Recognition of shared beliefs 177
8.3 Recognition of individual differences 177

9.0 Conclusion 178

10.0 References 180

Appendix A. Research questions 196
Appendix B1. *Situated Disposition Questionnaire 1*.....201
Appendix B2. *Situated Disposition Questionnaire 2*.....209
Appendix C. Personal Interview with Students 217
Appendix D. Personal Interview with Teachers 218
Appendix E. Group Interview with Students.....220
Appendix F. *General Disposition Questionnaire* 221

Appendix G. IRB Approval Form 225
Appendix H. IRB Consent Forms 226
Appendix I1. Levene's tests, *SDQ1*, items 1-13, 13 attributes 229
Appendix I2. Levene's tests, *SDQ1* and *SDQ2*, items 1-13, three constituents 229
Appendix I3. Levene's tests, *SDQ1* and *SDQ2*, items 57-69, three constituents 230
Appendix I4. Levene's tests, *SDQ1* and *SDQ2*, items 14-26, three constituents 230
Appendix I5. Levene's tests, *SDQ1* and *SDQ2*, items 89-113 (odd), three constituents 231
Appendix J1. ANOVAs, *SDQ1* and *SDQ2*, items 1-13, three constituents 232
Appendix J2. Repeated measure ANOVA, *SDQ1*, items 1-13 233
Appendix J3. Repeated measure ANOVA, *SDQ2*, items 1-13 233
Appendix J4. ANOVAs, *SDQ1* and *SDQ2*, items 57-69, three constituents 234
Appendix J5. Repeated measure ANOVA, *SDQ1*, items 57-69 235
Appendix J6. Repeated measure ANOVA, *SDQ2*, items 57-69 235
Appendix J7. ANOVAs, *SDQ1* and *SDQ2*, items 14-26, three constituents 236
Appendix J8. Repeated measure ANOVA, *SDQ1*, items 14-26 237
Appendix J9. Repeated measure ANOVA, *SDQ2*, items 14-26 237
Appendix J10. ANOVAs, *SDQ1* and *SDQ2*, items 89-113 (odd), three constituents 238
Appendix J11. Repeated measure ANOVA, *SDQ1*, items 89-113 (odd) 239
Appendix J12. Repeated measure ANOVA, *SDQ2*, items 89-113 (odd) 239
Appendix K. Pairwise comparisons, *GDQ*, items 45-57 240
Appendix L. Descriptive statistics, *SDQ1*, items 57-69, 13 individual attributes 240

List of Tables and Figures

Table 1a. Students who completed at least one of *SDQ1*, *SDQ2*, and *GDQ*, by CS …….. 62
Table 1b. Number of students in each CS and CS-specific participation rates pertaining to *SDQ1*, *SDQ2*, and *GDQ*, respectively 62
Table 1c. Number of students in each CS who completed both *SDQ1* and *SDQ2* and who completed all three questionnaires (*SDQ1*, *SDQ1*, and *GDQ*) 63
Table 2. Overview of backgrounds of participants in personal interviews .....…….. 64
Table 3. Overview and background of participants in group interviews …….. 66
Table 4. Importance of each of the 13 attributes in a hypothetical ideal class peer – all CSs combined …….. 70
Table 5. Importance of each of the 13 attributes in a hypothetical ideal class peer – CS1 ……71
Table 6. Importance of each of the 13 attributes in a hypothetical ideal class peer – CS2 ....…72
Table 7. Importance of each of the 13 attributes in a hypothetical ideal class peer – CS3 ……74
Table 8. Importance of each of the 13 attributes in a hypothetical ideal class peer – CS4 ……75
Table 9. Attributes occupying the top-three (four) ranks in each of the four CSs ……76
Table 10. Attributes occupying the bottom-three (four) ranks in each of the four CSs ……77

Table 11. One-way ANOVAs of the mean importance ratings of each of the 13 attributes as assigned by each of the four CSs 80
Table 12. Eigenvalue loadings of 13 attributes of a hypothetical ideal peer on three principal components 82
Table 13. Important-in-a-hypothetical-ideal-peer ratings of each of the three personality constituents given in Week 2 85
Table 14. Differences in composite means of important-in-a-hypothetical-ideal-peer ratings between pairs derived from the three personality constituents given in Week 2 87
Table 15. Important-in-a-hypothetical-ideal-peer ratings of each of the three personality constituents given in Week 13 88
Table 16. Differences in composite means of important-in-a-hypothetical-ideal-peer ratings between pairs derived from the three personality constituents given in Week 13..... 90
Table 17. Differences in composite means of important-in-a-hypothetical-ideal-peer ratings between pairs of each of the three personality constituents, respectively; given in Week 2 as compared to given in Week 13 91
Table 18. Relationships between the important-in-a-hypothetical-ideal-peer ratings of each of the three personality constituents given in Week 2 92
Table 19. Relationships between the important-in-a-hypothetical-ideal-peer ratings of each of the three personality constituents given in Week 13 94
Table 20. Relationships between the important-in-a-hypothetical-ideal-peer ratings of each of the three personality constituents, respectively; given in Week 2 as compared to given in Week 13 95
Table 21. Present-in-self ratings of each of the three personality constituents given in Week 2 97
Table 22. Differences in composite means of present-in-self ratings between pairs derived from the three personality constituents given in Week 2 99
Table 23. Present-in-self ratings of each of the three personality constituents given in Week 13 100
Table 24. Differences in composite means of present-in-self ratings between pairs derived from the three personality constituents given in Week 13 101
Table 25. Differences in composite means of present-in-self ratings between pairs of each of the three personality constituents, respectively; given in Week 2 as compared to given in Week 13 102
Table 26. Relationships between the present-in-self ratings of each of the three personality constituents given in Week 2 103
Table 27. Relationships between the present-in-self ratings of each of the three personality constituents given in Week 13 104
Table 28. Relationships between the present-in-self ratings of each of the three personality constituents, respectively, given in Week 2 as compared to given in Week 13 105

Table 29. Present-in-peers ratings of each of the three personality constituents given in Week 2 108
Table 30. Differences in composite means of present-in-peers ratings between pairs derived from the three personality constituents given in Week 2 109
Table 31. Present-in-peers ratings of each of the three personality constituents given in Week 13 110
Table 32. Differences in composite means of present-in-peers ratings between pairs derived from the three personality constituents given in Week 13 111
Table 33. Differences in composite means of present-in-peers ratings between pairs of each of the three personality constituents, respectively; given in Week 2 as compared to given in Week 13 112
Table 34. Relationships between present-in-peers ratings of each of the three personality constituents given in Week 2 113
Table 35. Relationships between present-in-peers ratings of each of the three personality constituents given in Week 13 114
Table 36. Relationships between present-in-peers ratings of each of the three personality constituents, respectively; given in Week 2 as compared to given in Week 13 115
Table 37. Imagined-other-perceived-present-in-self ratings of each of the three personality constituents given in Week 2 117
Table 38. Differences in composite means of imagined-other-perceived-present-in-self ratings between pairs derived from the three personality constituents given in Week 2 118
Table 39. Imagined-other-perceived-present-in-self ratings of each of the three personality constituents given in Week 13 119
Table 40. Differences in composite means of imagined-other-perceived-present-in-self ratings between pairs derived from the three personality constituents given in Week 13 120
Table 41. Differences in composite means of imagined-other-perceived-present-in-self ratings between pairs of each of the three personality constituents, respectively; given in Week 2 as compared to given in Week 13 121
Table 42. Relationships between imagined-other-perceived-present-in-self ratings of each of the three personality constituents given in Week 2 123
Table 43. Relationships between imagined-other-perceived-present-in-self ratings of each of the three personality constituents given in Week 13 124
Table 44. Relationships between imagined-other-perceived-present-in-self ratings of each of the three personality constituents, respectively; given in Week 2 as compared to given in Week 13 125
Table 45. Differences between composite means of important-in-a-hypothetical-ideal-peer ratings and of present-in-self ratings of each of the three personality constituents, respectively, given in Week 2 126

Table 46. Differences between composite means of important-in-a-hypothetical-ideal-peer ratings and of present-in-self ratings of each of the three personality constituents, respectively, given in Week 13 127
Table 47. Relationships between important-in-a-hypothetical-ideal-peer ratings and present-in-self ratings of each of the three personality constituents, respectively, given in Week 2 128
Table 48. Relationships between important-in-a-hypothetical-ideal-peer ratings and present-in-self ratings of each of the three personality constituents, respectively, given in Week 13 129
Table 49. Differences between composite means of present-in-peers ratings and of imagined-other-perceived-present-in-self ratings of each of the three personality constituents, respectively; given in Week 2 131
Table 50. Differences between composite means of present-in-peers ratings and of imagined-other-perceived-present-in-self ratings of each of the three personality constituents, respectively; given in Week 13 132
Table 51. Relationships between present-in-peers ratings and imagined-other-perceived-present-in-self ratings of each of the three personality constituents, respectively; given in Week 2 133
Table 52. Relationships between present-in-peers ratings and imagined-other-perceived-present-in-self ratings of each of the three personality constituents, respectively; given in Week 13 134

Figure 1. Timeline of administration of research instruments and data collection procedures ...56
Figure 2. Importance of each of the 13 attributes in a hypothetical ideal class peer – all CSs combined ……. 69
Figure 3. Importance of each of the 13 attributes in a hypothetical ideal class peer in each of the four CSs …….. 78
Figure 4. Variance explained by principal components in the dataset (importance of attributes for a peer to be considered hypothetical ideal) …….. 82

1.0 Rationale

This dissertation study reflects on the inherently interactive and social nature of the foreign language classroom. It has always been my interest to explore the complexities of a classroom from the perspective of students and teachers as human beings with their own distinct personalities and beliefs. A class is not only a compilation of individuals and objects located in a limited physical and temporal space and focused on set academic objectives, it is also a highly interactive environment where people learn how to work with each other, form relationships, and build a community.

To communicate with each other in a meaningful and satisfying way students need to first establish *intersubjectivity* or a mutual understanding of the objectives to be pursued and the social and cognitive contributions that are required of and likely to be made, respectively, by specific individuals. The distinct personal attributes of each individual student constitute important building blocks of evolving intersubjectivity, and, ultimately, influence how students relate to and work with each other. In the present study, the evaluation of perceptions of personal attributes allowed me to explore what students believed about their ideal and actual peers as well as about their selves[1]. As my study took place over the course of one academic semester, I also was able to examine the interaction between time and students' beliefs.

2.0 Theoretical Background

The present study rests on social theories of language use and learning, specifically *Socio-cognitive theory* and *Theories of complexity*, s*elf-efficacy*, *subjectivity*, and *intersubjectivity*. In addition, the study draws on *Theory of personality* as conceived in human psychology.

[1] Throughout the dissertation, I will be referring to students' SELVES in acknowledgment of *L2 Motivational self system theory*, proposed by Zoltan Dörnyei (2005)

2.1 Social theories of language use and learning

SLA theories can be roughly divided into those that underscore the mechanisms of the cognitive FL learning process and those that focus on the interactional and contextual dimensions of learning and using a foreign language. Efforts to combine the cognitive and social theory in SLA resulted in a conception of a theory that attempted to balance the two perspectives, namely *Socio-cognitive theory*.

2.1.1 *Socio-cognitive theory*

The essence of *Socio-cognitive theory* has been captured in a seminal article by Firth and Wagner (1997):

> In essence we call for work within SLA that endeavors to adopt what we have referred to as a holistic approach to and outlook on language and language acquisition, an approach that problematizes and explores the conventional binary distinction between "social" and "individual" (or cognitive) approaches to language use and language learning, that attends to the dynamics as well as the summation of language acquisition, that is more emically and interactionally attuned,… (p. 296).

Firth and Wagner contended that the cognitivist view on language acquisition uses the ethic (outsider) approach that separates language and its use and thus focuses on learner's communicative problems rather than their successes. In contrast, they proposed to use an emic (learner or insider) perspective so as to gain understanding of how FL learners convey their intended meanings and stressed the contextual nature of interaction where meaning is co-created by the interlocutors. The advocacy of Firth and Wagner for a stronger social element in the SLA research has served as the backdrop of numerous SLA studies since.

Contemporary social perspectives on SLA follow *Developmental theory* of a Russian psychologist and linguist Lev Vygotsky (1896 – 1934). According to Vygotsky's theory, conceptualized in the 1920's and published in the Western world in 1978, learning is thought to happen through social practice. In other words, "the substance of learners' language knowledge is linked to, indeed arises from, learners' extended involvement in the regularly occurring interactional practices constituting their specific contexts of learning" (Hall, 2010, p. 202). Furthermore, social theories emphasize "the importance of a learning environment's social features in optimizing L2 acquisition" (Dixon, Zhao, Shin, et al., 2012, p. 35). These perspectives have been expanding on the cognitivist theories in SLA research by understanding the learning and teaching of a foreign language as a social process of a complex nature (Firth & Wagner, 2007; Imai, 2010; Lantolf & Thorne, 2006; Larsen-Freeman, 2012; Norton, 2013a; van Lier, 2014; Wigglesworth & Storch, 2012; and others).

2.1.2 *Complexity theory*

The complexity of learning has been addressed specifically by Larsen-Freeman. She has built on the work in the psychological, social, and biological sciences, and views SLA as a "complex, dynamic, open, adaptive, self-organizing, non-linear system" (Larsen-Freeman, 2011, p. 52). According to Freeman, "complexity in the language-using system arises from interdependent components and subsystems interacting with each other in a variety of different ways" (Larsen-Freeman, 2009, p. 588). A slight alteration of the initial conditions can create large unpredictable differences in the later development so that learning and learning behavior are conceived of as non-linear. Interaction patterns, despite their unorganized appearance, follow an emerging order, which points to the self-organizing quality of the system (Larsen-Freeman & Cameron, 2008). In short, *Complexity theory* when applied to SLA, does not view language as a commodity that can

be acquired and possessed but recognizes the interconnectedness of learning variables and the dynamics of their interaction.

The tenets of *Complexity theory* have also been applied to the research on beliefs in SLA. Beliefs, too, are seen as exhibiting many of the characteristics of complex systems, including but not limited to heterogeneity, openness, and situatedness (Ellis, 2008; Tanaka & Ellis, 2003), and that they are "dynamic, socially constructed, and responsive to context" (Amuzie & Winke, 2009, p. 366). The exploration of students' beliefs in the present study shares this perspective.

2.1.3 *Theory of self-efficacy*

One approach to the study of beliefs focuses on self-efficacy. Self-efficacy represents "beliefs in one's capabilities to organize and execute the courses of action required to produce given attainments" (Bandura, 1997, p. 3). People's self-efficacy does not depend on actual abilities but rather on what people believe could be accomplished with the skills they have. In the words of the psychologist Bandura (1986), "what people think, believe, and feel affects how they behave" (p. 26). Consequently, people's "sense of efficacy will determine their choice of the activities attempted, as well as the level of their aspirations, the amount of effort exerted, and the persistence displayed" (Dörnyei, 1998, p. 119). Beliefs related to self-efficacy stem from the interpretation of four main sources of information: (a) mastery experiences, which reflect a person's successful achievement of a goal; (b) vicarious experiences, or the appraisal of a person's own capabilities in relation to the accomplishment of peers; (c) verbal persuasion by others, including performance feedback or encouragement; and (d) physiological and affective indexes, including stress, fatigue, and anxiety (Bandura, 1997). The social environment of a foreign language classroom provides students with the sources that aid the formation of self-efficacy beliefs. The present dissertation study will examine these sources with particular

reference to the dynamic nature in which self-efficacy is both shaped by and expresses itself in the context of peer interaction. The juxtaposition of self-efficacy with the efficacy of the peers, or "efficacy-of-the-other", will elucidate the connection between the self and others in terms of thought and action.

2.1.4 *Subjectivity theory*

Subjectivity as defined by Weedon (1997) relates to the concept of identity and embodies "the conscious and unconscious thoughts and emotions of the individual, her sense of herself, and her ways of understanding her relation to the world" (p. 32). In Weedon's view, a person's identity is thought to be constantly changing based on participants' particular thoughts and involvement in discourse. This perspective was reaffirmed a decade later by Kramsch and Whiteside (2007), who noted that the identities of participants in interaction "should not be taken as stable, preexisting categories but as emergent, contingent, interlocutor-relevant frames of participation in a highly ecological game" (p. 911).

During interaction in class, learners construct and apply their social roles and identities (Norton & Toohey, 2002; Norton, 2013b; Weedon, 1997; Wenger, 1998; and others), which are specific to the local context. Students and teachers who participate in language learning bring into the process their own subjective beliefs, attitudes, and expectations, which can be based on their previous learning or teaching experience, perceptions of the classroom, perceived social roles, and other factors. Thus, students and teachers not only think, observe, and process but also feel and judge (Aragão, 2011; Arnold, 1999; Yoshida, 2013; and others).

The basis of one's subjectivity is thus formed by the ongoing and dynamic interplay among cognitive, affective, and social processes (Imai, 2010). As a mental construct, subjectivity could be operationalized in terms of the participants' beliefs and behaviors resulting from these

beliefs. It is the aim of this study to follow the genesis of such beliefs, both as they relate to individuals in the form of subjectivity, and as they relate to groups, in which the individuals' beliefs meet and interact in the realm of intersubjectivity.

2.1.5 *Intersubjectivity theory*

In the existing research on intersubjectivity, two key areas of interest can be identified: The definition of intersubjectivity, and the explanation of its origins.

2.1.5.1 Defining intersubjectivity

As individuals, we develop our own beliefs and perspectives on the world around us. As productive members of society, we also need to be aware of the perspectives of others. That does not mean, however, that in order for the world to function successfully, we all need to share one perspective. Gillespie and Cornish (2010) addressed this particular issue by saying:

> Groups need not be homogenous, they can be based on difference, but only if combined with a degree of mutual understanding of that difference. That is to say, what makes a group or society is not similarity but the degree to which the members' perspectives are understood by one another. (pp. 41-42)

In its modern form, intersubjectivity dates back to the beginning of 20th century, namely to the body of work of German philosopher Edmund Husserl (1859-1938). He saw individuals as sharing their social reality with others through a dynamic and diverse bond. A hundred years later, Petit (2008) described intersubjectivity in similar terms: "It's a matter of taking part in a conjoint action through which there arises a unique world which is, at the same time, a world for several agents" (pp. 110-111).

In the century of research on intersubjectivity, the notion has been described by a number of terms, which include 'sharing the perspective of the other', 'mutual understanding' or

'orientation', and 'meeting of beliefs', among others. Intersubjectivity has been a very important concept, especially in the social sciences. It is viewed as one of the key elements in psychology, including in the strands of developmental psychology that deal with perspective taking (Gillespie, 2012; Martin, Sokol, & Elfers, 2008) and in the type of neuroscience that addresses the role of "mirror neurons" (Hurley & Chater, 2005). The concept of intersubjectivity has influenced the fields of communication (Linell, 2009), and sociology, including as it pertains to the study of inter-group, inter-institutional, and inter-national relations (Booth & Wheeler, 2008; Makarychev & Sergunin, 2012). The idea of intersubjectivity as a research concept has also entered SLA research, both in and out of the classroom (Imai, 2010; Mori & Hayashi, 2006; and others). For descriptions of selected studies on intersubjectivity related to language learning, please see the Literature Review section of this dissertation.

A recent attempt to bring together various strands of research on intersubjectivity was undertaken by Duranti (2010). Duranti revisited the notion of intersubjectivity as envisioned by Husserl and proposed a broad model of intersubjectivity by formulating the following four claims: (1) Intersubjectivity is more than a shared or mutual understanding; (2) Intersubjectivity is the possibility of "trading places"; (3) Intersubjectivity is the source of objectivity; and (4) Intersubjectivity is a precondition for interaction. In the first claim, intersubjectivity is seen as "closer to the notion of the possibility of being in the place where the Other is" (p. 16). The second claim suggests that "the world as it presents itself to me is the same world as it presents itself to you, not because you can 'read my mind' but because I assume that if you were in my place you would see it the way I see it" (p. 21). The third claim speaks of empathy giving the existence to the objective world, in which one participates "in the actions and feeling of another being without becoming the other" (p. 22). Lastly, the fourth claim represents a view that

"intersubjectivity is, first, not a product or an effect of communication but a condition for its possibility" (p. 24).

The understanding of intersubjectivity in the present study corresponds to the claims presented by Duranti's four-domain model. Keeping that in mind, the expression 'mutual understanding', with an awareness of its broader meaning, in the upcoming chapters will be occasionally used in lieu of the term 'intersubjectivity'.

2.1.5.2 Origins of intersubjectivity

Theories of intersubjectivity attempt to answer the central question related to its genesis: How does intersubjectivity develop? How do first- and third-person beliefs and perspectives interact? The already-mentioned Husserl (1931) in his *Theory of apperception* describes how one shares in someone else's perspective through analogy with one's own experience (*Wechselverständigung*). However, this approach does not, according to Schutz (1970), take into account possible differences in the perception of these experiences. *Concurrent activation theory* (Barresi & Moore, 2008) depicts the development of intersubjectivity either in the context of the imitation of behaviors or in a situation where two or more agents join in their attention to the same object. First- and third-person perspectives can also become more coordinated by using a common stimulus, such as an object, abstract or material, associated with a certain undisputed shared reaction (Heyes, 2005). *Position exchange theory* (Gillespie, 2012) incorporates and expands on *Concurrent activation theory*. The concept of position exchange underscores the existence of distinct yet complementary social positions that one can assume while functioning in society. For example, the act of smiling complements the act of being smiled at, or the act of talking corresponds to the complementary position of listening. Social positions carry with them not only perceptions of the other, but also expectations of the reactions and behaviors of others.

When participants exchange and switch positions, their divergent perspectives become integrated, which – in turn - leads to intersubjectivity. *Position exchange theory*, as one of the theories related to intersubjectivity, therefore brings together both the mental and social act of integration.

The interactive and diverse yet also common-goal-sharing environment of the classroom provides a unique setting for research into intersubjectivity. With the backdrop of social and, specifically, intersubjectivity-related theories, this study aims to look at the interaction of individual subjectivities, the genesis of intersubjectivity, and its manifestations in the learning context of the classroom.

2.1.6 *Personality theory*

Personality (from the original Latin word *persona*, meaning 'mask') has been at the center of the study of human psychology for more than 150 years. The various aspects of personality research which have been the focus of such eminent psychologists such as Freud (1856 – 1939), Rorschach (1884 – 1922), and Allport (1897 – 1967), continue to form a critical part of human psychology to this day.

Allport (1961) with his definition of personality as "a dynamic organization, inside the person, of psychophysical systems that create the person's characteristic patterns of behavior, thoughts and feelings" (p. 48), positioned the concept entirely inside the individual. Contrary to Allport's view, Sullivan (1953) described personality as "interpersonal processes occurring in the interpersonal situations" (p. 20), seeing it as primarily outside the individual. In this dissertation, the perspective on the personality follows that of Mayer (1995) who recognized that personality possesses both internal and external dimensions.

Due to the broad and diverse conceptualization of personality by numerous branches of psychology (e.g., behavioral, cognitive, developmental, cross-cultural, and others), the field features an abundance of personality paradigms. For the sake of brevity, I will limit my comments to taxonomies considered dominant in the past and present SLA research on personality, namely, the *Myers-Briggs Type Indicator* (*MBTI*) and the *Big Five personality model*.

2.1.6.1 Myers-Briggs Type Indicator (*MBTI*)

MBTI measures people's preferences about how they perceive their environment and how they arrive at the decisions they make. It is based on the work of a prominent 20th century psychologist Carl Jung (1921) who theorized that two psychological functions allowed people to experience the world: irrational (*Sensing – Intuition*) and rational (*Thinking – Feeling*). He also distinguished between the focus on the outside (*Extraversion*) and the inside world (*Introversion*). Jung's theory about the three dichotomies was turned into practical use by Briggs who in 1976 added a new dichotomy *Judging – Perceiving* and developed what is now known as *MBTI*. In all, there are four dichotomies specified by the *MBTI*:

1) *Extraversion – Introversion*; *Extraverts* are 'action' oriented and prefer spending time with people while *Introverts* are 'thought' oriented and prefer to spend time alone;
2) *Sensing – Intuition*; Individuals who prefer *Sensing* rely on the five senses and look for facts and details; People guided by *Intuition* prefer wider context and patterns, and consider future possibilities;
3) *Thinking – Feeling*; *Thinkers* follow logic, reason, and rules; Individuals who prefer *Feeling* show empathy and strive to achieve balance and harmony; and

4) *Judging – Perceiving*; *Judging* types prefer planning, closure, and finality; People who have the *Perceiving* preference are spontaneous and flexible.

MBTI requires that a choice be made between each pole of the four dichotomies, yielding sixteen possible personality or character types, each marked by the four initial letters of the attached dimensions. There is no value judgment attached to any of the types; each type can have positive or negative effects in any given environment.

From the late 1970's until the dawn of the 21st century, *MBTI* has been used extensively by hiring professionals, psychologists as well as educators to classify people into personality types. In SLA, *MBTI* has been used predominantly as a measure of learning style (Bailey et al., 2000; Dörnyei, 2005). For studies on the application of *MBTI* in SLA research, please see the Literature Review chapter.

In the last two decades, the popularity of *MBTI* in the United States sharply declined, both in SLA and other fields, by large due to the rise of another personality taxonomy, specifically, the *Big Five model*. Though studies featuring *MBTI* have not completely disappeared, they are conducted mostly by researchers from other countries (Nikoopour & Farsani, 2010; Safdarian, Ghyasi, and Farsani, 2014; Sharp, 2009; and others).

2.1.6.2 The Big Five model

The groundwork for the development of a five-factor personality trait model was carried out with the help of the studies by Thurstone (1934), Allport and Odbert (1936), Cattell (1943), and others who attempted to classify a large number of traits into a reliable and stable construct. It was not until 1963 that Warren Norman authored the five-factor personality model that is being used to this day. Each of the five factors constitutes a continuum with two extremes ('high' and 'low'), and includes:

1) *Extraversion* or *Surgency* (e.g., talkative, open, adventurous, sociable)[2];

2) *Agreeableness* (e.g., good-natured, mild, gentle, cooperative);

3) *Conscientiousness* (e.g., tidy, responsible, scrupulous, persevering);

4) *Emotional Stability* (e.g., poised, calm, composed); and

5) *Culture/Openness* (e.g., artistically sensitive, intellectual, polished) (p.577).

The term 'Big Five', adopted in the 1980's, refers to the broad range of the construct, with each of the factors representing a large number of distinct characteristics of personality (John & Srivastava, 1999). It has been most commonly implemented in a form of a questionnaire as a *Revised NEO-Personality Inventory* (*NEO-PI-R*; Costa & McCrae, 1992).

Since its inception, the five-factor model has received steady support and advocacy in the form of the work of countless researchers of personality (e.g., Goldberg, 1981; McCrae and Costa, 1987; O'Connor & Paunonen, 2007; and many others). In the last two decades, its popularity, represented by the number of publications, has skyrocketed and overshadowed other, formerly influential personality models, including the *MBTI* (John, Naumann, and Soto, 2008).

The *Big Five model* is considered by some researchers 'an evolution' from the *MBTI* (Howard & Howard, 1995). When compared to *MBTI*, the *Big Five* possesses the following distinguishing characteristics: (a) It describes five dimensions of personality vs. *MBTI*'s four; (b) It features normal distribution of scores rather than bimodal distribution and indicates preference by the strength of scores; c) It focuses on individual personality characteristics vs. *MBTI*'s typology; and d) It is based on experience rather than on a personal theory.

The *Big Five model* has also been applied to teaching and learning contexts, including performance (Poropat, 2009), academic outcomes (Noftle & Robins, 2007), and motivation

[2] Adjectives in parentheses are associated with the high scores.

(Komarraju & Karau, 2005). For the survey of relevant studies in SLA, please see the upcoming Literature Review chapter of this dissertation.

The design of the personality model in the present study shows similarities to that of the *Big Five*. It shares its simplicity, relative ease to be captured in a research instrument; and – perhaps most importantly – it focuses not on composite personality types as it is the aim of *MBTI* but rather on psychological traits that matter in face-to-face classroom interactions.

3.0 Literature Review

Examination of literature relevant to this dissertation study revealed a lack of specific research studies that would directly address the circumstances surrounding intersubjectivity as related to student beliefs about their own and their peers' personalities in the context of FL classroom. Therefore, in the present chapter, I will focus on the research themes that informed my study in a broader sense, namely: (a) the social character of a FL classroom; (b) student interactions; (c) student personalities; and (d) student beliefs about their selves and their peers.

3.1 The social character of a FL classroom

For a successful and fulfilling learning experience in a FL classroom, students need to manage not only the academic but also the social aspect of the classroom environment (Chang, 2010; Dörnyei, 2009; Dewaele & MacIntyre, 2014). In research studies, the social character of FL learning has been captured by the concepts of group[3] dynamics and coherence (Chang, 2010; Dörnyei & Murphey, 2003; Hinger, 2006; Reyes, Brackett, Rivers, White, and Salovey, 2012); relatedness (Noels, 2001); and the classroom as a community of practice (CoP) (Ostermann,

[3] 'Group' in the context of classroom dynamics and processes corresponds to the *whole* teacher-led class of students (Schmuck & Schmuck, 1975)

2000), among others. As the core of my research, intersubjectivity, is intrinsically a social element, it intersects with all of the above themes.

My goal in the present review is not to provide a comprehensive account of all of these topics but rather to flesh out those elements of social environment that help situate intersubjectivity in the context of this dissertation study.

3.1.1 Group dynamics and coherence

Group dynamics, defined as "the interrelations between individuals within groups and how these interrelations affect the formation, performance, and dissolution of these groups" (Mercer, Ryan, and Williams, 2012, p. 250), have been suggested to influence the climate of the FL classroom: "The quality of teaching and learning is entirely different depending on whether the classroom is characterized by a climate of trust and support or by a competitive, cutthroat atmosphere" (Dörnyei, 2007, p. 720). Dörnyei's words echo those of Stevick (1980) who addressed the issue of FL group dynamics almost three decades prior: "[learning] success depends less on materials, techniques and linguistic analyses, and more on what goes on inside and between the people in the classroom" (p. 4).

An essential element of group dynamics is cohesiveness. A learner group whose members work well together, share ideas, and have an overall good relationship with each other is considered cohesive (Chang, 2010; Dörnyei & Murphey, 2003). Group cohesiveness was described by Forsyth (2009) as "the strength of the bonds linking individuals to the group, feelings of attraction for specific group members and the group itself, the unity of a group, and the degree to which the group members coordinate their efforts to achieve goals" (p. 14). Strong group cohesiveness is associated with a positive evaluation of the learning environment (Clément, Dörnyei, & Noels, 1994) and more productive learning as a result of members of a

cohesive group feeling more comfortable with their peers (Senior, 1997). Research also indicates that the development of group cohesiveness is based on the intensity of contact among group members (Hinger, 2006) as well as on the time group members spend together (Wheelan, Davidson, and Tilin, 2003).

SLA research offers suggestions about how to support group cohesiveness in FL classrooms. Specifically, Dörnyei and Murphy (2003) stress *acceptance* as a non-evaluative, tolerant, and inclusive feeling towards other individuals. To promote acceptance, the authors find that it is important to encourage students to learn about each other; to have them engage in interaction; to recognize shared group history and the rewarding nature of group activities; to stress cooperation toward common goals; and to use joint hardship and a common threat as bonding opportunities; among others.

3.1.2 Relatedness

The concept of *relatedness* or a sense of belonging and connectedness with others has been predominantly associated with research targeting self-determination orientation in learner motivation. Relatedness is one of the three psychological needs (the other two are represented by *competence* and *autonomy*) that according to Ryan and Deci (2000) are fundamental to human capacity of general well-being. The support of these needs by the people in a learner's social world has a great impact on the development and sustainability of the learner's intrinsic as well as extrinsic motivation (Deci & Ryan, 1985), which, in turn, influences several aspects of learning. Specifically, motivation research has associated relatedness with classroom engagement and performance (Furrer & Skinner, 2003), and with a positive attitude towards others (Zins, 2004).

In SLA, relatedness has been investigated in connection with social aspects of motivation. Noels in her study of German learners addressed two motivational substrates, interpersonal and intergroup, and explored how they predict L2 learner effort, engagement, persistence, and willingness to use L2. She also examined how the need of relatedness, among other needs, fostered motivation in both heritage and non-heritage German language learners (Noels, 2005). In a study by Kreishan and Al-Dhaimat (2013), Jordanian students of English, French, and German were found to achieve relatedness because they studied the L2 by choice rather than as a requirement and showed desire to belong to the large L2 communities. In a study of Japanese learners of English, Carreira (2012) revealed that relatedness along with the other psychological needs (competence and autonomy), is positively linked to intrinsic motivation. The author also recommended that nurturing the psychological needs would cultivate cohesiveness in the language classroom.

It is my belief that the first step towards the development of relatedness and the 'we' feeling of a classroom community is mutual understanding. Exploring the circumstances of its establishment between the students of a FL class complements the existing SLA research on group dynamics and relatedness in that it provides a glimpse into the very beginnings of a group formation.

3.1.3 FL classroom community of practice

Communities of practice (CoPs) refer to "groups of people who share a concern or a passion for something they do and learn how to do it better as they interact regularly" (Wenger, 2011, p. 1). According to Wenger (2000, 2011), membership in a CoP implies: (a) a shared competence that distinguishes members from non-members; (b) a mutual engagement through interaction; and (c) a possession of a shared repertoire of communal resources (e.g., language, routines, artefacts,

etc). From the CoP perspective, learning is perceived as a situated activity and as "an integral and inseparable aspect of social practice" (Lave & Wenger, 1991, p. 31). Lave and Wenger also introduced the concept of 'legitimate peripheral participation', which

> provides a way to speak about the relations between newcomers and old-timers, and about activities, identities, artefacts, and communities of knowledge and practice. A person's intentions to learn are engaged and the meaning of learning is configured through the process of becoming a full participant in a socio-cultural practice (Lave & Wenger, 1991, p. 29).

In this sense, learning is viewed as "itself an evolving form of membership" with individuals developing different identities of mastery based on their participation and roles in the CoP (ibid.: p. 53).

In a FL class, students possess diverse learning and life goals and follow different social objectives. Consequently, FL learners can and do belong to multiple communities; ranging from the classroom community of their peers and teacher to the community of all FL learners at a given institution to the broader community of native and non-native speakers of a given language in both face-to-face and virtual environments. The usefulness of the CoP perspective to FL learning has been reported by Haneda (1997) in her study of college learners of Japanese. Haneda's study, building on Lave and Wenger's legitimate peripheral participation concept, highlighted the role of the class expert, namely the teacher, and more capable peers in enabling students to learn. In another study, Morita (2004) addressed how students from Japan negotiated their identities in an English-speaking CoP environment. She described the co-construction of her participants' identities by peers and teachers and pointed out the possibility of more powerful members of the class community imposing an unwanted identity on learners. The development

of relationships among the members of classroom community was the theme of a study by Taylor (2014). Specifically, Taylor investigated the role of the L1 in a class of Thai learners of ESP (English for Specific Purposes). His findings indicated that small talk and joking aided student bonding, knowledge sharing, and sustained participation in the classroom CoP. In another study, Leki (2001) focused on the development of academic and social relationships among native and non-native English language speakers. She found that non-native speakers, in this case Asian, were not able to manage social interactions to their advantage and struggled to hold their own. Despite feeling entitled to full participation in the class CoP, the non-native English speakers were often marginalized by their native-speaker peers. To gain access to the CoP, non-native learners needed to assume subordinate roles, which limited their contribution and added to an overall disappointing learning experience.

In the context of the present study, my interest in the framework of the CoP lies in its potential to afford a view of how students orient to each other and share in building common experiences. In addition, the recognition that one's participatory role in a group is co-constructed in interaction with other group members (Firth & Wagner, 2007; Lave & Wenger, 1991) is relevant to my current exploration.

3.2 SLA research on student interaction

In a FL class, interaction among the members of its community is a common occurrence. It fosters engagement with both the academic and the social aspects of the FL learning environment.

In the following section, I will briefly describe interaction and its relationship to learning in whole class and in small group work. Learner agency and patterns of interaction will also be discussed.

3.2.1 Interaction and learning

As observed by Seedhouse (2004), in the FL class, "language functions as both the vehicle and object of instruction" (p. 237). The interdependence of language teaching and learning was also pointed out by Hall (2010) in her description of L2 class environment: "The substance of learners' language knowledge is linked to, indeed arises from, learners' extended involvement in the regularly occurring interactional practices constituting their specific contexts of learning" (p. 202). At the center of these practices is interaction, with teachers establishing its frame, and with learners, who use the interaction to learn. Several prominent SLA researchers and theorists have been instrumental in laying the foundations of current thinking, namely Stephen Krashen (1982, *Input Hypothesis*); Merrill Swain (1985, *Output Hypothesis*), and Michael Long (1983, *Interaction Hypothesis*). On the one hand, Krashen's *Input Hypothesis* postulates that learners' progress in their knowledge of the language is based on great quantities of comprehensible input that is slightly more advanced than the current level of the learner. On the other hand, Swain argues in the *Output Hypothesis* that learners cannot reach language competence from input processing alone, and places importance on learner's spoken production. The emphasis of Long's *Interaction Hypothesis* lies on the negotiation for meaning through input and interaction with interlocutors.

In the years following Krashen's, Swain's, and Long's models, interaction research focused on the integration of various approaches. As Gass (2003) puts it, "[...] interaction research takes as its starting point the assumption that language learning is stimulated by communicative pressure and examines the relationship between communication and acquisition and the mechanisms (e.g., noticing, attention) that mediate between them" (p. 224). According to Gass and Mackey (2007), the resulting interaction approach, "attempts to account for learning

through the learner's exposure to language, production of language, and feedback on that production" (p. 181).

3.2.2 Interaction across classroom settings

Opportunities for involvement in interaction vary within the same class, depending on the activities that are offered to the learners. A number of researchers have pointed out differences between how a whole class as compared to a small group setting facilitates teacher-learner as well as learner-learner interaction (Hall, 2010; Markee, 2005; Seedhouse, 2005; and others).

A common type of interaction in a class is *triadic dialogue*, also referred to as the *IRF*/*IRE* sequence, *Initiation – Response – Feedback/Evaluation* (Hall, 2010; Schegloff, 2007; Sinclair & Coulthard, 1975; and others). A typical structure of talk during teacher-led instruction corresponds with the format of the turn *Initiation* by the teacher, followed by the *Response* of the learner, and the closing with *Feedback* or *Evaluation* provided by the teacher. In this type of instruction it is also possible for students to initiate a sequence of turns and ask the teacher a question, who then is to provide the answer (with the *IR* being reversed from teacher/student to student/teacher). Students, however, are not to comment on the quality of the teacher's answer, i.e., the *F/E* turn is not to be realized by a student. In contrast, in peer work, learners own all three types of turns and are considered equal partners with equal talk management opportunities.

Either type of interaction, be it triadic dialogue in whole class or peer work, affords the learner different possibilities of engagement. However, whether this potential will be fully realized hinges on the learners themselves, and on the way they attend to their agency.

3.2.3 Interaction and learner agency

Learner agency underscores both learner autonomy, which points to the ability and willingness of individuals to make and carry out the choices that govern their actions (Littlewood, 1996), and

to the interaction between the learners and their environments. Lantolf and Pavlenko (2001) describe learners as active agents who "engage in constructing the terms and conditions of their own learning" (p. 145). In the words of Duff (2012), "learners are not simply passive or complicit participants in language learning and use, but can also make informed choices, exert influence, resist (e.g., remain silent, quit courses), or comply, although their social circumstances may constrain their choices." (p. 416). Put differently, learners do not just react to various stimuli of the teacher, but rather show independence and self-direction, and are willing to take risks.

Student agency rests on the choices and decisions of each individual student. As a result, it is the students who decide on the extent of their class participation. In the already-mentioned study of L2 learners by Morita (2004), Rie, an international college student from Japan at a North-American university, felt marginalized and defined as deficient by the instructor and other students whose L1 was English. Rie's reaction to the unsupportive class environment was her conscious decision to limit her participation as a means of "coping and exercising her personal agency" (p. 594). Demonstration of student agency can take on a form of a direct challenge followed by a submission to the rules of classroom interaction and the teaching methods, as reported in a study by Lantolf and Genung (2002). PG, one of the study's co-authors and a multilingual Ph.D. student fluent in several European languages, was highly motivated to succeed in her intensive Chinese class. PG's previous experience with learning other languages directly conflicted with the norms of the Chinese course, in which the main teaching method consisted of drills and repetitions. PG repeatedly and openly voiced her concerns to the drill instructors and the program director but without success. She decided to accept her circumstance and went on to obtain course credit. She believed, however, that her agency was constrained and

although she emerged from the experience as a successful student, she felt she had been unsuccessful as a language learner.

Learner agency can also bring about a different face of interaction, the one that reflects the 'less legitimate moments' of classroom learning (Waring, 2012), namely off-task interaction (interaction not related to task), including humor. Markee (2005) in a study of pairs of ESL learners noted that "off-task interaction may be closer to learner's real-life interactional needs than on-task interaction" (p. 212). Humor, as reported in a study by Waring (2012) and Pomerantz and Bell (2007), was found to facilitate language learning and to expand students' sociolinguistic competence.

Learner agency and its relationship to the learning environment were explored by Muramatsu (2013). In her study, four adult learners of Japanese demonstrated strong engagement in the interaction practices of a summer language program, which resulted in a very productive learning community. Muramatsu believes that what made the learning experience successful were not just the academic and social affordances provided by the program and learning community but also the agency of each individual learner in making use of these affordances.

3.2.4 Interaction and social dynamics

Seedhouse (2010) claims that "the social dynamics of the classroom can radically alter the focus of the interaction" (p. 223). To demonstrate, in Seedhouse (1996), two groups of Norwegian learners of English differed in how they went about completing the same task assigned by the teacher. The learners in the first group repeatedly expressed disagreement with each other, interrupted each other, and openly competed for the lead in the discourse. In this group, the group dynamics became themselves the focus of the interaction. In the second group, some learners diverted from the teacher's pedagogical focus and tried to promote their own agenda. To

gain more insight into the inner functioning of the groups, the ensuing subsection takes a closer look at the patterns of interaction.

3.2.4.1 Patterns of interaction

In SLA, patterns of interaction have been studied primarily in the context of small group work. They can be defined positively as patterns that promote learning and negatively as patterns that impede learning.

3.2.4.1.1 Patterns that promote learning

Research indicates that learners may be more successful when they pool their knowledge and engage in collective scaffolding. Lockhard and Ng (1995) and de Guerrero and Villamil (1994) suggested that some interaction patterns promote learning more than others. Storch (2002) developed a four-pattern pair interaction model based on quadrants delineated by two intersecting axes: one representing 'equality', i.e., the degree of control over the direction of a task; and the other indicating 'mutuality', i.e., the level of engagement with each other's contribution, including sharing of ideas and reciprocal feedback. The four patterns were named (1) *collaborative*, exhibiting high equality and high mutuality; (b) *dominant*/*dominant*, showing high equality and low mutuality; (3) *dominant*/*passive*, with low equality and low mutuality; and (4) *expert*/*novice*, displaying low equality and high mutuality. Storch showed that the *collaborative* and the *expert*/*novice* patterns of interaction best accommodate peer scaffolding. In non-collaborative (*dominant*/*dominant*, *dominant*/*passive*) pairs, there were fewer instances of a transfer of knowledge and a lack of engagement in language tasks. Watanabe and Swain (2007) and Storch and Aldosari (2012) confirmed Storch's results when they examined patterns of interaction among learners with different proficiencies. In their studies, too, patterns of interaction and the kind of relationship students formed rather than differences in learner

proficiency, influenced the quality of learning process (as determined by the frequency of language-related episodes), as well as the outcome of the tasks.

3.2.4.1.2 Patterns that have negative influence on learning

In the three studies that follow, authors identified patterns of interaction that negatively influenced learning. In the first study, DiNitto (2000) examined group work of Japanese learners of English. Her findings indicated that interactions among learners resembled the teacher-fronted classroom that students had previously experienced. The dominant behavior of one student who assumed a teacher-like expert role limited the collaborative potential of the group. In the second study, Morris and Tarone (2003) observed three dyads of Spanish learners. The success of their group work was diminished by interpersonal conflicts that arose during the interaction among the peers. The authors showed that negative feelings about partners caused misinterpretations of feedback provided by these partners, which, in turn, appeared to have a negative effect on learning. The third study, authored by Toussaint-Clark (2007), added another category of pair interaction to Storch's four types, namely, 'parallel work'. Parallel work describes a relationship in which "the participants work side-by-side with some interaction while they work individually" (p. 57). Toussant-Clark reported on an interaction between two members of a dyad, in which one member attempted to work collaboratively with the other but his efforts were ignored. Both dyad members ended up tending to the task on their own and only visually checked each other's work. Parallel work had a negative influence on this dyad's learning process, rendering the activity ineffective and for one member of the dyad somewhat frustrating.

The aspects surrounding learner interaction that have been touched on in this review, namely instructional setting, learner agency, and the dynamics of interaction, offer but a glimpse at its

complex nature. No less intricate is the nature of another element essential to the present investigation about the genesis of intersubjectivity; the element of interactants' personalities.

3.3 SLA research on student personality

Personality has been explored as a part of research into individual differences (IDs), as have language aptitude, motivation, learning/cognitive styles, and learning strategies (Dörnyei, 2006). In language learning, ID variables are all considered critical (Winke, 2007) but, as expressed by Dörnyei (2006), they have not all been paid equal attention in research:

> Personality is the most individual characteristic of a human being and therefore it may be surprising that from an educational perspective personality factors appear to play a far less important role than some other ID variables such as aptitude and motivation (p. 43).

Indeed, research dedicated to learner personality is relatively scarce when compared to that dealing with other IDs. Nevertheless, I will be able to discuss the state of the art from three different perspectives: First, the role of personality research in SLA generally; then, SLA research with a particular focus on personality as conceptualized in the *Myers-Briggs Type Indicator* (Ehrman, 1990; Moody, 1988; Nikoopour & Farsani, 2010); and, finally, SLA research that responds to the personality construct of the *Big Five* (Apple, 2011; Ożańska-Ponikwia, 2012; Ramírez-Esparza, Gosling, Benet-Martínez, Potter, & Pennebaker, 2006; Verhoeven & Vermeer, 2002).

The main objective of personality research is to find out how personality influences people's actions and behaviors. In SLA, this goal is reflected in the inquiry into the impact of learner personality on the learning process. In addition, and not explored further here, SLA research has applied individual personality variables, such as self-esteem (Soureshjani & Naseri,

2011), risk-taking (Ely, 1986), trait anxiety (Horwitz, 2001), and tolerance of ambiguity (Dewaele & Wei, 2013).

Generally speaking, results with regard to the strength of the relationship between personality variables and learning have been mixed. Some studies have shown a strong connection (Conard, 2006; Farsides & Woodfield, 2003); whereas others have indicated that the link between personality and learning is weak (Dewaele, 2012; Verhoeven & Vermeer, 2002). This inconsistency in outcomes is believed to flow from "the wide variation in the research methodologies applied in terms of learning targets, achievement measures, types of treatment, etc. across studies" (Dörnyei, 2005, p. 29) as well as from "the difficulty of disentangling the independent variable from instructional and situational variables" (Dewaele, 2012, p. 42).

In the following sections, I will review personality research in SLA that bears importance to the present investigation, namely, the investigation of personality by means of the *MBTI* and the *Big Five* personality models, respectively.

3.3.1 *MBTI* in SLA personality research

Up until two decades ago, the *MBTI*, which uses four personality dichotomies (*Extraversion – Introversion*, *Thinking – Feeling*, *Judgement – Perception*, and *Intuition – Sensing*), has been used extensively in the field of SLA, mainly with the purpose of describing student personality type and learning style (Moody, 1988; Ehrman & Oxford, 1990). For a detailed description of the model, please see the Theoretical Background chapter of the dissertation (Section 2.1.6.1).

Moody (1988) administered the *MBTI* to 491 college learners of French, German, and Spanish to investigate their personality type. Almost sixty percent of language students were found to strongly favor *Intuition* over *Sensing*. These students appeared to find abstract words and symbols attractive but they also preferred to find their own way when applying rules.

Language students were found to divide evenly between the two poles of each of the remaining three components, *Extraversion – Introversion*; *Thinking – Feeling*; and *Judgement – Perception*.

A study by Ehrman and Oxford (1990) looked at learning strategies that were preferred by students in an intensive language program. Students who were *Sensors* used flash cards, engaged in drills, and liked highly structured classes. Conversely, students who were *Intuitors* preferred a variety of teaching approaches and were bored with drills.

Most of the SLA studies that featured the *MBTI* in their design focused on the *Extraversion – Introversion* dichotomy. Dewaele and Furnham (1999) reported that *Extraverts* were more fluent than *Introverts* in both L1 and L2, especially in formal or stressful environments. *Introverts* hesitated more often and produced shorter utterances. Language learning, however, also contains processes and tasks that are more suitable for *Introverts*, for example, writing (Skehan, 1989). Correspondingly, based on the specific task or process used, both *Introversion* and *Extraversion* could bring positive value to language learning.

As mentioned in the Theoretical Background chapter, SLA research using *MBTI*, albeit on the decline in the United States, is still pursued by researchers in other countries. Examples of three such studies follow.

The first study, conducted by Sharp (2009), examined the relationship between personality and language proficiency. One hundred Chinese learners of English at a university in Hong Kong completed the *MBTI* for personality traits and also took a standardized language proficiency test. No link between personality and language proficiency was found. The author ascribed the study's findings to difficulties with the conceptual separation of the study's many variables in analyses.

In the second study, Nikoopour and Farsani (2010) investigated the relationship between the personality types of Iranian EFL learners and their learning strategies. The authors found that, contrary to expectations, neither *Extraverts* nor *Introverts* preferred either social or cognitive strategies. Both *Sensors* and *Intuitors* favored affective strategies; *Thinkers* used more memory and social strategies; and *Judging* and *Perceiving* types both preferred cognitive strategies.

In the third and most recent study, Safdarian, Ghyasi, and Farsani (2014) aimed at the connection between personality types and three types of reading strategies, which included cognitive, metacognitive, and support strategies. The authors noted that in a group of 194 Iranian EFL learners only the *Introverts* were found to use each of the three types of reading strategies.

The studies mentioned above used the *MBTI* to investigate the relationship between personality type and various aspects of FL learning. Research described below applied a different personality model, the *Big Five*, to examine the same relationship.

3.3.2 The *Big Five model* in SLA personality research

As the name implies, the *Big Five model* (Costa & McCrae, 1992; Norman, 1963) consists of five dimensions or personal qualities, namely *Extraversion*, *Agreeableness*, *Conscientiousness*, *Emotional Stability*, and *Openness*. Please refer to the Theoretical Background chapter for a more detailed description of the model (Section 2.1.6.2).

A handful of studies to-date have applied the *Big Five* dimensions to research in SLA. Verhoeven and Vermeer (2002) in a study of first- and second language learners of Dutch examined the relationship between the five personality dimensions and communicative competence, which was operationalized in terms of three constituents: organizational competence (e.g., grammar, vocabulary); strategic competence (e.g., communicative behavior);

and pragmatic competence (e.g., sociocultural routines). Authors found that only *Openness* correlated with each of the three types of communicative competence. *Conscientiousness* was linked with organizational competence, and *Extraversion* was associated with strategic competence.

A study by Apple (2011) of Japanese students learning English examined relationships between the *Big Five* personality dimensions and FL speaking confidence. The findings showed that only one personality dimension, specifically *Emotional Stability,* predicted FL speaking confidence. In other words, students who were *Emotionally Stable* demonstrated lower levels of FL speaking anxiety than students who lacked *Emotional Stability*.

Personality traits have also been examined in studies involving bilingual individuals. For example, Ożańska-Ponikwia (2012) explored whether the five personality dimensions were related to Polish L1 speakers 'feeling different' when they used a foreign language, English. She ascertained that participants' scores on three of the personality dimensions, namely *Extraversion, Agreeableness,* and *Openness,* predicted the self-reported feeling of difference in participants' behavior and body language. In the same vein, Ramírez-Esparza et al. (2006) investigated whether bilinguals showed different personalities when they used different languages. Participants in the study were Spanish-English bilinguals, including one group of immigrants from Mexico living in the United States and a group of Mexican residents who learned English in the United States. All participants were asked to complete the same personality questionnaire twice; once in Spanish and the other time in English. The authors found that both groups of bilinguals were more *Extraverted, Agreeable,* and *Conscientious* in English than in Spanish. The findings suggest that using a different language can prompt shifts in personality.

3.4 SLA research on student beliefs

Student beliefs have been of interest to SLA research since the mid 1980's. The examination of these beliefs provides a window into the social, affective, and cognitive nature of language learning (Barcelos & Kalaja, 2011; Ellis, 2008; Imai, 2010; Yoshida, 2013; and others).

To situate the exploration of student beliefs within the present study, I will provide a brief overview of theoretical approaches to study of student beliefs, followed by a review of SLA research as it relates to, respectively, (a) student beliefs about learning; (b) student beliefs about their selves; (c) student beliefs about their peers; and (d) *intersubjectivity*.

3.4.1 Theoretical approaches to SLA research on student beliefs

At least four different approaches to the study of learner beliefs have been theorized: (a) According to Horwitz (1988), the *normative approach* takes beliefs to be synonymous with misconceptions. It focuses on the description and classification of student beliefs and in doing so makes assumptions about how beliefs influence behaviors without actually observing student actions; (b) the *metacognitive approach* considers beliefs as information that learners have about their learning, and views beliefs as theories that are manifested in students' autonomous behavior (Wenden, 1999); c) the *contextual approach* sees learner beliefs "as part of students' experiences and interrelated with their environment" (Barcelos, 2006, p. 21) and as "dynamic, socially constructed, situated, paradoxical, and related to action" (Aragão, 2011, p. 304); and, finally, (d) the *sociocultural approach* explores beliefs as "contextually situated social meaning emerging in specific sense-making activities" (Negueruela-Azarola, 2011, p. 368). The s*ociocultural approach* goes beyond describing beliefs and also considers "*how* beliefs develop, fluctuate and interact with actions, emotions, identities or affordances and how they are constructed within the micro- and macro-political contexts of learning and teaching languages"

(Barcelos & Kalaja, 2011, p. 282). This is the approach to which the present study is most indebted. Within the *sociocultural approach*, beliefs are investigated in the context of change and action (Yang & Kim, 2011). The next subsections will describe these two areas of inquiry in more detail.

3.4.1.1 Beliefs and change

Rokeach (1968), a prominent social psychologist, suggested that the susceptibility of beliefs to change is based on their *centrality*. He defined centrality as "connectedness: the more a given belief is functionally connected or in communication with other beliefs, the more implications and consequences it has for other beliefs, and, therefore, the more central the belief" (p. 5). Based on this definition, beliefs that relate to one's own experiences and identity as well as beliefs that one shares with others are considered to be central and difficult to change. In contrast, beliefs that are learned from others are viewed as less central.

Within a *sociocultural approach* changes in beliefs need to be appreciated as nuanced and complex (Barcelos & Kalaja, 2011; Mercer, 2011). Among factors that influence beliefs are previous experiences (Barcelos, 2003); emotions and reflection (Aragão, 2011); and learning context (Navarro & Thornton, 2011; Peng, 2011). Three empirical studies demonstrate how the concept of *change* in beliefs can be applied in research.

Aragão (2011) studied three Brazilian learners of English. Initially, these learners referred to themselves as shy and afraid to speak. Further, they believed that they were inferior L2 speakers when compared to their peers. Opportunities for these students to reflect on their experiences in the class over time had a mixed influence on their emotions and beliefs. Two students maintained the same beliefs; however, the third student started to see herself as standing

up, smiling, and more self-assured. Her beliefs about herself had been transformed, credit being given to the changed relationship with the teacher and to improvements to her learning process.

Another example of how a *change* in beliefs can be studied comes from a longitudinal study of two Japanese learners of English conducted by Navarro and Thornton (2011). A course run by two advisers combined classroom-based instruction with self-directed learning, in which learners engaged in written and verbal interaction with the advisers. As a result of these interactions, learners reinterpreted their own actions and developed beliefs that mediated new learning behaviors.

Finally, Peng (2011) showed how learners' beliefs, specifically, beliefs about learning, changed over time based on classroom affordances. The author conducted a seven-month-long qualitative study of one Chinese learner of English, Weitao, who as a medical student was also enrolled in an 18-hour-per-week intensive English learning program. The program consisted of a combination of communicative classes that focused on peer interaction, and medical content-based classes that were teacher-fronted. Initially, Weitao felt he learned more in communicative than in teacher-fronted classes. Several months later, he endorsed only teacher-fronted classes. Towards the end of the observation, he became bored in the teacher-fronted classes, and, again, expressed preference for communicative classes. In sum, Weitao's beliefs about learning changed over the course of the observation, and the findings support the notion that student beliefs are "fluid, contextual and emerging" (p. 322).

3.4.1.2 Beliefs and action

An important aspect of understanding changes in beliefs is the relationship between beliefs and actions (Barcelos & Kalaja, 2011). Traditionally, this relationship has been described as: (a) the *cause-and-effect* type with beliefs thought to influence actions; (b) *interactive*, in which case

beliefs can influence actions and actions can influence beliefs; or (c) *dissonant*, i.e., beliefs and actions lack congruence (Barcelos, 2006).

The more recently developed *sociocultural approach* to the study of beliefs and actions views beliefs as *mediators* of learners' actions (Navarro & Thornton, 2011). A key role in this process is ascribed to learner agency (Yang & Kim, 2011). Yang and Kim studied two Korean learners of English in a study abroad context. They recorded how the beliefs of the learners depended on their learning goals and their ability to actively pursue them. Before their study abroad, learners had indicated in the interviews that the quantity of their interactions with native speakers and the feedback they would receive from native speakers would enhance their communicative competence. However, during the actual study abroad, only one of the students followed through on her goals with frequent engagement in various L2 communities; the other student spent more time with his Korean friends, which resulted in a growing gap between his beliefs and learning goals. The study demonstrated that the relationship between beliefs and actions is complex, dynamic, mediated by affordances, and influenced by the social context (Barcelos & Kalaja, 2011, p. 286).

3.4.2 Student beliefs about learning

SLA research has examined beliefs of students about the cognitive (e.g., Loewen et al., 2009), social (e.g., Sato, 2013), and affective (e.g., Dewaele & Macintyre, 2014) dimensions of their learning experience.

Out of the three learning dimensions, the cognitive dimension of student learning has received most of the attention. Student beliefs that relate to the cognitive dimension of learning include student beliefs about the feedback they receive from their teacher (Agudo, 2012) and from their peers (Yoshida, 2008); about the usefulness of tasks and classroom activities (Wang,

Spencer, & Xing, 2009); and about grammar instruction (Incecay & Dollar, 2011; Loewen et al., 2009). In some instances, researchers drew further distinction by grouping students according to their gender (Bernat & Lloyd, 2007), ethnicity (Siebert, 2003), or other criteria.

Research on student beliefs about the social aspects of learning, while limited, has addressed learners' perceptions of their interactions with peers (Sato, 2013); research on student beliefs about the affective dimension of learning has focused mainly on learner anxiety (Dewaele & Macintyre, 2014), empathy (Lefkowitz and Hedgecock, 2006), and enjoyment (Philp, Walter, & Basturkmen, 2010).

3.4.3 Student beliefs about their selves

The present examination of student beliefs about their selves is situated against the background of the self-evaluation research as conducted in social psychology. Following a brief introduction of self-evaluation, I will discuss relevant SLA research as it pertains to beliefs about the self, conceptualized in two concepts, namely self-efficacy and motivation.

3.4.3.1 Self-evaluation research in social psychology

According to research conducted in social psychology, "people generally evaluate their own attributes and abilities more favorably than those of an average peer" (Zell & Alicke, 2011). Literature has termed this effect variously as *self-enhancement* (Brown & Kobayashi, 2002), *comparative bias* (Endo, 2007), *better-than-average effect* (Alicke, Klotz, Breitenbecher, Yurak, & Vredenburg, 1995), or *Lake Woebegone effect* (Gilovich, 1991). For example, a study by Markus and Kitayama (1991) found that American students, when asked to compare their intellectual ability, personality traits, and athletic ability to those of their peers, on average expressed the belief that they were better than 70 percent of their peers (i.e., a 20 percent favorable bias). Similarly, Swenson, Schneller, and Henderson (2014) reported a *better-than-*

average effect when undergraduate psychology majors compared both their positive and negative interpersonal behaviors to those of their peers. Despite results such as these, the *self-enhancement* effect is thought not to apply to all self-evaluations. Thomsen, Sidanius, and Fiske (2007) suggested that people's *self-enhancement* "varies with the type of relationship that people are enacting" (p. 449). Specifically, individuals tend to be more modest with friends and specific people and more likely to engage in *self-enhancement* when they compare themselves to someone they do not know. In addition, researchers, including Moore and Small (2007) and Zell and Alicke (2011) have proposed that people consider themselves to be better than others when they feel more in control of the outcome of the task and when they perceive the task to be easy. In contrast, people tend to believe that they are below average on tasks that they perceive to be difficult.

3.4.3.2 Self-efficacy beliefs

Self-efficacy studies in SLA examine the relationship of self-efficacy to performance (Mills, Pajares, and Herron, 2007), anxiety (Mills, Pajares, and Herron, 2006), and attributions (Hsie & Schallert, 2008). Students who have a strong sense of academic self-efficacy "willingly undertake challenging tasks, expend greater effort, show increased persistence in the presence of obstacles, demonstrate lower anxiety levels, display flexibility in the use of learning strategies, ..., and self-regulate better than other students" (Mills et al., 2007, pp. 417-418). In a study of college students of French, Mills et al. (2007) found that student self-efficacy for using appropriate learning strategies was a strong predictor of academic success. In the same vein, self-efficacy positively correlated with academic achievement in the studies of South-Korean learners of English (Hsieh & Schallert, 2008) and Iranian learners of English (Rahimi & Abedini, 2009).

The relationship between self-efficacy and anxiety was explored in another study of students of French by Mills et al. (2006). Students who demonstrated lower reading self-efficacy were found to have higher reading anxiety. Similarly, lower writing self-efficacy of Turkish learners of English in a study by Erkan and Saban (2011) correlated with higher writing anxiety.

Self-efficacy beliefs also influence students' attributions of their academic failures and successes. In Hsie and Schallerts' (2008) study of undergraduate learners of German, French, and Spanish, students with higher self-efficacy attributed their failure to lack of effort in contrast to students with low self-efficacy who did not see their lack of effort as the reason for their weak performance.

The social environment of a foreign language classroom provides students with the sources that aid the formation of self-efficacy beliefs. The present dissertation study will examine these sources with particular reference to the dynamic nature in which self-efficacy is both shaped by and expresses itself in the context of peer interaction. The juxtaposition of self-efficacy with the efficacy of the peers will elucidate the connection between the self and others in terms of thought and action.

3.4.3.3 The motivational conceptualization of self

Most recently, SLA research has explored personal agency beliefs through *L2 Motivational Self System theory* as proposed by Zoltan Dörnyei (2005), who submits that the driving force of language learning is anchored in students' images of their future selves. Dörnyei's model, which has been inspired by a similar model authored by Markus and Nurius (1986) about the 'possible selves', consists of three elements: (1) *Ideal L2 Self,* which represents the L2 learner one would like to become, and is a strong motivator "to learn the L2 because of the desire to reduce the discrepancy between our actual and ideal selves" (Dörnyei, 2005, p. 29); (2) *Ought-to-L2 Self,*

which "concerns the attributes that one believes one *ought* to possess to meet expectations and to *avoid* possible negative outcomes" (ibid.: p. 29); and (3) *L2 Learning Experience*, which comprises situated elements of the immediate learning environment, including the teacher, the peer group, and the classroom experiences.

Although the present study's research design does not build directly on Dörnyei's model, the outlook of the study has been influenced by its fundamental concepts of *Ideal L2 Self, Ought-to-L2 self,* and *L2 Learning Experience.* The present study adopts as a central tenet that what one imagines or wishes, combined with what one feels one ought to do based on the learning situation and experience, is critical to the understanding of the complexity of belief formation.

3.4.4 Student beliefs about class peers

So far, student beliefs about class peers have received only limited attention in SLA research and have been examined mainly in the context of small group work. In advance of a brief overview of relevant empirical SLA studies about student beliefs about their peers, I would like to discuss two types of beliefs, constructs from the broader social sciences, that are pertinent to these SLA studies as well as to my own, specifically, (a) first impressions in the genesis of beliefs about others (e.g., Hamilton & Huffman, 1971); and (b) beliefs about ideals (e.g., Harkness et al, 2007).

3.4.4.1 First impressions

A first impression, as defined by Hamilton and Huffman (1971), is "a conglomerate of tentative judgments about another person" (p. 200). When people first meet another person, they gain a sense of whether they 'like' that person very quickly and their evaluative judgment is automatic, based predominantly on the person's appearance (Zebrowitz & Montepare, 2015). Research suggests that people can draw trait inferences with minimal information from faces within less

than a second of exposure (Willis & Todorov, 2006). In their study of American undergraduate students, Willis and Todorov conducted five experiments; each experiment focused on a different judgment of facial appearance: *attractiveness*, *likeability*, *competence*, *trustworthiness*, and *aggressiveness*. Results showed that judgments made after 100 miliseconds (ms) of exposure were not significantly different from judgments made without time constraints. With increased exposure, judgments were only made with greater confidence. Of all five traits, the trait *trustworthiness* showed the highest correlation between judgment after 100 ms and judgment made in the absence of time constraints.

Goodwin, Piazza, and Rozin (2014), in a series of studies of American adults, examined traits that mattered to people most when they were forming their first impression of other persons. The authors concluded that it was the traits associated with moral character (e.g., *trustworthiness*, *honesty*, *sincerity*) that proved to be most important in determining overall first impressions of others.

The accuracy of first impressions was a target of the study of American undergraduate students conducted by Carney, Colvin, and Hall (2007). Participants included students who were observed and student-judges who conducted the observations. First, the observed participants rated themselves on each of the *Big Five* personality dimensions. Then they engaged in a five-minute-long interaction with an unfamiliar person. The video of the interaction was observed by the judges, who rated each of the observed participants on each of the *Big Five* personality dimensions at several time points during the interaction. The accuracy of the first impression was defined as the correlation between the observed participants' self-rating of the personality dimension and the judges' ratings of the same. Overall, accuracy increased with exposure time and depended on a type of judgment being made. Judgments on *Extraversion* and

Conscientiousness were found moderately accurate after 5 second-long exposure; judgments on *Agreeableness*, *Openness*, and *Stability* needed longer exposure (up to 5 minutes) to reach the same level of accuracy.

Sunnafrank and Ramirez (2004) explored the relationship between first impressions and later beliefs in a study of students enrolled in a communications course. The authors compared students' perceptions of their peers from the first day of class to their perceptions after nine weeks. The findings revealed that students' perceptions of initial conversations with new peers predicted what students thought of these same peers later in the semester. In another study, Wilson and Wilson (2007) pointed to the impact that the first day of class might have on students' expectations and academic achievement. Students with positive first-day experiences reported more positive expectations throughout the semester and received significantly higher grades than students whose initial experiences were negative. The findings of a qualitative study by Cross, Parker, Christensen, Anthony, and Roth (2004), in contrast to previously reported-on research, suggested that first impressions are not necessarily lasting impressions. The authors examined the interactions and social networks of employees in 60 organizations across the world and reported: "One of the most surprising discoveries in our interviews was that many productive relationships begin with poor first impressions that change over time when people have no choice but to work together" (p. 105).

3.4.4.2 Beliefs about ideals

Social interactions are guided by people's beliefs about the ideal characteristics that individuals need in any given social context (Cottrell, Neuberg, and Li, 2007, p. 227). Ideal characteristics of an individual, just as other ideal concepts (e.g.; an ideal job, an ideal event, an ideal world, and others), might not necessarily be attained in reality but their value lies in representing a point

of reference that can be used in evaluation of characteristics that are perceived as real. In educational settings, the concept of an ideal has been examined as it relates to an ideal learning environment (Kangas, 2010), ideal teacher (Arnon & Reichel, 2007; Komarraju, 2013), and ideal learner (Harkness et al., 2007).

Kangas (2010) asked middle school children in Finland to design a school in which they would be happy to study. She found that children's model of an ideal school provided opportunities for innovation and fantasy, and promoted creative and sports-based learning methods. Arnon and Reichel (2007) investigated Israeli student teachers' views on an ideal teacher. Their findings indicated that what was important to student teachers were, in equal measure, teachers' personal qualities (e.g., empathy), their knowledge of a subject, and didactic knowledge. In a study of undergraduate psychology students, Komarraju (2013) examined the relationship between students' views on ideal teachers and students' self-efficacy. He found individual differences in how students rated ideal teachers with respect to their 'caring' and 'professional' qualities. Students with lower self-efficacy demonstrated preference for more 'caring' teachers, in contrast with more confident students who preferred teachers with strong 'professional' qualities. What constitutes an ideal learner in the minds of teachers across five cultures was the focus of an investigation by Harkness et al. (2007). Italian teachers imagined an ideal learner as lively and creative; Dutch educators emphasized learner's positive mood; Polish teachers tried to find balance between traditional ideal learner's values of obedience and individual assertiveness; Spanish teachers preferred collectivist values and relationships with parents to individualism; and the US teachers valued self-esteem, effortful accomplishment, and future success. Despite the different perceptions of an ideal learner, participating teachers in all

examined cultures agreed that cognitive qualities of students were not enough to achieve success in learning.

Specific to the field of SLA, Brown (2009) examined how students of nine foreign languages across 83 intact classes imagined ideal teaching practices. Results showed that students preferred teacher feedback and whole-class instruction to group work. In addition, Brown found that the ideal teaching practices wished for by students diverged from those envisioned by teachers, who preferred communicative classroom environment and active student participation.

The concept of an ideal is represented in the present study by students' assessment of their class peers. To-date, SLA research on the beliefs that students hold about their peers, ideal or real, is characterized by two limitations, i.e., its exclusive focus on small group work, and its predominantly indirect approach to the topic. In the following subsections, I will provide a brief account of relevant studies that explored students' beliefs about their peers, specifically, students' positive and negative beliefs.

3.4.4.3 Positive beliefs about class peers

In Storch's study (2005), ESL learners shared with the researcher that small group work gave them the opportunity to learn from each other and compare ideas. In Léger and Storch (2009), learners of French generally enjoyed interacting with their group partners. Similarly, the majority of university French learner participants in the study by Philp, Walter, and Basturkmen (2010) enjoyed working with the other students. The same study also concluded that, in addition to personal enjoyment and opportunities to learn, working with peers in small groups was also considered more relaxing than whole-class instruction. This finding was explained with students' relative familiarity with each other and their previous experiences of working together.

3.4.4.4 Negative beliefs about class peers

Some learners, however, expressed reservations about other students, such as in Kinsella (1996). These reservations related mainly to the perceived inadequacy of their peers' proficiency. Similar trends emerged in earlier-referenced Léger and Storch (2009), where some learners considered working with peers to be an artificial undertaking and felt awkward about using the L2 with nonnative speakers. Along the same lines, Kang (2005) reported that several learners were reluctant to speak the L2 with peers with whom they shared their L1. One student compared the act of speaking the L2 to 'wearing a mask'. In addition, all participants in Kang's study felt less secure when they perceived other group members to be more fluent in the L2 than they were. In another study (Fushino, 2010), student participants showed apprehension and felt anxious in front of peers whom they believed were more proficient. Research also notes that small group dynamics can have an influence on how students perceive feedback of their peers. For example, Morris and Tarone (2003) recorded students' negative attributions of one another and showed how students misinterpreted their peers' recasts as a result of these attributions.

To sum up, while research has shown some students to perceive their class peers positively, it has also unearthed evidence of learners who perceived their peers in a negative light or who based on peer interactions experienced inadequacies in themselves. These contradictory results are not surprising, considering that students joined their class communities as individuals, with their distinct personalities, experiences, and beliefs. However, for a class community to be functional, i.e., to be able to help its members meet personal and academic needs and aspirations, it is necessary that students move towards the formation of *intersubjectivity*, the substance of which will be discussed next.

3.4.5 The substance of intersubjectivity

From when students meet each other in class for the first time to the last day they spend as members of a specific course, they create space for the establishment of intersubjectivity, which is thought to be a pre-requisite for learning. In the words of Wells (1998), what is necessary for learning "is not the achievement of intersubjectivity so much as the ongoing attempt to achieve it" (p. 350). Matusov (1996) refers to the state of intersubjectivity at three different sequential moments of joint activity: (a) the beginning moment, delineated by the common background of the participants in which intersubjectivity already exists or is being established before a specific joint activity, and is a precondition of any meaningful communication; (b) the intermediate moment that is about creating a shared understanding among the participants and includes sensitivity to each other's perspectives of the joint activity; and (c) the end moment that refers to the outcome of the activity and serves as an update of the common background.

In the present study, intersubjectivity will be examined as a diverse, dynamic, and fluid phenomenon, a concept that not only encompasses the meeting of beliefs but also the process of beliefs' coordination. As indicated above, the core of *intersubjectivity* rests on the interaction of beliefs about the others and the self in a given environment. Research in the context of foreign language classes has been limited with respect to student beliefs about their peers and largely ignored how beliefs about the peers and the self compare. The present study, guided by six larger themes, aimed to fill this gap. The themes were: Theme 1, students' beliefs about ideal peers; Theme 2, students' beliefs about their selves; Theme 3, students' beliefs about their real peers; and Theme 4, students' metaperceptions, namely beliefs about what their peers thought of them. Theme 5 compared students' beliefs about ideal peers with students' beliefs about their selves, and Theme 6 compared students' beliefs about their real peers with students' metaperceptions.

Each theme corresponded with one set of related research questions (RQs). In total, 35 individual RQs were answered. Although the number of RQs may appear excessive, it was decided that for the sake of precision and clarity, related inquiries should nevertheless be divided into their sub-components and be addressed in separate questions. The individual RQs will be listed in the respective reporting of results as well as in Appendix A. However, to provide an overarching preview, students' beliefs were operationalized through students' evaluation of personal attributes as perceived in ideal peers, in their real peers, and their selves. The idea of dynamicity in students' beliefs was accommodated by repeat administrations of very similar research instruments at the beginning and the end of the semester. Hence, students' ratings of attributes of ideal & real peers and their selves were compared synchronically (within each theme and between themes) as well as diachronically (between administrations).

4.0 Research Methodology

I tested the research design of the present study in a pilot study that had been conducted one semester prior with 24 students and one teacher from a second-semester German course. Instruments used in the pilot study included two take-home questionnaires for students; two class observations; two interviews with each of the two focal participants; and one group interview with seven participants. Each of these instruments and procedures proved viable, and was used in an expanded form in the present study. The pilot itself had been preceded by a small informal investigation that will be briefly addressed below.

4.1 Overview of research methodology of the present study

In the present study, participants were comprised of four intact class sections (CSs) of second-semester German students and their teachers, out of which two sections (CS3 and CS4) were treated as focal, i.e., expanded participation. Further, in each of the two focal sections, four focal

and one non-focal student participants were selected for participation in additional study components. The non-focal participants were asked to be interviewed because they had worked with one of the focal students as stand-ins during specific class meetings. The research methods included both the quantitative and qualitative type. Only data gathered from students (not from their teachers) will be addressed in this study. Specifically, only quantitative student responses were analyzed to answer the 35 RQs (see Results chapter). Qualitative data collected from student participants in the present study were not utilized to offer direct answers to the RQs; rather, their function was to complement and provide support for the conclusions drawn from the analysis of quantitative data in the Discussion chapter. Data collected from the teachers will be used only to enhance the description of the respective CS that they taught.

Two versions of the same take-home questionnaire for students were used to collect quantitative data, with one version administered at the beginning and the other at the end of the same 15-week-long academic semester. Instruments that provided qualitative data included (a) six in-situ observations of each of the two focal CSs; (b) up to six personal interviews with each of the four focal student participants from each of the two focal CSs as well as two personal interviews with the non-focal participant from the focal CS3 and one personal interview with the non-focal participant from the focal CS4; (c) one personal interview with each of the four teachers; (d) two group interviews, each with a different group of non-focal students from all participating CSs; and (e) one open-ended questionnaire item from a second take-home questionnaire, the *General Disposition Questionnaire* (*GDQ*) that was completed by student participants from all four CSs at the very beginning of the semester. The *GDQ* further contained a section that collected participants' background information.

To describe the design of the study I will first introduce the research instruments. Then I will address the procedures that were implemented in the instruments' administration. The description of the instruments and procedures is intended to lead into the description of the different participant groups who took part in different portions of the study and who, for the sake of transparency, I will describe last, once the reader is familiar with the different design portions of the study.

4.2 Research instruments

I will first describe the instruments that were central to answering the 35 RQs, i.e., the instruments that were used to obtain the quantitative data.

4.2.1 Quantitative research instruments

Student participants in all four CSs completed two versions of one take-home questionnaire that was called the *Situated Disposition Questionnaire* (*SDQ*). The *SDQ1* (Appendix B1) was administered at the beginning and the *SDQ 2* (Appendix B2) at the end of the semester. The *SDQ* was of original and non-published design.

The *SDQ* measured students' so-called situated beliefs. The predicate 'situated' references the fact that students were asked to report their views of the particular class. The *SDQ* was named so as to contrast it with another research instrument, the *General Disposition Questionnaire (GDQ)*, in which students were asked to state their general views of language classes.

Questions contained in the *SDQ* asked students to describe their beliefs about whole-class and pair work; about present and past in-class behaviors; and about specific students in the class, including their selves. In both versions of the *SDQ*, students were asked to choose and use a code; specifically, each student was asked to use the same code on both versions. To help

students remember their code, it was suggested that the code contain a number combination represented by the street number of their residence followed by their day of birth. These codes were intended to protect the confidentiality of responses while enabling me to distinguish among individual sets of responses and to connect the same student's responses on both versions of the questionnaire with each other.

SDQ1 consisted of 198 questions that included: (a) one-hundred-and-fifteen select-a-percentage questions (items 14-55, 83-118, 145-149, 166-170, and 172-198); students answered these questions by selecting a percentage from 0 to 100, given in ten-percent increments, to indicate what percentage of ideal or real peers possessed a given quality or held certain beliefs; (b) seventy-eight Likert-type questions which employed an 11-point scale from 0-10 (items 1-13, 57-69, 70-82, 119-144, and 150-162); for question items 1-13, 70-82, 119-144, 150-162, the scale points described the degree of importance of each of the 13 suggested qualities ('very unimportant' – 'very important'), and for question items 57-69 the scale points referred to the degree of intensity with which each of the 13 suggested qualities was present ('not at all' – 'extremely'); (c) three open-ended questions that asked students to provide a written answer to questions about their engagement in pair work (items 164, 165, and 171); and (d) two multi-component fill-in-the-percentage questions (items 56 and 163); in item 56, students were given a list of six class activities (pair work; triad work; work in a group larger than three people; mixer activities; teacher-led instruction; and individual work) and were asked to allocate to each of the activities a precise percentage to indicate the time they had, in fact, spent on each; in item 163, students were provided with three types of engagement in pair work activities (focusing on the task, being occupied with things related to class, and being occupied with things unrelated to class) and were asked to assign to each of the options a precise percentage to indicate the time

they and their pair work partners both had been and should have been, respectively, spending on each. The percentage-of-time allocations to each activity taken together on each list (item 56 and 163) needed to add up to 100%.

SDQ2 contained 200 questions. The first 198 questions were identical to those in *SDQ1*. *SDQ2* however, featured two additional open-ended questions (items 199 and 200). They were placed at the end of the questionnaire, and addressed participants' reactivity to the study. Specifically, the two extra questions asked participants whether the study had influenced their beliefs about pair work and other students in class.

For the present study, I analyzed only data that pertained to four sets of questionnaire items from each of the *SDQ1* and *SDQ2*, namely, (1) items 1-13; (2) items 14-26; (3) items 57-69; and (4) thirteen odd-numbered items taken from between items 89-113. Each of the four sets mandated different rating criteria but the 13 items that were contained in each were identical. Each item represented a personal attribute in the form of an adjective. In the informal survey that had preceded the pilot study I had asked a group of 14 students enrolled in a third-semester German class to list the five most important qualities of a peer whom they would like to work with in class. Out of all the qualities the students mentioned, I then chose the 12 qualities that were listed most frequently (*helpful, likeable, creative, kind, funny, confident, prepared, hardworking, easygoing, tolerant, patient,* and *proficient*) and included them in the pilot study. Incidentally, the characteristics cited by the students largely, albeit not completely, overlapped with the essential personality characteristics posited by in the *Big Five model* (please see the Theoretical Background chapter for more details). In the pilot study, students had to respond to the 12 selected qualities but were also able to suggest one other attribute that they thought important in a peer. Five students out of 24 put forward other attributes; out of the five, three

students suggested the attribute *focused*, one student wrote in the attribute *entertaining*, and another student suggested the attribute *nice*. Based on these write-in answers, the attribute *focused* was added to the 12 attributes originally used in the pilot study. Hence, student participants in the dissertation study rated not 12 but 13 personal attributes. The specific ratings that respondents applied to each group of the 13 items/qualities will be explained as it becomes pertinent in the context of each RQ.

4.2.2 Qualitative research instruments

Research instruments designed to collect qualitative data for the present study consisted of: (a) class observations; (b) a protocol for personal interviews with students (Appendix C) and teachers (Appendix D); (d) a protocol for a group interview with students (Appendix E); and (e) a question taken from the *General Disposition Questionnaire* (*GDQ*, item 5; Appendix F) that itself was composed of both qualitative and quantitative questions. Each of the three interview protocols and the *GDQ* had not been previously published and were developed by myself for the purposes of this study. The *GDQ* protected student confidentiality by utilizing the same codes that student participants had chosen for the *SDQ*.

4.2.2.1 Class observations

I observed each of the two focal classes (CS3 and CS4) six times during the semester. During each of my class visits I took brief notes by hand. In my notes, I wrote down the number of students present in class; the topic discussed; the basic order of class activities (e.g., pair work, group work, whole-class) as they took place in each class; and my overall impressions of the class (expressed in 2-3 simple phrases per class visit, e.g., “Students seemed to have a lot of fun today”, “(Student pseudonym) too bossy”, “Students confused by the assignment”, etc.). In addition, during pair work, I also wrote down who was paired with whom in each pair activity as

well as my impressions (expressed in simple phrases, e.g. “worked together’, “exchanged only a few words”, etc.) of the interactions of pairs that typically consisted of two focal students and in a very few exceptional instances of one focal and one non-focal student. I filed the hard copies of all of my notes from class observations in a separate folder. The selection of focal CSs, of focal students, as well as a more detailed description of the procedure related to class observations will be described in the Data collection procedure section (4.3.2.1) later in the chapter. Please note that the data I collected during the class observations were used in the dissertation study only so as to provide a background for the personal and group interviews with the focal and non-focal students.

4.2.2.2 Personal interview protocols

The basic interview protocol for students contained 20 questions and the basic interview protocol for teachers consisted of 19 questions. Since the teachers’ interviews are only marginally relevant in this study, namely will be used only to aid the description of the class section that each teacher taught, they will not be further addressed here.

With respect to the interview protocol for students, the original intent had been to administer the personal interviews only to focal students but as will be described in procedure, events surrounding focal participants required the inclusion of some non-focal students.

The interview script included 20 situated questions, i.e. questions that referenced the pair work interaction that students engaged in with their partners. Specifically, students were asked to comment on what they expected going into the pair work; the objectives of the pair work task; their contributions and behaviors as well as those of their partners in the pair work task; and how they and their partners worked together. The personal interview script can be viewed in Appendix C.

4.2.2.3 Group interview protocol

I conducted two separate group interviews, each with a different group of student participants. Both group interviews shared the same script and contained 14 questions that solicited students' views about class dynamics in general and in their specific class; their peers, ideal and real; and their views about pair work. The script used in group interviews can be found in Appendix E.

4.2.2.4 General Disposition Questionnaire (GDQ)

The *GDQ* (Appendix F) gauged the students' general disposition toward language classes rather than, as did the *SDQ*, their disposition toward their specific class. In its entirety, as a research instrument, the *GDQ* solicited both quantitative and qualitative data. It featured a total of 57 questions, that included: (a) thirty-one Likert-type questions; (b) eighteen open-ended questions, including item 5 (*How would you describe students that you work well with*?), which was used to enhance the discussion of results of analyses of quantitative data; (c) six select-a-percentage questions; and (d) two fill-in-the-percentage questions.

The *GDQ* also contained a section that collected background information about the participants, including the code; course section; age; gender; ethnicity; a self-assessment of their ability to speak German relative to their classmates; and information about whether students had taken any German classes at the same university prior to their enrollment in the second-semester German course. This information will be used in the forthcoming description of the participants.

4.3 Data collection procedures

Prior to collecting any data, I obtained approval of the study from the university's Institutional Review Board (IRB). The protocol was assigned the number SE-2012-0426 and the approval form can be viewed in Appendix G. I then visited each of the four CSs during their first class session of the semester. I briefly introduced the study and solicited the students' and teachers'

consent to participate. I distributed two consent forms: (1) consent to participate in questionnaires, observations, and personal interviews; and (2) consent to be video-recorded[4] during the observations. The third consent dealt with participation in a group interview, and was completed later in the semester by student participants who came to one of the two group interviews I conducted. The corresponding forms can be viewed in Appendix H. Once consent had been secured on the first two consent forms, I began with collecting first quantitative and then, qualitative data.

4.3.1 Collection procedures for quantitative data

I administered each of the two versions of *SDQ* at a different point during one academic fall semester. *SDQ1* was distributed and collected in hard copy during Week 2 and the same was done with *SDQ2* during Week 13 of the semester. Student volunteers completed first *SDQ1* and later *SDQ2* outside of class within three days of receipt. Participants were paid $7 for completing *SDQ1*, and $8 for *SDQ2*. Of the total of 66 enrolled students, I collected 50 *SDQ1* questionnaires (a participation rate of 76%) and 45 *SDQ2* questionnaires (a participation rate of 68%). Forty-one students (a participation rate of 62%) completed both *SDQ1* and *SDQ2*.

4.3.2 Collection procedures for qualitative data

As explained above, the qualitative data analyzed in the present study came from class observations of each of the two focal CSs; personal interviews with focal and non-focal students from each of the two focal CSs; group interviews with students from all CSs; and responses to one question (item 5) on the *GDQ* of students from all CSs.

[4]Data from the video-recordings of my classroom observations are not used in the present study; therefore, the video-recordings will not be further addressed.

The selection of the focal CSs was based on the requirements of the Institutional Review Board (IRB) that allowed me to employ the full complement of research instruments only if all students in the respective class section gave explicit consent to participate in the class observation, questionnaire, and video-recording part of the study. Due to one student in CS1 and three students in CS2 who did not consent to participate in the video recording portion of the study, sections CS1 and CS2 were excluded from participating fully. CS3 and CS4 complied with the IRB requirements and were therefore designated focal sections.

The selection of the four focal students from each of the two focal CSs was based on the following: After I introduced the present study at the beginning of the semester, students from each of the two focal CSs who considered participation in personal interviews indicated their intent by signing their name in the 'personal interview section' of the first consent form (Appendix H). Information about personal interviews on the first consent form described the extent of the commitment (six interviews, each lasting 10-15 minutes) and the compensation ($7 for each interview). Fourteen students (the entire class) had offered their participation from CS3 and 11 out of 13 enrolled students volunteered to participate from CS4. The volunteers' codes were entered into a drawing that was conducted by the faculty principal investigator. Five codes were drawn from each of the CS3 and CS4, i.e., to determine the four focal students and one alternate per each section. The first four codes drawn from each of the focal CSs were then matched with students' names as given on the first consent form. Subsequently, the respective four students from each of the two focal CSs were informed by email that they had the opportunity to participate in personal interviews, i.e., to become focal participants. As it turned out, students associated with the alternate codes (one per each of the two focal CS) did end up participating in a limited number of personal interviews, however not as focal but rather as non-

focal participants. Teachers in both focal CSs were informed of the identity of the focal and non-focal (alternate focal) students. For the description of focal and non-focal personal interview participants, please see the Participants section of this chapter.

4.3.2.1 Procedures applied to class observations

I conducted six observations in each of the two focal classes (CS3 and CS4) for a period of 50 minutes in Weeks 3, 5, 7, 9, 11, and 13 of the semester. I came to each of the classes a few minutes early and sat down in one of the classroom corners so as not to distract the students. During the observations, I kept to myself and took notes by hand. The content of the notes was described earlier under Research instruments.

The focus of my observations was the pair work interaction of the four focal students in each of the two focal CSs. Prior to each of my class visits, I asked the teachers to pair up the four focal students in each of the two focal CS with one another into two pairs when pair work was on the lesson plan. Twice in CS3 (Week 7 and Week 11) and once in CS4 (Week 7), one of the focal participants was absent, resulting in one complete and one incomplete focal pair in the respective CS. In these instances, teacher assigned a substitute partner (the 'alternate' student) to the focal student in the incomplete pair. In CS3, the one non-focal student substituted twice; in CS4, the non-focal student substituted once. The non-focal student substitutes were then included in my observations and notes.

4.3.2.2 Procedures applied to personal interviews

After each of the six class visits to each of the two focal CSs, the students under observation (typically, focal students but occasionally also a non-focal student) were invited to participate in a personal interview. Interviews were conducted within two days of each class visit, i.e., in Weeks 3, 5, 7, 9, 11, and 13. Some focal participants were more responsive to my invitation than

others so that some focal participants took part in all six interviews and others only in one. Table 2 (further below) indicates how many interviews and in what weeks a given student, focal or not, participated in a personal interview. I conducted a total of 39 personal interviews, 36 with focal students and 3 with two different non-focal students (one from CS3 in Weeks 7 and 11; another from CS4 in Week 7). All interviews were conducted and audio-recorded in the departmental conference room and lasted between 10 to 15 minutes. In the first interview with each of the student participants, I inquired about their background (e.g., major of study; former place of residence; domestic/international student status; reasons for learning German; etc.). I then proceeded to ask all prepared questions from the script in the chronology listed (Appendix C) and occasionally added follow-up questions to give students the opportunity to elaborate on their earlier answers. Interviewees were compensated $7 for their participation in each interview.

4.3.2.3 Procedures applied to group interviews

I conducted two group interviews with a total of nine students. In Week 9, I visited each of the four CSs and invited students to participate in one of two group interviews, scheduled for Weeks 11 and 12. In Week 10, I also asked teachers of all four CSs to forward a brief email reminder about the group interviews to their students. Four students (three from CS1 and one from CS2) participated in the first group interview; five students (one from CS2, one from CS3, and three from CS4) took part in the second. Both interviews were conducted and audio-recorded in the departmental conference room. The first interview lasted 20, and the second interview lasted 25 minutes. Each interview followed the same procedure. First, each of the students present at the interview completed the Consent to a Group Interview form (Appendix H). After a brief round of introductions and students reporting their academic background to the group (e.g., major; status as an international student; year of study), I read all questions as shown in the script

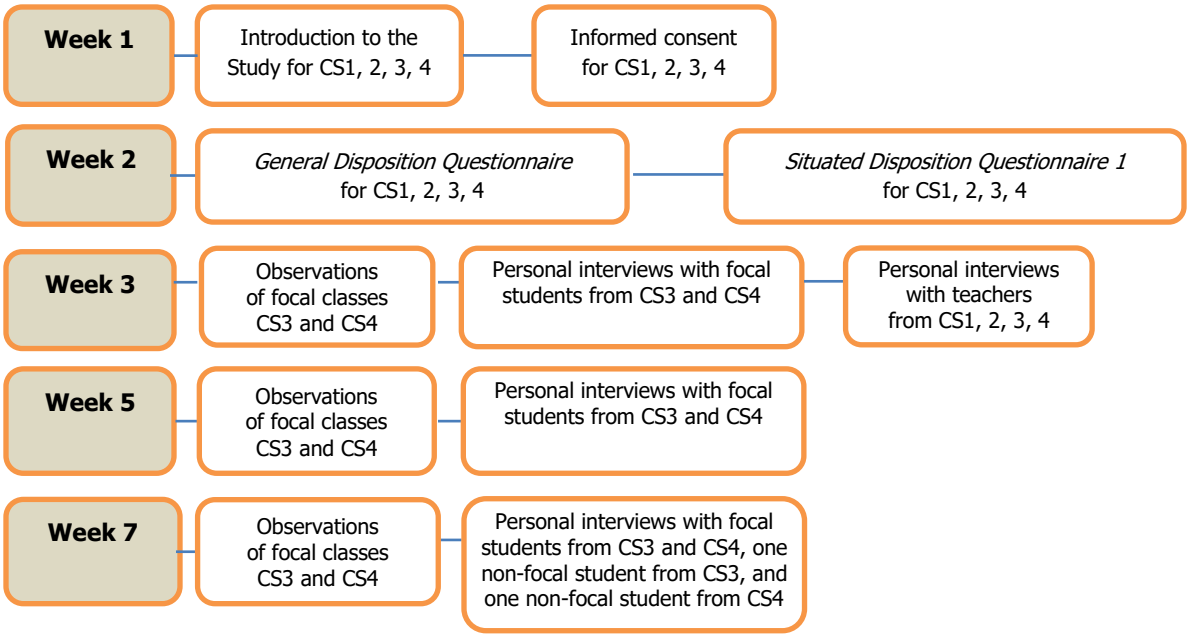
(Appendix E), and all students offered their thoughts in turn. In addition to the prepared questions, I also asked the participants several follow-up questions with the intent to have them clarify or expand on the statements they had made previously. Students who took part in the group interviews were compensated $7 for their participation.

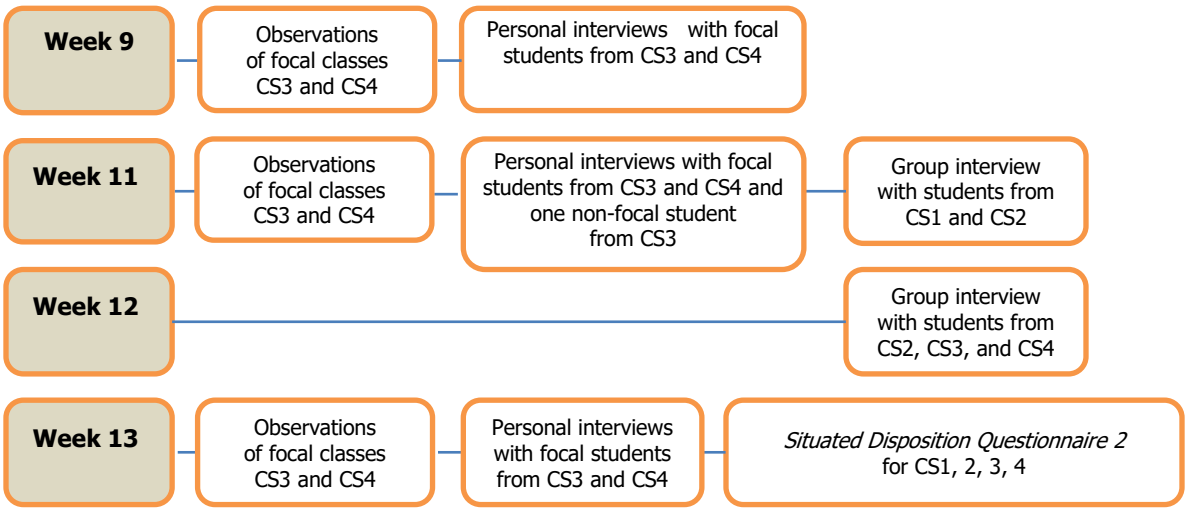
4.3.2.4 Information gathering via the GDQ

I handed out the *GDQ* to students at the beginning of Week 2 of the semester. Students were asked to complete the questionnaire at home and bring it back to their next class meeting for a compensation of $5. Fifty-four students from all four sections (a participation rate of 82%) completed the *GDQ*, including the one question that is of relevance to the present study.

Figure 1 (below) provides a timeline that shows the precise order in which the different research instruments were administered.

Figure 1. Timeline of administration of research instruments and data collection procedures





4.4 Participants

Not all students who were enrolled in CS1, 2, 3, and 4 gave their consent to participate in all portions of the study. All enrolled students in all four CSs (N = 66) agreed to participate in the questionnaire and observation portion of the study; however, four students (one from CS1 and three from CS2) did not give their consent to participate in the video-recordings. Later in the semester, only nine students from all four CSs consented to participate (and did participate) in group interviews.

In addition, not all student participants who had given their full consent finally took part in all segments of the present study. While all four CSs were represented in data gathered via either *SDQ1* (50 students; a participation rate of 76%), *SDQ2* (45 students; a participation rate of 68%), or in the one small qualitative segment (the one open-ended question in the *GDQ* – 54 students; a participation rate of 82%), only subsets of participants from CS3 and CS4 took part in the qualitative portions, which included class observations and personal and group interviews.

4.4.1 Research participants: *SDQ1*, *SDQ2*, and *GDQ*

Participants who completed the *Situated Disposition Questionnaire 1* in Week 2, the *Situated Disposition Questionnaire 2* in Week 13, and the *General Disposition Questionnaire* in Week 2 of a fall semester came from four CSs of second-semester German at a large Midwestern research university. The four class sections (CS1, CS2, CS3, and CS4) constituted the full complement of second-semester German sections that were offered in the semester this study was conducted. The total number of enrolled students was 66 (n(CS1) – 18; n(CS2) – 21; n(CS3) – 14; n(CS4) – 13) which, as noted above, coincided with the total number of students who had consented to participate in the completion of questionnaires. Of those who enrolled, the following numbers of students who actually completed at least one of the three instruments, *SDQ1*, *SDQ2*, or *GDQ* included: 14 from CS1 (a participation rate of 78%); 20 from CS2 (a participation rate of 95%); 14 from CS3 (a participation rate of 100%); and 11 from CS4 (a participation rate of 85%) for a total of 59 participants (a total participation rate of 89%), who comprised 42 male and 17 female students ranging from 18 to 29 years.

Categorized by the instrument, participants who completed *SDQ1* numbered a total of 50 students (n(CS1) – 10; n(CS2) – 16; n(CS3) – 14; and n(CS4) – 10); participants who participated in completing *SDQ2* included 45 students (n(CS1) – 12; n(CS2) – 10; n(CS3) – 13; and n(CS4) – 10); and students who completed the *GDQ* including item 5, which was relevant to the present study, numbered 54 (n(CS1) – 13; n(CS2) – 18; n(CS3) – 14; and n(CS4) – 9). Forty one students (n(CS1) – 10; n(CS2) – 9; n(CS3) – 13; and n(CS4) – 9) completed both *SDQ1* and *SDQ2*. Thirty-eight students (n(CS1) – 9; n(CS2) – 8; n(CS3) – 13; and n(CS4) – 8) completed each of *SDQ1*, *SDQ2*, and *GDQ*. An overview of students' participation in completing the

questionnaires as well as respective participation rates are presented in Tables 1a, 1b, and 1c further below.

Data provided by the teachers of the four sections were not addressed in the present study. However, a brief depiction of the four teachers aids the appreciation of the research design and outcome. The teachers will be referred to in this study by pseudonyms Wayne (CS1), Magdalena (CS2), Lester (CS3), and Eric (CS4) chosen by myself. All pseudonyms are phonetically similar to the original names and reflect the original names' gender and in some cases also ethnic connotations. All four teachers were graduate student teaching assistants enrolled in the doctoral program of the department under investigation. Additional information about each teacher will be provided as each CS will be described in turn.

The description of each CS is based on information as provided by students on the *GDQ*, in personal and group interviews, and from the student records of the German department at the university where the study took place.

4.4.1.1 Class section 1 (CS1)

CS1 met at 9:55 am five times a week for 50 minutes. In a class of 18, there were 11 male and 7 female students. Of 13 students who provided their additional background information, 12 described themselves as Caucasian or White and one student identified himself as Native American. Of the same 13, only three students had previously completed another German course (First Semester German) at the same university.

CS1 was taught by Wayne, a 26-year old male with three semesters of prior teaching experience at the same institution. Wayne was a native speaker of American English. Based on information I gathered from a personal interview with Wayne, Wayne usually designed his lessons with at least half of class time dedicated to pair work and small group work activities.

4.4.1.2 Class section 2 (CS2)

CS2, the most populated section, met at 11:00 am five times a week for 50 minutes. Out of the 21 enrolled students, 14 were male and 7 female. 18 students provided me with additional background information. Of the 18, 14 students described themselves as Caucasian or White, three students self-identified as of Asian ethnicity, and one student described himself as ethnically 'Polish'. Of the same 18 students, 15 had previously completed another German course at the same university, a stark contrast to CS1.

The teacher of the CS2 was Magdalena, 35 years old, a native speaker of German who had two semesters of prior teaching experience at the same institution. Magdalena explained in a personal interview with me that the dynamics of the class were not suitable for pair work, and she preferred to engage her students in activities involving larger groups.

4.4.1.3 Class section 3 (CS3)

CS3 was one of the two focal sections of the present study. For the procedure related to the selection of the focal sections and participants, please refer to Section 4.3.2. The four focal students present in this CS will be described in more detail in the upcoming part of this chapter.

CS3 met in the early afternoon, at 1:20 pm, lasted 50 minutes, and took place five times a week. It included 14 students, 9 male and 5 female. Twelve students claimed Caucasian or White ethnicity and two students described themselves as Asian. Eight out of 14 students had completed another German course at the same university.

The teacher of CS3 was Lester, 30 years old and a native speaker of American English with six semesters of prior teaching experience. Lester, as per the interview I conducted with him, aimed to divide his lessons equally among teacher-led instruction, pair work, and small group work.

4.4.1.4 Class section 4 (CS4)

CS4 was the second focal section of the study. The same selection principle that applied to CS3 was also used here. CS4 met only three times a week (Mondays, Wednesdays, and Fridays); instead of 50 minutes, the individual lessons lasted 80 minutes. The class took place mid-afternoons at 3:30 pm, and had 13 enrolled students, 9 male and 4 female. Seven students identified as Caucasian or White, and six described their ethnicity as Asian. Eight out of 13 students had completed another German course at the same university where the study took place. As is true for the four focal students from CS3, the four focal participants from CS4 will be described later in this section.

Eric, 32 years old, was the teacher of CS4. He was a native speaker of American English and had five semesters of teaching experience at the institution under investigation. In my interview with him he explained that his lessons usually balanced teacher-led instruction, pair, and small group work.

Table 1a provides an overview of student participants who took part in completing at least one of *SDQ1, SDQ2,* or *GDQ* in each of the four CSs, and the respective participation rates, i.e., the percentage of study participants relative to the number of students enrolled in a given CS. Gender, self-perceived German speaking ability relative to one's classmates (as selected by students from options 'way below average', 'somewhat below average', 'average', 'somewhat above average', and 'way above average'), and ethnicity of students who completed at least one of *SDQ1*, *SDQ2,* or *GDQ* in each of the four CSs is also shown.

Table 1a. Students who completed at least one of SDQ1, SDQ2, and GDQ, by CS

Class section (Teacher)	**Enrollment N (all four CSs) = 66**	**Students who completed at least one of *SDQ1*, *SDQ2*, and *GDQ* and their percentage relative to enrolled students N = 59 (89%)**	**Gender distribution of students who completed at least one of *SDQ1*, *SDQ2*, and *GDQ***	**Distribution of self-perceived German speaking ability in students who completed at least one of *SDQ1*, *SDQ2*, and *GDQ***	**Ethnicity distribution of students who completed at least one of *SDQ1*, *SDQ2*, and *GDQ***
CS1 non-focal (Wayne)	18	14 (78%)	Male 10 Female 4	Average – 7 Somewhat above average – 3 Somewhat below average – 3 Unknown - 1	Caucasian/ White – 12 Native American – 1 Unknown - 1
CS2 non-focal (Magdalena)	21	20 (95%)	Male 15 Female 5	Average – 12 Somewhat above average – 2 Way above average - 1 Somewhat below average – 3 Unknown - 2	Caucasian/ White – 14 Asian – 3 'Polish' – 1 Unknown - 2
CS3 focal (Lester)	14	14 (100%)	Male 9 Female 5	Average – 7 Somewhat above average – 4 Somewhat below average – 3	Caucasian/ White – 12 Asian – 1 'Mixed' - 1
CS4 focal (Eric)	13	11 (85%)	Male 8 Female 3	Average – 8 Somewhat above average – 1 Somewhat below average – 1 Unknown - 1	Caucasian/ White – 5 Asian – 4 'Mixed' – 1 Unknown - 1

Table 1b shows the number of students from each CS who completed *SDQ1*, *SDQ2*, and *GDQ* as well as the participation rate of each CS.

Table 1b. Number of students in each CS and CS-specific participation rates pertaining to SDQ1, SDQ2, and GDQ, respectively

Class section	**Enrollment N = 66**	**Students who completed *SDQ1* and their percentage relative to enrolled students N = 50 (76%)**	**Students who completed *SDQ2* and their percentage relative to enrolled students N = 45 (68%)**	**Students who completed *GDQ* and their percentage relative to enrolled students N = 54 (82%)**
CS1 – non-focal	18	10 (56%)	12 (67%)	13 (72%)
CS2 – non-focal	21	16 (76%)	10 (48%)	18 (86%)
CS3 - focal	14	14 (100%)	13 (93%)	14 (100%)
CS4 - focal	13	10 (77%)	10 (77%)	9 (69%)

Table 1c provides an overview of participants from each CS who completed both *SDQ1* and *SDQ2* and of students who completed all three questionnaires (*SDQ1*, *SDQ1*, and *GDQ)*, broken down by CS.

Table 1c. Number of students in each CS who completed both SDQ1 and SDQ2 and who completed all three questionnaires (SDQ1, *SDQ1*, and *GDQ)*

Class section	**Enrollment N = 66**	**Students who completed both *SDQ1* and *SDQ2* and their percentage relative to enrolled students N = 41 (62%)**	**Students who completed all three questionnaires (*SDQ1*, *SDQ1*, and *GDQ*) N = 38 (58%)**
CS1 – non-focal	18	10 (56%)	9 (50%)
CS2 – non-focal	21	9 (43%)	8 (38%)
CS3 - focal	14	13 (93%)	13 (93%)
CS4 - focal	13	9 (69%)	8 (62%)

4.4.2 Research participants: Class observations

I observed CS3 and CS4 during Weeks 3, 5, 7, 9, 11, and 13 of the semester for a total of six observations in each of the two CSs. During the observations, I focused my attention on the pair work interaction of four focal students and occasionally on one non-focal student in each of the CSs. The selection of focal CSs and focal and non-focal students was described earlier in the chapter (Section 4.3.2).

As mentioned earlier, in this study, class observations served only so as to provide a background for the personal and group interviews conducted with the focal and non-focal student participants. Students (focal and non-focal) who participated in personal and group interviews will be described in the ensuing sections.

4.4.3 Research participants: Personal interviews

Not all students who were selected for personal interviews indeed came after each of the six observations. On several occasions students claimed other commitments or illness. In total, five students from CS3 (four focal and one non-focal) and five students from CS4 (four focal and one non-focal) participated in at least one interview each for a total of 39 personal interviews.

Table 2 shows the description of students who participated in personal interviews. I elected to list the student participants under pseudonyms that reflect the original names' ethnic and gender connotations chosen by myself. Further given are students' CS; gender; age; self-described ethnic background exactly as listed by each student; their status as a domestic or international student; self-perceived ability to speak German relative to one's classmates as described in Week 2 of the semester (selected from options 'way below average', 'somewhat below average', 'average', 'somewhat above average', and 'way above average'); students' academic major; information on whether they had previously taken a German class at the same university; and the weeks in which they participated in personal interviews. Information about students' age, gender, ethnicity, self-perceived German speaking ability, and any previously taken German class at the university was provided by student participants on the *GDQ* administered in Week 2. Information about each student's status as a domestic or an international student and the student's academic major was volunteered during personal interviews.

Table 2. Overview of backgrounds of participants in personal interviews

Interviewee pseudonym (chosen by myself)	**Class section**	**Gender /Age**	**Ethnicity as indicated by students/ Status - domestic or international**	**Self-perceived German speaking ability**	**Major**	**Previously taken German class at the same university**	**Time of interview/s**
Tom (focal)	CS3	M/19	White/ domestic	Somewhat above average	Mechanical Engineering	No	Weeks 3, 5, 9, 13
Julia (focal)	CS3	F/19	Caucasian/ domestic	Somewhat above average	Intl. Studies and Applied Math	Yes	Weeks 3, 5, 7, 9, 11, 13

Will (focal)	CS3	M/20	'Mixed'/ domestic	Average	Theatre and Drama	Yes	Weeks 3, 5, 9, 11
Becky (focal)	CS3	F/19	Caucasian/ domestic	Average	Psychology and Communic.	No	Week 9
Bill (non-focal)	CS3	M/21	White/ domestic	Average	Unknown	Yes	Weeks 7, 11
Mako (focal)	CS4	F/20	Asian/ international	Average	Economics	Yes	Weeks 3, 5, 7, 9, 11, 13
Otto (focal)	CS4	M/18	'Mixed'/ domestic	Somewhat above average	Chemical Enginering	No	Weeks 3, 5, 7, 9, 11, 13
Amani (focal)	CS4	F/19	White/ domestic	Average	Biomedical Engineering	Yes	Weeks 3, 5, 7, 9, 11, 13
Jim (focal)	CS4	M/22	White/ domestic	Average	History	Yes	Weeks 3, 11, 13
Evan (non-focal)	CS4	M/21	Caucasian/ domestic	Average	Unknown	Yes	Week 7

It is of note that all personal interview students who indicated that their student status was that of a domestic student also indicated that they were ethnically Caucasian/White or 'Mixed'. In contrast, the one student with the status as an international student described her ethnicity as Asian. Further, all students who participated in personal interviews perceived themselves as at least 'average' in their ability to speak German relative to their classmates. Four out of eight students who shared information about their academic major came from STEM[5] fields, and none of the personal interview participants was a language major. Seven out of ten students who participated in the personal interviews had previously completed another German course at the same university where the study took place.

4.4.4 Research participants: Group interviews

I conducted two separate group interviews (one in Week 11 and another one in Week 12) with two different groups of student participants from all four CSs. Four students (three from CS1 and one from CS2) volunteered to participate in the first group interview and five students (one from

[5] Science, Technology, Engineering, and Math

CS2, one from CS3, and three from CS4) volunteered for the second group interview. None of the students who participated in either one of the group interviews were focal students.

Table 3 presents a description of participants in group interviews. Students are listed under pseudonyms that reflect the original names' ethnic and gender connotations selected by myself. Similarly to Table 2, also displayed are students' CSs; gender and age; ethnicity as described by students and their status as a domestic or an international student; students' self-perceived ability to speak German; academic major; and information about whether they took any German language course at the same university. The information listed in Table 3 was obtained via the same means as information shown in Table 2.

Table 3. Overview and background of participants in group interviews

Interviewee pseudonym (chosen by myself)	**Class section**	**Gender/ Age**	**Ethnicity as indicated by students/ Status - domestic or international**	**Self-perceived German speaking ability**	**Major**	**Previously taken German class at the same university**
Group interview 1 – Week 11						
Zach	CS1	M/18	Caucasian/ domestic	Average	Unknown	No
Vala	CS1	F/19	White/ domestic	Somewhat below average	Psychology	No
Lena	CS1	F/18	White/ domestic	Average	Biology	No
Erica	CS2	F/19	White/ domestic	Average	Undecided	No
Group interview 2 – Week 12						
Tanya	CS2	F/21	Caucasian/ domestic	Somewhat below average	Unknown	Yes
Betty	CS3	F/18	White/ domestic	Average	Animal science	No
Tony	CS4	M/18	White/ domestic	Average	Mechanical Engineering/Math	No
Tori	CS4	F/18	Caucasian/ domestic	Somewhat below average	Biochemistry	No
Cheung	CS4	M/18	Asian/ international	Average	Unknown	Yes

Similar to personal interview participants, the students who participated in group interviews and gave their student status as ‘domestic’ claimed Caucasian/White ethnicity. The one international student described his ethnicity as Asian. Group interview participants who were all designated as non-focal, in contrast to personal interview participants who included mostly focal students, perceived themselves either as ‘average’ or ‘somewhat below average’ in their German speaking ability relative to their classmates. Only two out of nine students who participated in group interviews had previously completed another German course at the same university.

5.0 Results

In the reporting of results I will address a total of 35 RQs that were grouped into the six themes presented earlier. I will explain what RQs belong under each theme and then introduce each theme with a brief description of its data sources and the type of analyses that were applied. To provide a preview, the following analytic principles guided the statistical analyses in the presentation of results: (1) Descriptive statistical analyses generally preceded inferential statistical analyses; (2) Within-group analyses of difference were described before between-group analyses of differences; and (3) When appropriate, relationships (correlations) were explored last.

5.1 Theme 1: The makings of a hypothetical ideal peer

Theme 1 comprised nine RQs (RQ1a – i). Data to explore the first five RQs (RQ1a – e) came from students’ answers to items 1-13 of the *Situated Disposition Questionnaire 1(SDQ1).*

Administered in the second week of the semester[6], this questionnaire was the first one out of two questionnaires that measured respondents' situated beliefs, that is, students' beliefs as they pertained to the particular class section (CS). Each of the 13 items represented a personal attribute. Students rated each attribute on an eleven-point scale from 0 – 10 (0 = very unimportant, 10 = very important) to indicate the level of importance that they ascribed to the particular attribute in a hypothetical ideal peer. In data analysis, I used both descriptive and inferential statistical methods. I will first present results from descriptive statistical analyses (RQs1a – b), which will provide the context for the results that were obtained from subsequent inferential analyses (RQs1c – i).

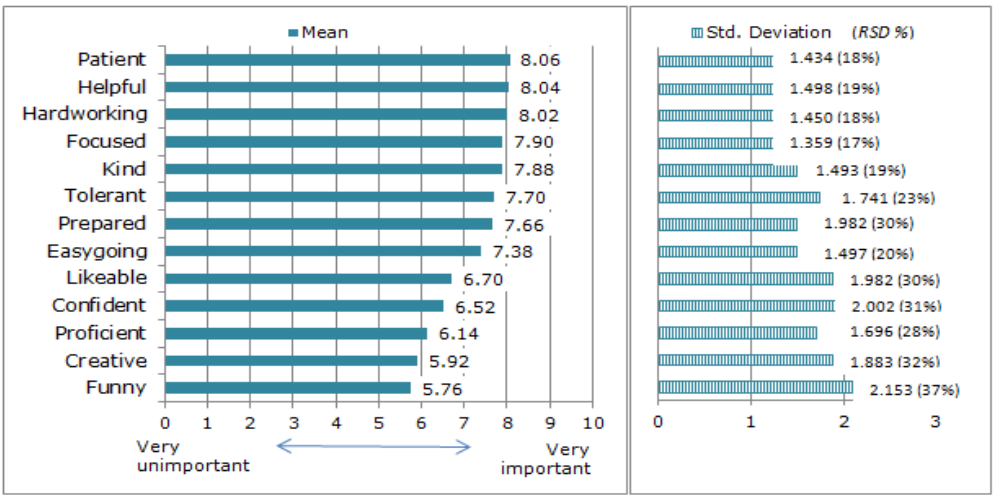
RQs 1a and 1b addressed the contribution of 13 individual attributes to the makings of a hypothetical ideal peer. The two RQs were variations of the same question. While RQ1a addressed the beliefs of all respondents irrespective of what CS they belonged to, RQ1b took a look at the beliefs of students in each CS separately.

5.1.1 RQ1a. As how important did college students in four combined course sections of second-semester German rate each of the 13 personal attributes in the makings of a hypothetical ideal peer at the beginning of an academic semester?

Figure 2 below displays the mean for each of the 13 attributes (bar graph on the left) on a scale of 0 – 10 (0 = very unimportant, 10 = very important); the bar graph on the right shows the standard deviation (*SD)* and the relative standard deviation *(RSD*-in parenthesis*)* for each of the 13 attributes when the answers of respondents enrolled in all four CSs were combined. The attributes are listed in descending order of their mean ratings.

[6] The *Situated Disposition Questionnaire 1* was repeated with two additional questions in Week 13 of the academic semester as the *Situated Disposition Questionnaire 2* with the purpose of capturing any changes in students' beliefs.

Figure 2. Importance of each of the 13 attributes in a hypothetical ideal class peer – all CSs combined; n = 50 (49•) • For the attribute *proficient* only 49 ratings were recorded.



The correspondence between the span of respective mean scores and descriptive scale-point labels ('very unimportant' – 'very important'), shown in Figure 2, indicates that, on average, respondents considered all 13 attributes to be either 'important' or 'very important' for their peers to possess.

The means for the three highest-rated attributes, *patient* (8.06), *helpful* (8.04), and *hardworking* (8.02), all placed within a range of .04 on the 11-point scale. The lowest mean rating in the combined CSs was calculated for the attribute *funny* (mean = 5.76). It was separated from the highest-rated attribute *patient* (mean = 8.06) by a difference of only 2.3 points.

A look at standard deviations (*SDs*) permits an examination of the homogeneity of respondents' beliefs about the importance of each of the 13 attributes in makings of hypothetical ideal peers. Agreement among all 50 respondents was found to be the strongest when the students rated the attribute *focused* (*SD* = 1.359; *RSD* = 17%; overall rank 4). The largest *SD* (2.153) and the largest *RSD* of 37% of the mean belonged to the lowest-rated attribute *funny*.

Table 4 shows minimum and maximum scores and differentials between the minimum and maximum scores in addition to the mean scores already displayed in Figure 2.

Table 4. Importance of each of the 13 attributes in a hypothetical ideal class peer – all CSs combined; n = 50 (49•) • For the attribute *proficient* only 49 ratings were recorded.

Attribute	Mean	Minimum score	Maximum score	Differential between minimum and maximum score
Patient	8.06	4	10	6
Helpful	8.04	5	10	5
Hardworking	8.02	5	10	5
Focused	7.90	5	10	5
Kind	7.88	4	10	6
Tolerant	7.70	3	10	7
Prepared	7.66	4	10	6
Easygoing	7.38	3	10	7
Likeable	6.70	3	10	7
Confident	6.52	1	10	9
Proficient	6.14	1	10	9
Creative	5.92	2	10	8
Funny	5.76	0	10	10

Each of the 13 attributes received the maximum possible score of 10 from at least one respondent. However, only one attribute (*funny*) was assigned the lowest possible score of 0 by at least one respondent. Three other attributes (*confident*, *proficient*, and *creative*) received minimum scores lower than 3. Conversely, not a single respondent gave the attributes *helpful*, *hardworking*, and *focused* a score lower than 5.

As noted above, the respondents included in RQ1a came from all four CSs taken together. To explore potential differences between CSs, RQ1b examined responses separated by individual CSs.

5.1.2 RQ1b. Did college students in four separate course sections of second-semester German differ significantly in how they rated the importance of the 13 attributes to the makings of a hypothetical ideal peer at the beginning of an academic semester?

In a first attempt to answer RQ1b, the same descriptive statistics that were applied to RQ1a were used, namely means, minimum and maximum scores, differentials between minimum and maximum scores, standard deviations (*SDs)*, and relative standard deviations *(RSDs)*. Further

below, results from these descriptive statistical analyses are followed by results from inferential statistical tests.

Tables 5-8, respectively, show the results of calculations for each of the four CSs under investigation. The 13 attributes are listed in descending order of the mean value of their importance ratings (0 = not important to 10 = very important).

5.1.2.1 Responses from students in CS1

Table 5 shows importance ratings of each of the 13 attributes given by students in CS1.

Table 5. Importance of each of the 13 attributes in a hypothetical ideal class peer – CS1; n = 10

Attribute	Mean	Minimum score	Maximum score	Differential between minimum and maximum score	*SD*	*RSD*
Helpful	9.00	7	10	3	1.054	12%
Hardworking	8.30	6	10	4	1.567	19%
Focused	8.30	5	10	5	1.494	18%
Kind	8.30	6	10	4	1.160	14%
Prepared	8.20	4	10	6	1.619	20%
Patient	8.20	5	10	5	1.549	19%
Tolerant	7.80	4	10	6	1.687	22%
Easygoing	7.70	6	9	3	1.160	15%
Likeable	7.20	4	10	6	1.989	28%
Proficient	7.10	6	10	4	1.287	18%
Funny	7.10	5	9	4	1.370	19%
Creative	7.10	5	10	5	1.792	25%
Confident	5.90	1	8	7	2.767	47%

In CS1, the mean scores that were calculated for each of the 13 attributes ranged from 5.90 to 9.00 on a 0-10-point scale, with a differential of 3.10 between the lowest and the highest mean. All mean ratings clearly exceeded the scale's middle score, i.e., 5, and corresponded with scale labels that ranged from 'important' to 'very important'.

On average, respondents in CS1 assigned the highest scores (indicating the highest degree of importance) to the attribute *helpful* (mean = 9). Indeed, 9 out of 10 students assigned it a score of 8 or higher. The attribute *helpful* was also associated with the smallest standard

deviation (*SD* = 1.054) and the smallest relative standard deviation (*RSD* = 12% of the mean), which reflects the high degree of agreement among CS1 students that to them *helpful* was an important attribute in a hypothetical ideal peer. Also, together with the attribute *easygoing*, the attribute *helpful* displayed the lowest differential between the minimum and the maximum score, namely 3.

The attribute out of the 13 that received the lowest average score in CS1, was the attribute *confident* (mean = 5.90). Three respondents assigned it a rating of 3 or lower, the lowest ratings given by any of the students in CS1 to any of the attributes. In addition, the attribute *confident* held the largest differential between minimum and maximum scores (differential = 7), and, correspondingly, the largest standard deviation (*SD* = 2.767) and the largest relative standard deviation (*RSD* = 47% of the mean). Further, the attribute *confident* was separated from the second lowest-rated attribute *creative* (mean = 7.10) by a difference of more than 1 full scale point, the largest differential in means between any two attributes that followed each other in the rank order .

Not a single respondent in CS1 assigned a score of 0 to an attribute. Additionally, not a single respondent gave a rating of 10 to the attributes *easygoing*, *funny*, or *confident*.

5.1.2.2 Responses from students in CS2

Table 6 displays students' importance ratings of each of the 13 attributes in CS2.

Table 6. Importance of each of the 13 attributes in a hypothetical ideal class peer – CS2; n = 16

Attribute	Mean	Minimum score	Maximum score	Differential between minimum and maximum score	*SD*	*RSD*
Hardworking	7.88	5	10	5	1.500	19%
Patient	7.56	4	10	6	1.590	21%
Helpful	7.56	5	10	5	1.672	22%
Kind	7.44	4	10	6	1.672	22%
Easygoing	7.38	5	10	5	1.628	22%

Focused	7.38	5	10	5	1.360	18%
Prepared	7.38	5	9	4	1.204	16%
Tolerant	7.19	3	10	7	1.905	26%
Likeable	7.00	3	10	7	1.966	28%
Confident	6.69	3	8	5	1.401	21%
Proficient	5.69	1	9	8	1.957	34%
Creative	5.69	2	8	6	1.537	27%
Funny	5.56	2	9	7	2.065	37%

In CS2, the mean scores for all 13 attributes spanned from 5.56 to 7.88, with a differential between the top and bottom mean of only 2.32. Note especially the closeness in mean scores of the top nine attributes: The highest-rated of the nine attributes was separated from the lowest-rated of the set by less than one point. As had been the case in CS1, none of the attributes was assigned a mean score below 5, which signals that respondents considered all 13 attributes important in a hypothetical ideal peer.

Respondents ascribed the highest importance score to the attribute *hardworking* (mean = 7.88); the attribute *funny* received the lowest rating (mean = 5.56).

The smallest differential between the minimum and maximum score and the smallest standard deviation was associated with the attribute *prepared* (differential = 4; *SD* = 1.204). *RSD* reflected 16% of the mean score. On the opposite end, the largest differential between minimum and maximum score was found for the attribute *proficient* (differential = 8). As expressed in the value of the standard deviation, responses were least homogeneous for the attribute *funny* (*SD* = 2.065), with *RSD* reaching a staggering 37% of the mean score.

Five attributes (*prepared*, *confident*, *proficient*, *creative*, and *funny*) did not receive the maximum score of 10 from a single respondent. In addition, six attributes (*tolerant*, *likeable*, *confident*, *proficient*, *creative*, and *funny*) each were given a score lower than 4 by several respondents. However, no attribute received the lowest possible score of 0 from any of the respondents.

5.1.2.3 Responses from students in CS3

Importance ratings of each of the 13 attributes given by students in CS3 are shown in Table 7.

Table 7. Importance of each of the 13 attributes in a hypothetical ideal class peer – CS3; n = 14

Attribute	Mean	Minimum score	Maximum score	Differential between minimum and maximum score	*SD*	*RSD*
Tolerant	8.43	5	10	5	1.697	20%
Patient	8.21	6	10	4	1.369	17%
Helpful	8.07	6	10	4	1.385	17%
Kind	7.86	5	10	5	1.512	19%
Hardworking	7.79	5	10	5	1.528	20%
Focused	7.71	6	10	4	1.267	16%
Prepared	7.50	5	10	5	1.698	23%
Easygoing	7.29	3	10	7	1.858	25%
Confident	6.36	1	10	9	2.023	32%
Likeable	6.21	3	10	7	1.847	30%
Proficient	6.00	3	9	6	1.664	28%
Funny	5.50	0	10	10	2.710	49%
Creative	4.86	2	9	7	1.703	35%

Respondents in CS3 as a group assigned the highest mean rating to the attribute *tolerant* (mean = 8.43), with six out of 14 students giving it the highest possible score of 10. Conversely, the attribute *creative* fell under the half of the scale that tended toward ‘unimportant’, with six out of 14 students each assigning it a score lower than 5 for a total mean score of 4.86. The differential between the attribute with the highest mean score (*tolerant*) and that with the lowest (*creative*) was 3.57.

The largest standard deviation, the largest relative standard deviation (*SD* = 2.71; *RSD* = 49% of the mean), and the largest score differential (the maximum possible of 10) occurred when respondents in CS3 rated the attribute *funny*. The smallest standard deviation and the smallest relative standard deviation were recorded for the attribute *focused* (*SD* = 1.27; *RSD* = 16%); all scores for this attribute fell between 6 and 10.

Students in CS3 gave scores lower than 3 to three attributes (*funny*, *confident*, *creative)*. As implied in the score spread for the attribute *funny* (0–10), one student even assigned it the

lowest possible score of 0. Only two attributes (*proficient* and *creative*) did not receive a single score of 10.

5.1.2.4 Responses from students in CS4

Table 8 displays importance ratings of each of the 13 attributes given by students in CS4.

Table 8. Importance of each of the 13 attributes in a hypothetical ideal class peer – CS4; n = 10 (9•)

Attribute	Mean	Minimum score	Maximum score	Differential between minimum and maximum score	*SD*	*RSD*
Focused	8.60	7	10	3	1.075	13%
Patient	8.50	7	10	3	1.080	13%
Hardworking	8.30	7	10	3	1.252	15%
Kind	8.20	5	10	5	1.476	18%
Prepared	7.80	4	10	6	1.549	20%
Helpful	7.80	5	10	5	1.476	19%
Tolerant	7.40	5	10	5	1.430	19%
Easygoing	7.20	5	9	4	1.135	16%
Confident	7.10	3	10	7	2.025	29%
Creative	6.60	4	10	6	2.011	30%
Likeable	6.40	3	10	7	2.271	35%
Proficient	6.11	4	9	5	1.453	24%
Funny	5.10	3	8	5	1.729	34%

• For the attribute *proficient* only 9 ratings were recorded.

In CS4, mean scores associated with the 13 attributes spanned from 5.10 to 8.60, with a differential of 3.5 between the lowest mean (*funny*) and the highest mean (*focused*).

On average, respondents in CS4 considered the attribute *focused* (mean = 8.60) to be the most important attribute for a hypothetical ideal peer to possess. This attribute also displayed the smallest standard deviation (*SD* = 1.075) and the smallest relative standard deviation (*RSD* = 13%), and together with the attributes *patient* and *hardworking*, the smallest differential between scores assigned by any given respondent (between 7 and 10).

The attribute *funny* received the lowest mean score (5.10). It was separated from the attribute with the second lowest mean, *proficient* (mean = 6.11), by a whole point, a degree of

difference not found between any other attributes that appeared in adjacent positions in the rank order calculated for CS4.

None of the ten respondents in CS4 rated any of the attributes with a score lower than 3. The students' answers differed most (spanned from 3 to 10) when they rated the attributes *confident* and *likeable*. Further, ratings of the attribute *likeable* also showed the lowest homogeneity in terms of the relatively large size of the associated standard deviation (*SD* = 2.271) and relative standard deviation (*RSD* = 35%).

In the ensuing two subsections, students' responses from all four CSs will be compared, as based first on descriptive and then on inferential statistical analyses.

5.1.2.5 Comparison of students' responses among the CSs: Descriptive analysis

Tables 9 and 10 and Figure 3 (below) provide a view at the collated results for RQ1b. Table 9 displays the three top-ranked attributes in each CS; Table 10 shows the bottom-ranked attributes in each CS. Because of a bunching of attributes toward the top and bottom in CS1, four, not three top- and bottom-ranked attributes are reported for that CS. Figure 3 presents the mean of each of the 13 attributes in each of the four CSs.

Table 9. Attributes occupying the top-three (four) ranks in each of the four CSs, with mean scores in parentheses

Rank	CS1 (n=10)	CS2 (n=16)	CS3 (n=14)	CS4 (n=10)
1 *(highest)*	**helpful** (9.00)	**hardworking** (7.88)	**tolerant** (8.43)	**focused** (8.60)
2 *(second highest)*	**hardworking** (8.30) **focused** (8.30) **kind** (8.30)	**patient** (7.56) **helpful** (7.56)	**patient** (8.21)	**patient** (8.50)
3 *(third highest)*	NA	NA	**helpful** (8.07)	**hardworking** (8.30)

When identifying attributes that occupied the top-three (or, in the case of CS1, four) ranks in the four CSs, six different attributes emerged. They were the attributes *patient, helpful,*

hardworking, *focused*, *kind*, and *tolerant*. In CS1, three attributes (*hardworking*, *focused*, and *kind*) tied for the second rank; in CS2, the second rank had two ties (*patient* and *helpful*). The attributes *hardworking*, *patient*, and *helpful* counted among the top-three ranks in three of the CSs; not a single attribute in the top-three ranks was shared among all four CSs. In each CS, the highest rank was occupied by a different attribute. Of note is that the attribute *tolerant* was the attribute with the highest importance scores in CS3 yet it did not rank among the top three in any of the other three CSs.

Table 10. Attributes occupying the bottom-three (four) ranks in each of the four CSs, with mean scores in parentheses

Rank	CS1 (n=10)	CS2 (n=16)	CS3 (n=14)	CS4 (n=10, 9•)
10 *(fourth lowest)*	**proficient** (7.10) **funny** (7.10) **creative** (7.10)	NA	NA	NA
11 *(third lowest)*	NA	**proficient** (5.69) **creative** (5.69)	**proficient** (6.00)	**likeable** (6.40)
12 *(second lowest)*	NA	NA	**funny** (5.50)	**proficient** (6.11)
13 *(lowest)*	**confident** (5.90)	**funny** (5.56)	**creative** (4.86)	**funny** (5.10)

• For the attribute *proficient* there were 9 recorded ratings in CS4.

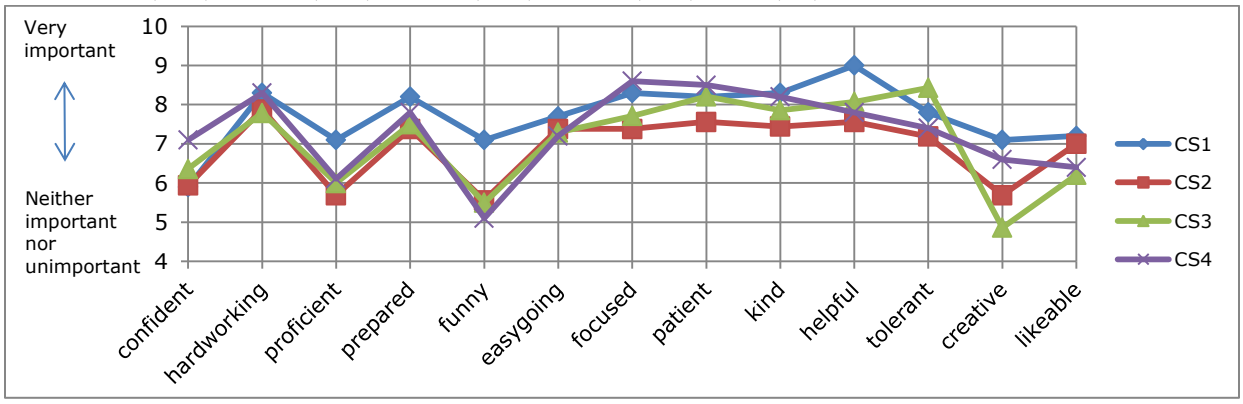
Five attributes together filled the lowest ranks in all four CSs (*proficient*, *funny*, *creative*, *confident*, and *likeable)*. In CS1, the attributes *proficient*, *funny*, and *creative* tied for the tenth rank (out of 13 possible ranks); in CS2, the attributes *proficient* and *creative* shared the eleventh rank. Of particular interest is that *funny* and *proficient* placed in the bottom spots in all four CSs. In addition, the attribute *funny* ranked the lowest in two out of four sections, namely in CS2 and CS4. Respondents in only one CS each ranked *confident* (CS1) and *likeable* (CS4), respectively, among the bottom attributes.

Figure 3 below reiterates in visual form what was presented in Tables 5 – 8 earlier. However, while the individual tables showed the descriptive statistics for each CS separately, Figure 3

allowed for the mean scores calculated for each of the 13 attributes as rated by each of four CSs to be displayed in one compact image.

I chose line graphs for an easier visual comparison of mean ratings attached to each of the 13 attributes across the four CSs. It needs to be mentioned, however, that the lines in Figure 3 do not represent development nor suggest a timeline; rather, they represent data that are independent of each other. The overlay of line graphs of each of the four CSs in Figure 3 provides a snapshot of differences as well as similarities between the four CSs.

Figure 3. Importance of each of the 13 attributes in a hypothetical ideal class peer in each of the four CSs; CS1: n(CS1) = 10, n(CS2) = 16, n(CS3) = 14, n(CS4) = 10 (9•)



• For the attribute *proficient* there were 9 recorded ratings in CS4.

As Figure 3 shows and as reported above, students in each CS found a different attribute out of the 13 to be the most important for a hypothetical ideal peer to possess. In CS1, it was the attribute *helpful (mean = 9.00)*; in CS2 the attribute *hardworking (mean = 7.88)*; in CS3 the attribute *tolerant (mean = 8.43)*; and in CS4 the attribute *focused (mean = 8.60)*. Moreover, the degree of importance assigned to each of the top attributes also varied across CSs. The attribute *helpful* in CS1 received a mean score of 9.00 whereas the top scores in the other CSs ranged between 7.88 and 8.60. In fact, the scores for most of the attributes were higher in CS1 than in any of the other CSs.

The lowest mean score for any of 13 attributes occurred in CS3 and belonged with the attribute *creative* (mean = 4.86). As noted in the previous section, no other attribute in any of the other CSs received a rating lower than 5, a rating which marks the scale's transition into the half that tended toward 'unimportant'.

The differential between the lowest and the highest mean score for each attribute can be observed on the vertical axis of Figure 3. It is one measure of how strongly students across CSs agreed on the importance of an attribute. Attributes with a small differential between the means across individual CSs included the attributes *easygoing* with a differential of 0.50 between the CS with the highest and the CS with the lowest ratings (CS1 and CS4, respectively); and *hardworking* with a differential of 0.51 between CS4 (highest ratings) and CS3 (lowest ratings). A larger differential of means and consequently less agreement among the CSs emerged for the attributes *creative,* with a differential of 2.24 between CS1 (highest ratings) and CS3 (lowest ratings); *funny,* with a 2.0 differential between CS1 (highest ratings) and CS4 (lowest ratings); and *proficient,* with a differential of 1.41 between CS1 (highest ratings) and CS2 (lowest ratings).

Descriptive statistics indicated some preliminary differences across the four CSs. However, it required inferential statistics to determine whether these differences are to be considered significant.

5.1.2.6 Comparison of students' responses between the CSs: Inferential analysis

An analysis of variance was used to test for significant differences between the means assigned by each of the four CSs to each of the 13 attributes. First, Levene's tests were performed to examine whether the distribution of the data would permit parametric tests. The results of Levene's tests (Appendix I1) revealed that the data were homogeneous and therefore, a series of

one-way ANOVAs (one test for each of the 13 attributes) was deemed appropriate for further testing. The alpha level of significance was set at $p < .004$ (.05/13). This alpha level reflects a Bonferroni correction so as to address the increased chance of Type I[7] error due to multiple comparisons. The results of the series of ANOVAs are presented in Table 11 below.

Table 11. One-way ANOVAs of the mean importance ratings of each of the 13 attributes as assigned by each of the four CSs; n = 50 (49•)

Attribute		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig. *p* - value
Confident	Between Groups	8.028	3	2.676	.653	.585
	Within Groups	188.452	46	4.097		
	Total	196.480	49			
Hardworking	Between Groups	2.673	3	.891	.409	.748
	Within Groups	100.307	46	2.181		
	Total	102.980	49			
Proficient	Between Groups	12.774	3	4.258	1.530	.220
	Within Groups	125.226	45	2.783		
	Total	138.000	48			
Prepared	Between Groups	4.770	3	1.590	.700	.557
	Within Groups	104.450	46	2.271		
	Total	109.220	49			
Funny	Between Groups	23.883	3	7.961	1.802	.160
	Within Groups	203.238	46	4.418		
	Total	227.120	49			
Easygoing	Between Groups	1.473	3	.491	.209	.890
	Within Groups	108.307	46	2.355		
	Total	109.780	49			
Focused	Between Groups	11.393	3	3.798	2.208	.100
	Within Groups	79.107	46	1.720		
	Total	90.500	49			
Patient	Between Groups	6.425	3	2.142	1.044	.382
	Within Groups	94.395	46	2.052		
	Total	100.820	49			
Kind	Between Groups	5.928	3	1.976	.880	.459
	Within Groups	103.352	46	2.247		
	Total	109.280	49			
Helpful	Between Groups	13.454	3	4.485	2.139	.108
	Within Groups	96.466	46	2.097		
	Total	109.920	49			
Tolerant	Between Groups	12.634	3	4.211	1.426	.247
	Within Groups	135.866	46	2.954		
	Total	148.500	49			
Creative	Between Groups	35.228	3	11.743	3.901	.015
	Within Groups	138.452	46	3.010		
	Total	173.680	49			
Likeable	Between Groups	8.143	3	2.714	.677	.570
	Within Groups	184.357	46	4.008		
	Total	192.500	49			

• For the attribute *proficient* only 49 ratings were recorded.

[7] Type I error represent a 'false positive' or an incorrect rejection of a true null hypothesis, detecting an effect that is not present.

The results of the ANOVA tests revealed no significant difference in means for any of the 13 attributes when the four CSs were compared and when taking into account the adjusted alpha level of $p < .004$.

In answer to RQ1b, descriptive statistics had shown some differences between the four CSs in terms of how important they considered each of 13 attributes in a hypothetical ideal peer. However, based on the inferential tests that included adjustments for multiple repeated comparisons, none of these differences proved to be statistically significant. In sum, despite some distinguishing trends that emerged in descriptive statistical analysis, it can be assumed that respondents in the four CSs constituted one single sample when they rated the importance of 13 attributes towards the makings of a hypothetical ideal peer. Based on results for RQ1b, the four initial subpopulations were merged into one sample for further analyses, thereby reducing the number of comparisons and, as a consequence, of Type I error.

5.1.3 RQ1c. Into what principal components (personality constituents) could 13 attributes of a hypothetical ideal peer be grouped based on the ratings of importance accorded by college students of second-semester German at the beginning of an academic semester?

Even when the four CSs were treated as one sample, the possibility of Type I error persisted for further testing as long as the 13 attributes were kept separate. In order to enable additional comparisons of ratings, such as ratings across time, as well as to explore the conceptual relatedness among the individual attributes, RQ1c examined whether the 13 attributes may be grouped into fewer principal components. To that end, a principal component analysis (PCA) was performed on the data used to answer RQs 1a and 1b.

First, a scree plot (Figure 4 below) was created that shows the Eigenvalues for each component when the maximum number of components (13) were extracted. The three components that preceded the ‘elbow’ in the curve and together accounted for the largest

percentage variance (64%) were identified as the principal components, yielding a three-principal-component solution.

Figure 4. Variance explained by principal components in the dataset (importance of attributes for a peer to be considered hypothetical ideal)

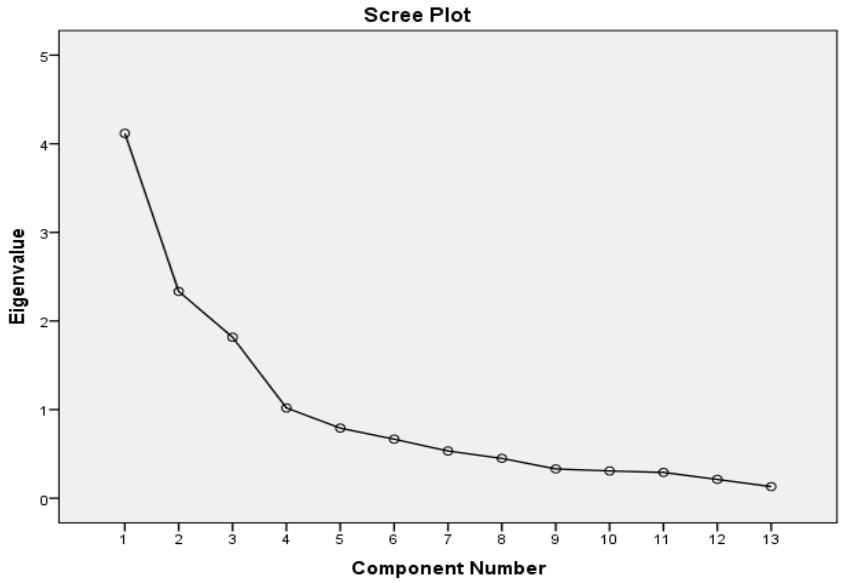


Table 12 (below) presents the loadings of each of the 13 attributes on each of the three principal components. Eigenvalues of at least 0.5 (highlighted) were considered an indication of an attribute loading on a component.

Table 12. Eigenvalue loadings of 13 attributes of a hypothetical ideal peer on three principal components

Attribute	EV loading on component 1	EV loading on component 2	EV loading on component 3
Confident	-0.117	0.805	0.024
Hardworking	0.181	0.831	-0.14
Proficient	-0.368	0.531	0.529
Prepared	0.088	0.743	-0.015
Funny	-0.028	-0.107	0.829
Easygoing	0.464	-0.12	0.533
Focused	0.674	0.384	0.027
Patient	0.779	0.16	-0.221
Kind	0.798	-0.022	0.062
Helpful	0.776	-0.038	0.071
Tolerant	0.805	-0.135	0.147
Creative	0.269	0.065	0.586
Likeable	-0.009	-0.03	0.809

One attribute, *proficient*, exhibited Eigenvalues of at least 0.5 when loaded on two principal components, i.e., 2 and 3. So as to preserve a degree of tidiness in the data, the attribute *proficient* was assigned to only one of the two components, namely, to the one on which it loaded slightly higher, i.e., Component 2. Somewhat similarly, the attribute *easygoing* came close to meeting the loading requirement of 0.5 on a second component (Component 1 at 0.464); however, due to its higher loading on Component 3 (0.533) it was assigned to that component.

In response to RQ1c, PCA suggested that the 13 attributes be divided into three composite variables, which were then labeled to reflect the specific type of thematic relatedness that united each respective group of attributes. These three components from now on will be referred to as the 'personality constituents'. They were each named in reference to the respective overarching profile, as follows:

1. *Accommodator (patient, kind, helpful, tolerant, focused*);
2. *Expert (confident, hardworking, proficient, prepared*); and
3. *Entertainer (funny, creative, easygoing, likeable*).

The next group of research questions (RQs 1d-i) examined students' beliefs as they related to the importance of the attributes for a hypothetical peer to be thought of as ideal. These analyses, in turn, built on the results of the reduction analysis reported on above, i.e., with the personality constituents *Accommodator*, *Expert*, and *Entertainer* representing the 13 individual attributes. The ratings of importance of the 13 attributes in class peers associated with the three constituents will be referred to as 'important-in-a-hypothetical-ideal-peer ratings'.

RQs 1d-1i relied on two data sets. The first data set was identical to the set used in RQs 1a, 1b, and 1c, i.e., importance scores assigned by students to 13 characteristics of a hypothetical ideal peer in the *Situated Disposition Questionnaire 1 (SDQ1)* that had been administered at the beginning of the semester (Week 2). The second data set came from an identical version of the

questionnaire that was re-administered in Week 13 as *Situated Disposition Questionnaire 2 (SDQ2)*.

Before proceeding to inferential statistical analyses, Levene's tests of equality of variance were applied to both data sets (Appendix I2). These tests showed the data to be suitable for parametric analyses. Subsequently, a series of one-way ANOVAs (Appendix J1) were performed on each of the two data sets. The results of the ANOVAs confirmed that there were no significant differences among ratings given by the four CSs. Hence, the four CSs will be treated as one group in synchronic (analyses within data set 1, RQs 1d and 1g; and within data set 2, RQs 1e and 1h) as well as in diachronic (between data set 1 and data set 2; RQ1f and RQ1i) comparisons. The assessment of students' beliefs as well as the contrasts between those beliefs will be reported on first (RQs 1d, 1e, and 1f), followed by an account of the relationships between students' beliefs (RQs 1g, 1h, 1i).

RQs 1d and 1e addressed students' beliefs about the importance of the three personality constituents in an ideal peer as recorded at the beginning (RQ1d) and then at the end of the semester (RQ1e). RQ1f examined the contrast between these beliefs.

5.1.4 RQ1d. As how important did college students of second-semester German rate each of the three personality constituents, *Accommodator, Expert,* and *Entertainer,* when they considered the makings of a hypothetical ideal peer at the beginning of an academic semester?

To contextualize this research question, I will first present the descriptive statistics that captured the participants' combined ratings of the importance of each of the three personality constituents as measured at the administration of *SDQ1* in Week 2. Due to the fact that each personality constituent represents not just one attribute but a collection of attributes, Table 13 (below) reports the means of means of all attributes associated with each constituent (in further reporting

described as ‘composite means’); the means of minimum and maximum scores assigned to attributes; the differentials between the means of minimum and maximum scores assigned to attributes; the absolute minimum and maximum scores when examining all attributes associated with each constituent; and the differential between the absolute minimum and maximum scores when examining all attributes associated with each constituent. The absolute minimum and maximum scores differ from the means of minimum and maximum scores in that they represent the very lowest and the very highest ratings recorded among the ratings of all attributes comprised under each constituent.

Please recall that in Week 2, the attribute *proficient* (comprised under *Expert)* was the only attribute that received 49, not 50 ratings (see RQ1a, Figure 2). As each of the personality constituents was built on mean ratings of several attributes, the constituent *Expert,* in addition to representing the mean ratings of the attribute *proficient* (n = 49), also comprised the mean ratings of three other attributes (*prepared*, *hardworking*, and *confident;* n = 50). Therefore, so as to include the ratings for these three attributes given by the 50th respondent (who did not provide a rating for the attribute *proficient*), all 50 ratings for these three attributes were included in analyses even as only 49 ratings were available for the fourth (*proficient*). Hence, in Week 2, the number of participants considered for the calculations related to each of the personality constituents remained at 50.

Table 13. Important-in-a-hypothetical-ideal-peer ratings of each of the three personality constituents given in Week 2; n = 50

Personality constituent (Peer – Week 2)	Attributes comprised under each of these personality constituents	Composite mean	Mean of minimum scores	Mean of maximum scores	Differential between means of minimum and means of maximum scores	Absolute minimum score from among all attributes	Absolute maximum score from among all attributes	Differential between absolute minimum and absolute maximum scores from among all attributes
Accommodator	*patient kind helpful tolerant focused*	7.92	4.20	10.00	5.80	3	10	7

Expert	*confident hardworking proficient prepared*	7.09	3.75	9.50	5.75	1	10	9
Entertainer	*funny creative easygoing likeable*	6.44	4.00	9.50	5.50	0	10	10

On a 0-10 point scale (0 = not important, 10 = very important), the composite means of attributes comprised under each of the three constituents spanned from 6.44 to 7.92, and corresponded with scale labels that ranged from 'important' to 'very important'. The highest mean important-in-a-hypothetical-ideal-peer ratings in the beginning of the semester were assigned to the attributes under the personality constituent *Accommodator* (composite mean = 7.92). These were followed by ratings of attributes under the constituent *Expert* (composite mean = 7.09). The attributes comprised under the constituent *Entertainer* received the lowest mean ratings (composite mean = 6.44). Every one of the 13 attributes received the highest rating of 10 by at least one respondent. The lowest possible score 0 was ascribed to only one attribute (*funny,* comprised under *Entertainer*) by only one respondent.

To measure whether in Week 2 the difference between the composite means values recorded for each of the personality constituents was statistically significant, a repeated measure ANOVA was performed (Appendix J2). Results revealed a significant difference among the composite means scores of the three constituents ($p = .000$). To determine which of the specific composite mean scores differed from each other, pairwise comparisons between the personality constituents were conducted. As the tests were conducted post-hoc, the alpha level of statistical significance was set to the customary $p < .05$.

Results of the pairwise comparisons are presented in Table 14 (below). The significant *p*-values are marked with asterisks as follows: * $p \leq .05$; ** $p \leq .01$, and *** $p \leq .001$. Please note that the difference between the composite means within each pair could be expressed with either

a positive or a negative number: a positive difference in composite means conveys that the first constituent of the pair received higher ratings than the second constituent whereas a negative difference in composite means reflects the opposite, i.e., that the second constituent of the pair was rated higher than the first constituent.

Table 14. Differences in composite means of important-in-a-hypothetical-ideal-peer ratings between pairs derived from the three personality constituents [1] given in Week 2; n=50

Pairs of personality constituents		**Differences in composite means of attributes comprised under pairs of personality constituents in Week 2 (A – B)**	**Sig. *p* - value**
(A) constituent	**(B) constituent**		
Accommodator	*Expert*	.83***	**.000**
	Entertainer	1.48***	**.000**
Expert	*Accommodator*	-.83***	**.000**
	Entertainer	.65*	**.011**
Entertainer	*Accommodator*	-1.48***	**.000**
	Expert	-.65*	**.011**

Significance: * $p < .05$, ** $p \leq .01$, and *** $p \leq .001$

[1]Composite means scores in Week 2: *Accommodator* (7.92); *Expert* (7.09); and *Entertainer* (6.44)

Results revealed that the differences in the composite means of important-in-a-hypothetical-ideal-peer ratings in pairwise comparisons between the personality constituents *Accommodator, Expert*, and *Entertainer* were statistically significant in each instance.

In other words, of the three personality constituents, the attributes of *Accommodator* were considered significantly more important than those represented either by *Expert* or by *Entertainer*. When qualities connoted by *Expert* and *Entertainer*, respectively, were compared, attributes associated with the *Expert* were thought of as the significantly more important of the two.

Data for responses analyzed in RQ1e came from *SDQ2*, which had been administered during Week 13 of the academic semester. Recall that *SDQ2* was nearly identical to *SDQ1* (administered in Week 2), which had served as the source of data for RQs 1a-d. As in RQ1d, the

important-in-a-hypothetical-ideal-peer ratings of attributes were comprised under each of the three personality constituents *Accommodator*, *Expert*, and *Entertainer*. Please note, too, that the number of respondents in Week 13 showed a 10 % decrease when compared to the number of respondents in Week 2, equal to a drop of 5 participants – from 50 participants in Week 2 to 45 participants in Week 13. It needs to be mentioned that these two participant groups were not in an exact subset relationship, meaning that not all 45 students who participated in Week 13 also participated in Week 2. Students who participated in both Week 2 and Week 13 totaled 41. Four students participated only in Week 13. In other words, the 45 student participants in Week 13 included the 41 students who participated in both Week 2 and Week 13, plus the 4 students who participated only in Week 13.

5.1.5 RQ1e. As how important did college students of second-semester German rate each of the three personality constituents, *Accommodator, Expert,* and *Entertainer,* when they considered the makings of a hypothetical ideal peer at the end of an academic semester?

As in RQ1d, the descriptive statistics for the important-in-a-hypothetical-ideal-peer ratings of attributes associated with each of the three personality constituents are shown first (Table 15). All categories of the descriptive statistics displayed here are identical to those presented in Table 13 (RQ1d).

Table 15. Important-in-a-hypothetical-ideal-peer ratings of each of the three personality constituents given in Week 13; n = 45

Personality constituent (Peer – Week 13)	Attributes comprised under each of these personality constituents	Composite mean	Mean of minimum scores	Mean of maximum scores	Differential between means of minimum and means of maximum scores	Absolute minimum score from among all attributes	Absolute maximum score from among all attributes	Differential between absolute minimum and absolute maximum scores from among all attributes
Accommodator	*patient kind helpful tolerant focused*	7.65	5.00	9.40	4.40	3	10	7
Expert	*confident hardworking proficient prepared*	7.10	4.25	9.00	4.75	2	10	8

Entertainer	*funny creative easygoing likeable*	6.36	2.75	8.75	6.00	0	10	10

At the end of the academic semester, respondents from the combined CSs gave the highest mean important-in-a-hypothetical-ideal-peer ratings to attributes comprised under the constituent *Accommodator* (composite mean = 7.65). Attributes represented by the constituent *Expert* received a lower composite mean score (7.10) than those that constituted *Accommodator* but were rated higher than the attributes comprised under *Entertainer* (composite mean = 6.36). Keeping the scale of ratings in mind (0 = not important, 10 = very important), the participants' ratings of each attribute lay between the scale labels of 'important' to 'very important'. At least one respondent awarded the highest possible score of 10 to each of the attributes with the exception of *proficient* (comprised under *Expert*). The lowest possible score of 0 was recorded only for one respondent from CS1 for the attribute *creative* (comprised under *Entertainer*).

A repeated measures ANOVA (Appendix J3) in Week 13 showed a statistically significant difference ($p = .000$) among personality constituents when the composite means of respectively combined attributes were compared. To provide more detail about the size and location of this difference, pairwise comparisons of the mean ratings of combined attributes assigned to each of the personality constituents were performed. Results are reported in Table 16. The alpha level of statistical significance was set at $p < .05$.

Please recall that a positive difference between the composite means implies a higher composite rating for the first constituent in the pair; conversely, a negative difference between the composite means signals a higher composite rating for the second constituent in the pair.

Table 16. Differences in composite means of important-in-a-hypothetical-ideal-peer ratings between pairs derived from the three personality constituents[1] given in Week 13; n=45

Personality constituents		**Differences in composite means between attributes comprised under pairs of personality constituents in Week 13 (A – B)**	**Sig. *p* - value**
(A) constituents	**(B) constituents**		
Accommodator	*Expert*	.55***	**.001**
	Entertainer	1.29***	**.000**
Expert	*Accommodator*	-.549***	**.001**
	Entertainer	.739**	**.002**
Entertainer	*Accommodator*	-1.288***	**.000**
	Expert	-.739**	**.002**

Significance: * $p < .05$, ** $p \leq .01$, and *** $p \leq .001$

[1]Composite means scores in Week 13: *Accommodator* (7.65); *Expert* (7.10); and *Entertainer* (6.36)

As shown in Table 16, all paired comparisons of participants' ratings of the importance of attributes under the three personality constituents proved to be significantly different from each other in all three pairs.

To sum up, at the end of the semester, respondents considered the attributes of *Accommodator* to be more important in a hypothetical ideal peer than those of *Expert* and *Entertainer*. The respondents also perceived the attributes of *Expert* to be more important than the attributes associated with *Entertainer*.

RQ1f explored how the important-in-a-hypothetical-ideal-peer ratings of attributes comprised under the three constituents and taken in Week 2 differed from the same ratings recorded in Week 13. Data for RQ1f came from *Situated Disposition Questionnaire 1* and *Situated Disposition Questionnaire 2*, which were administered during Week 2 and 13 of the academic semester, respectively. Please note that for the comparisons across time to be valid, only data from those participants who completed both administrations of the questionnaire were included in the analysis. This requirement resulted in a reduction of participants to a total of 41.

5.1.6 RQ1f. Did college students of second-semester German accord significantly different degrees of importance to each of the three personality constituents, *Accommodator*, *Expert*, and *Entertainer*, respectively, when they considered the makings of a hypothetical ideal peer at the beginning as compared to the end of an academic semester?

To answer RQ1f, a series of paired t-tests were performed so as to compare the important-in-a-hypothetical-ideal-peer ratings of attributes represented by each of the three personality constituents given in Week 2 with those assigned in Week 13. Table 17 shows the results. Please note that due to the reduced number of participants, the composite means of personality constituents as displayed in Table 17 are different from those shown in Tables 13 and 15.

A Bonferroni correction was used to compensate for performing three tests, and the alpha level of statistical significance was lowered to $p < .017$ (.05/3). Statistical significance was considered marginal when the p – value was between .017 and .05.

Table 17. Differences in composite means of important-in-a-hypothetical-ideal-peer ratings between pairs of each of the three personality constituents, respectively; given in Week 2 as compared to given in Week 13; n=41

	Composite means of personality constituents		Differences between composite means of personality constituents	Sig. *p* - value
Personality constituents	**(A) Week 2**	**(B) Week 13**		
Accommodator	7.97	7.58	.390$^{(*)}$	**.031**
Expert	7.20	7.03	.177	.326
Entertainer	6.46	6.26	.195	.376

Significance: $^{(*)}$ $.017 \leq p \leq .05$ (marginal), * $p < .017$, ** $p \leq .001$, *** $p < .0001$

Paired t-tests showed no significant differences between composite means from Week 2 and Week 13 as measured for the personality constituents *Expert* (composite mean difference = .177, $p = .326$) and *Entertainer* (composite mean difference = .195, $p = .376$). The difference between the composite means measured for the constituent *Accommodator* registered at the p level of .031, which fell short of the adjusted alpha level of significance that had been set for this series of tests (i.e., $p < .017$) and was subsequently designated to be 'marginally significant'. Stated otherwise, no change in ratings of importance was recorded for the attributes comprised

under the constituents *Expert* and *Entertainer* over an 11-week interval, and a marginally significant decline in ratings of importance was associated with attributes captured under the constituent *Accommodator*.

The next three RQs (1g, 1h, and 1i) explored correlations. RQs 1g and 1h, respectively, addressed the relationships among the three personality constituents in an ideal peer as recorded at the beginning (RQ1g) and then at the end of the semester (RQ1h). RQ1i had three subcomponents (one for each personality constituent) and examined the relationship between measures taken for each of the personality constituents at the beginning and the corresponding measures taken at the end of the semester.

5.1.7 RQ1g. At the beginning of an academic semester, was there a relationship between the views of college students of second-semester German of the importance of the personality constituent *Accommodator*, of the importance of the personality constituent *Expert*, and of the importance of the personality constituent *Entertainer* when they considered the makings of a hypothetical ideal peer?

To assess whether the important-in-a-hypothetical-ideal-peer ratings of attributes comprised under each of the three personality constituents were related to each other in Week 2, Pearson's correlation coefficients were calculated for all three paired combinations of constituents. Table 18 shows the results. The strength of the correlations was classified as follows: coefficients of 0.1 – 0.3 were designated as indicative of 'weak' correlations; coefficients of 0.4 – 0.6 as signaling 'moderate' correlations'; and coefficients of 0.7 and higher as showing 'strong' correlations. Because three tests were conducted, the alpha level of statistical significance was lowered to $p < .017$ (.05/3). In Week 2, there were 50 student participants.

Table 18. Relationships between the important-in-a-hypothetical-ideal-peer ratings of each of the three personality constituents given in Week 2; n = 50

Correlations between attributes comprised by these pairs of personality constituents (Week 2)		*Accommodator*	*Expert*	*Entertainer*
Accommodator	Correlation	1	.279(*)	.240
	p-value		**.050**	.093
Expert	Correlation		1	.110
	p-value			.446
Entertainer	Correlation			1
	p-value			

Significance: (*) .017 ≤ *p* ≤ .05 (marginal), * *p* < .017, ** *p* ≤ .001, *** *p* < .0001

The correlations between the important-in-a-hypothetical-ideal-peer ratings of attributes comprised under the personality constituents in the pairs *Accommodator – Entertainer* (r = .240, p = .093) and *Expert – Entertainer* (r = .110, p = .446) were found to be statistically non-significant and weak. The relationship between the importance ratings of attributes represented by the constituents *Accommodator – Expert* (r = .279, p = .050), though stronger than between the other two constituent pairings, was still weak and only marginally significant after the Bonferroni correction (alpha level of p < .017). These findings reaffirmed the conceptual separateness of the three personality constituents.

5.1.8 RQ1h. At the end of an academic semester, was there a relationship between the views of college students of second-semester German of the importance of the personality constituent *Accommodator,* of the importance of the personality constituent *Expert,* and of the importance of the personality constituent *Entertainer* when they considered the makings of a hypothetical ideal peer?

Table 19 shows the Pearson's correlation coefficients that were calculated for all three pairings of the important-in-a-hypothetical-ideal-peer ratings given in Week 13. The strength of the correlations is classified as in RQ1g. The alpha level of statistical significance was adjusted to p < 0.017 (0.05/3) due to repeated calculations. Forty five students participated in Week 13.

Table 19. Relationships between the important-in-a-hypothetical-ideal-peer ratings of each of the three personality constituents given in Week 13; n = 45

Correlations between attributes comprised by these pairs of personality constituents (Week 13)		*Accommodator*	*Expert*	*Entertainer*
Accommodator	Correlation	1	.566***	.396*
	p-value		**.000**	**.007**
Expert	Correlation		1	.252
	p-value			.095
Entertainer	Correlation			1
	p-value			

Significance: * $p < .017$, ** $p \leq .001$, *** $p < .0001$

In Week 13 of the semester, respondents' beliefs with respect to the importance of the attributes comprised under each of the three personality constituents in hypothetical ideal class peers showed positive correlations. They also correlated significantly and moderately between ratings of attributes associated with the constituents *Accommodator* and *Expert* ($r = .566$, $p = .000$), and *Accommodator* and *Entertainer* ($r = .396$, $p = .007$). The correlation between the ratings of importance of attributes under constituents *Expert* and *Entertainer* was non-significant. ($r = .252$, $p = .095$). In other words, participants' ratings of importance of attributes represented by the constituents *Expert* and *Entertainer* did not relate but ratings of importance of attributes that constituted each, respectively, related to the ratings of importance of attributes that comprised the constituent *Accommodator*.

5.1.9 RQ1i. Was there a relationship between the views of college students of second-semester German of the importance of each of the three personality constituents, *Accommodator*, *Expert*, and *Entertainer*, respectively, at the beginning and at the end of an academic semester?

Table 20 displays Pearson's correlation coefficients calculated for the relationship between scores of importance given to attributes represented by each of the three personality constituents in Week 2 and 13, respectively. The strength designations of the correlations as 'weak',

'moderate', and 'strong' was set to be the same as in RQs 1g and 1h. The alpha level was adjusted to $p < .017$, accounting for repeated (three) calculations. Forty-one students participated in both the Week 2 and the Week 13 administration of the *SDQ*.

Table 20. Relationships between the important-in-a-hypothetical-ideal-peer ratings of each of the three personality constituents, respectively; given in Week 2 as compared to given in Week 13; n = 41

Correlations between attributes comprised by these pairs of personality constituents			**Week 13**		
			Accommodator	*Expert*	*Entertainer*
Week 2	*Accommodator*	Correlation	.530**		
		p-value	**.000**		
	Expert	Correlation		.551**	
		p-value		**.000**	
	Entertainer	Correlation			.465*
		p-value			**.002**

Significance: * $p < .017$, ** $p \leq .001$, *** $p < .0001$

Respondents' beliefs at the beginning and at the end of the semester indicated significant and moderate positive correlation with regard to attributes associated with the constituent *Accommodator* ($r = .530$, $p = .000$), even though the ratings for attributes under *Accommodator* had turned out to be lower, with marginal significance, in Week 13 than in Week 2 (see results for RQ1f). Also, a significant and moderate positive correlation between Week 2 and Week 13 was found for ratings of importance of attributes represented by the constituent *Expert* ($r = .551$, $p = .000$) and those comprised under the constituent *Entertainer* ($r = .465$, $p = .002$). To sum up, participants' ratings of importance of attributes captured by a given constituent in Week 2 predicted ratings of the same constituent in Week 13.

Theme 1 had first focused on the contribution of the 13 attributes and then on the contribution of the three personality constituents *Accommodator*, *Expert*, and *Entertainer* toward the makings of

a hypothetical ideal peer. By contrast, Theme 2 aimed at what students believed about their selves in terms of possessing the three personality constituents.

5.2 Theme 2: The contribution of the three personality constituents to students' beliefs about their selves

Six research questions (RQs 2a-f) related to Theme 2. Pertinent quantitative analyses (descriptive and inferential) corresponded in their structure and format to those utilized in the description of results in Theme 1 (RQs 1d-i).

Data relevant to Theme 2 came from questions 57-69 of both *SDQ1* (administered in Week 2) and *SDQ2* (administered in Week 13). Again, each of the 13 questions represented one of the 13 learner attributes. Students rated the extent to which they saw their selves as possessing each suggested attribute on a scale from 0-10 (0 = not at all, 10 = extremely). In the ensuing presentation, these ratings will be referred to as 'present-in-self ratings'.

Both data sets were subjected to Levene's tests (Appendix I3) of equality of variance to find out whether the data would be suitable for parametric tests. After the results of Levene's tests showed the data to be homogeneous, a series of one-way ANOVAs (Appendix J4) were conducted to find out whether all four CSs could be treated as one group in the analysis of results for Theme 2. As multiple tests (three for each set) were conducted, the alpha level of statistical significance was lowered to $p < .017$ (.05/3). Based on the adjusted alpha level, the results of one-way ANOVAs showed no statistically significant difference between the CSs. On that account, the description of results related to Theme 2 will treat the study participants from all four CSs as members of the same group.

RQs 2a-f examined the present-in-self ratings of attributes connoted by each of the three personality constituents, *Accommodator*, *Expert*, and *Entertainer*. The present-in-self ratings of

attributes comprised under the three constituents were compared synchronically, within each of the two data sets, *SDQ1* (RQs 2a and 2d) and *SDQ2* (RQs 2b and 2e), and diachronically, between the two data sets (RQs 2c and 2f). A description of students' beliefs about their selves will be presented first, followed by reports of results from analyses of difference, and finally, by an account of the results that correlation analyses yielded.

RQs 2a and 2b explored students' beliefs about the presence of the three personality constituents in their selves as recorded at the beginning (RQ2a) and then at the end of the semester (RQ2b). RQ2c addressed the contrast between these beliefs.

5.2.1 RQ2a. In the views of college students of second-semester German, to what degree did they themselves possess each of the three personality constituents, *Accommodator, Expert,* and *Entertainer*, at the beginning of an academic semester?

Table 21 shows descriptive statistics for the present-in-self ratings of attributes associated with each constituent. To reflect the fact that each constituent consisted of several attributes, the statistics include the means of means (referred to as 'composite means') of all attributes under each constituent; the means of minimum and maximum scores of attributes; and the differentials between the means of minimum and maximum scores of all attributes connoted by each constituent. Table 21 also presents the absolute minimum and maximum scores from among all attributes associated with each constituent, and the differential between the absolute minimum and maximum scores. The number of participants equaled 50.

Table 21. Present-in-self ratings of each of the three personality constituents given in Week 2; n = 50

Personality constituent (Self – Week 2)	Attributes comprised under each of these personality constituents	Composite mean	Mean of minimum scores	Mean of maximum scores	Differential between means of minimum and means of maximum scores	Absolute minimum score from among all attributes	Absolute maximum score from among all attributes	Differential between absolute minimum and absolute maximum scores from among all attributes
Accommodator	*patient kind helpful tolerant focused*	7.70	4.80	10.00	5.20	3	10	7

Expert	*confident hardworking proficient prepared*	6.80	3.75	9.75	6.00	0	10	10
Entertainer	*funny creative easygoing likeable*	6.76	3.25	9.50	6.25	0	10	10

At the beginning of the semester, on a 0-10 point scale (0 = not at all, 10 = extremely), the composite means of present-in-self ratings were the highest when respondents rated the attributes associated with the constituent *Accommodator* (composite mean = 7.70). The second highest composite mean was found for the constituent *Expert* (6.80), which was closely followed by the composite mean of the constituent *Entertainer* (6.76). Every one of the 13 attributes received a maximum score of 10 from at least one respondent. Further, the attribute *confident* (comprised under *Expert*) received the lowest possible score of 0 from one respondent from CS3 and one respondent from CS4. The attribute *funny* (comprised under *Entertainer*), too, received one score of 0 from one respondent from CS4.

To sum up, based on descriptive statistics, student participants perceived that they possessed the qualities of *Accommodator* to a larger degree than they possessed the qualities associated with either *Expert* or *Entertainer*. Moreover, some students believed that they completely lacked several of the attributes comprised under *Expert* and *Entertainer*, such as being *confident* or *funny*.

A repeated measures ANOVA (Appendix J5) further examined whether the differences in composite means of present-in-self ratings between the three personality constituents were statistically significant. As the difference proved significant (p = .000), pairwise comparisons between the attributes comprised under the pairs of the three personality constituents were performed to find out where the difference lay (Table 22, below). Due to the post-hoc nature of the comparisons, the alpha level was set at the customary $p < .05$. As in earlier reporting, a

positive difference between the composite means signals a higher composite mean for the first constituent in the pair; conversely, a negative difference between the composite means implies a higher composite mean rating for the second constituent in the pair.

Table 22. Differences in composite means of present-in-self ratings between pairs derived from the three personality constituents[1] given in Week 2; n=50

Pairs of personality constituents		**Differences in composite means between attributes comprised under pairs of personality constituents in Week 2 (A – B)**	**Sig. *p* – value**
(A) constituents	**(B) constituents**		
Accommodator	*Expert*	.909***	**.000**
	Entertainer	.941***	**.000**
Expert	*Accommodator*	-.909***	**.000**
	Entertainer	.032	.881
Entertainer	*Accommodator*	-.941***	**.000**
	Expert	-.032	.881

Significance: * p < .05, ** p ≤ .01, and *** p ≤ .001

[1]Composite means scores in Week 2: *Accommodator* (7.70); *Expert* (6.80); and *Entertainer* (6.76)

In Week 2, the paired comparisons of participants' composite means of present-in-self ratings of attributes under the three personality constituents showed a statistically significant difference between the ratings of attributes in the *Accommodator – Expert* and *Accommodator – Entertainer* pairs (p = .000). When the same ratings were compared between the constituents *Expert* and *Entertainer*, the difference was non-significant (p = .881). Put differently, while student participants believed they possessed the qualities of *Accommodator* to a larger degree than they did the qualities connoted by each of the other two constituents, they made virtually no distinction between the extent to which they possessed the attributes of *Expert* and those of *Entertainer*.

5.2.2 RQ2b. In the views of college students of second-semester German, to what degree did they themselves possess each of the three personality constituents, *Accommodator, Expert,* and *Entertainer,* at the end of an academic semester?

To contextualize RQ2b, Table 23 presents the descriptive statistics for the present-in-self ratings of attributes associated with each of the three personality constituents. All categories of the descriptive statistics shown here are identical to those presented in Table 21 (RQ2a). In Week 13, the number of participants equaled 45.

Table 23. Present-in-self ratings of each of the three personality constituents given in Week 13, n = 45

Personality constituent (Self – Week 13)	Attributes comprised under each of these personality constituents	Composite mean	Mean of minimum scores	Mean of maximum scores	Differential between means of minimum and means of maximum scores	Absolute minimum score from among all attributes	Absolute maximum score from among all attributes	Differential between absolute minimum and absolute maximum scores from among all attributes
Accommodator	*patient kind helpful tolerant focused*	7.39	3.40	9.60	6.20	2	10	8
Expert	*confident hardworking proficient prepared*	6.51	3.00	9.00	6.00	0	10	10
Entertainer	*funny creative easygoing likeable*	6.78	3.00	9.75	6.75	0	10	10

At the end of the semester, on a 0-10 point scale (0 = not at all, 10 = extremely), respondents accorded the highest composite means of present-in-self ratings to the constituent *Accommodator* (composite mean = 7.39). The constituent *Entertainer* (composite mean = 6.78) was associated with the second highest composite mean present-in-self ratings whereas the lowest composite mean belonged to the constituent *Expert* (composite mean = 6.51). All but three attributes (*proficient* and *confident*, comprised under *Expert*, and *focused*, comprised under *Accommodator*) received the maximum score of 10 from at least one respondent. Three attributes received the lowest possible score of 0: *confident* from three respondents, and *creative* and *funny* from one respondent each.

To sum up, based on descriptive statistical analyses, at the end of the semester students thought of their selves first as *Accommodators*, second as *Entertainers*, and lastly as *Experts*. Several students believed that they completely lacked confidence, creativity, or the ability to be

funny. None of the participating students perceived that they possessed extremely high proficiency, confidence, or focus.

A repeated measures ANOVA was conducted (Appendix J6) to measure whether at the end of the semester the difference in composite means of present-in-self ratings between the three personality constituents was statistically significant. As the difference was found to be significant (p = .001), post-hoc pairwise comparisons as to where the difference lay between the three sets of attributes were performed. The customary alpha level of $p < .05$ was used. Results of the comparisons are presented in Table 24 below. As has been established in previous reporting practices, a positive difference between the composite means signals a higher composite mean rating for the first constituent in the pair; conversely, a negative difference implies a higher composite mean rating for the second constituent in the pair.

Table 24. Differences in composite means of present-in-self ratings between pairs derived from the three personality constituents[1] given in Week 13; n=45

Pairs of personality constituents		**Differences in composite means between attributes comprised under pairs of personality constituents in Week 13 (A – B)**	**Sig. *p* – value**
(A) constituents	**(B) constituents**		
Accommodator	*Expert*	.886***	**.000**
	Entertainer	.611**	**.003**
Expert	*Accommodator*	-.886***	**.000**
	Entertainer	-.274	.292
Entertainer	*Accommodator*	-.611**	**.003**
	Expert	.274	.292

Significance: * p < .05, ** p ≤ .01, and *** p ≤ .001
[1]Composite means scores in Week 13: *Accommodator* (7.39); *Expert* (6.51); and *Entertainer* (6.78)

In Week 13, composite means of present-in-self ratings of the attributes associated with the three constituents showed a significant difference in the *Accommodator – Expert* (p = .000), and the *Accommodator – Entertainer* (p = .003) pairs. No difference was found between the composite means of present-in-self ratings of attributes connoted by the constituents in the *Expert – Entertainer* (p = .292) pair.

In other words, based on results of inferential statistical analyses, at the end of the semester students believed they possessed the qualities of *Accommodator* more than they did the qualities of either *Entertainer* or *Expert*. Further, they perceived they possessed the qualities of *Entertainer* to about the same degree as they did the qualities of *Expert*.

5.2.3 RQ2c. Among college students of second-semester German, did their views of the degree to which they themselves possessed each of the three personality constituents, *Accommodator, Expert,* and *Entertainer,* at the beginning of an academic semester differ from their views of the same at the end of an academic semester?

A series of paired t-tests were performed so as to compare the present-in-self ratings of attributes represented by each of the three personality constituents given in Week 2 with those assigned in Week 13. Results are presented in Table 25. Due to the reduced number of participants (41), the composite means of personality constituents as displayed in Table 25 are different from those shown in Tables 21 and 23. Based on a Bonferroni adjustment made due to three performed tests, the alpha level of statistical significance was lowered to $p < .017$ (.05/3).

Table 25. Differences in composite means of present-in-self ratings between pairs of each of the three personality constituents, respectively; given in Week 2 as compared to given in Week 13; n=41

	Composite means of personality constituents		Differences between composite means of personality constituents	Sig. *p* - value
Personality constituents	**(A) Week 2**	**(B) Week 13**		
Accommodator	7.81	7.46	.346	.070
Expert	6.78	6.43	.354	.130
Entertainer	6.72	6.81	-.096	.606

Significance: $^{(*)}$ $.017 \leq p \leq .05$ (marginal), * $p < .017$, ** $p \leq .001$, *** $p < .0001$

Results of paired t-tests revealed no significant differences between the composite means of present-in-self ratings of attributes connoted by each constituent in Week 2 when compared to the same as measured in Week 13 (*Accommodator,* mean difference = .346, $p = .070$; *Expert,* mean difference = .354, $p = .130$; and *Entertainer,* mean difference = -.096, $p = .606$). In other words, students' perceptions of the degree to which they possessed the qualities associated with

each of the three constituents did not change as time passed between the beginning and the end of the semester.

5.2.4 RQ2d. At the beginning of an academic semester, was there a relationship between the views of college students of second-semester German of the degree to which they themselves possessed the personality constituent *Accommodator,* of the degree to which they themselves possessed the personality constituent *Expert,* and of the degree to which they themselves possessed the personality constituent *Entertainer*?

To assess the strength of the relationship between the composite means of present-in-self ratings of attributes associated with the three personality constituents, Pearson's correlations coefficients were calculated for all three pairs of constituents (Table 26, below). As before, coefficients of 0.1 – 0.3 indicated 'weak' correlations; coefficients of 0.4 – 0.6 showed 'moderate' correlations'; and coefficients of 0.7 and higher signaled 'strong' correlations. Due to repeated calculations, the alpha level was adjusted to $p < .017$ (.05/3). Data were collected from 50 student participants.

Table 26. Relationships between the present-in-self ratings of each of the three personality constituents given in Week 2; n = 50

Correlations between attributes comprised by these pairs of personality constituents (Week 2)		*Accommodator*	*Expert*	*Entertainer*
Accommodator	Correlation	1	.550***	.420*
	p-value		**.000**	**.002**
Expert	Correlation		1	.452**
	p-value			**.001**
Entertainer	Correlation			1
	p-value			

Significance: * $p < .017$, ** $p \leq .001$, *** $p < .0001$

In Week 2, the present-in-self ratings of attributes associated with each of the three personality constituents were found to be significantly and moderately positively correlated in all three constituent pairs (*Accommodator – Expert*, $p = .000$, $r = .550$; *Accommodator – Entertainer*, $p = .002$, $r = .420$; and *Expert – Entertainer*, $p = .001$, $r = .452$). As results indicate,

students' beliefs about their selves as possessing qualities comprised under the three personality constituents at the beginning of the semester were found to be conceptually cohesive.

5.2.5 RQ2e. At the end of an academic semester, was there a relationship between the views of college students of second-semester German of the degree to which they themselves possessed the personality constituent *Accommodator*, of the degree to which they themselves possessed the personality constituent *Expert,* and of the degree to which they themselves possessed the personality constituent *Entertainer*?

Table 27 presents Pearson's correlation coefficients that were calculated for all three pairings of constituents based on the present-in-self ratings given in Week 13 to the attributes connoted by each. The strength of the correlations was marked as in RQ2d. As three calculations were conducted, the alpha level of statistical significance was adjusted to $p < .017$ (.05/3). The total number of participants equaled 45.

Table 27. Relationships between the present-in-self ratings of each of the three personality constituents given in Week 13, n = 45

Correlations between attributes comprised by these pairs of personality constituents (Week 13)		*Accommodator*	*Expert*	*Entertainer*
Accommodator	Correlation	1	.583***	.661***
	p-value		**.000**	**.000**
Expert	Correlation		1	.470**
	p-value			**.001**
Entertainer	Correlation			1
	p-value			

Significance: * $p < .017$, ** $p \leq .001$, *** $p < .0001$

In Week 13, the present-in-self ratings of attributes connoted by each of the personality constituents correlated significantly and moderately positively in all three pairs of constituents (*Accommodator – Expert*, $p = .000$, $r = .583$; *Accommodator – Entertainer*, $p = .000$, $r = .661$; and *Expert – Entertainer*, $p = .001$, $r = .470$). At the end of the semester, students' beliefs about their selves as possessing attributes associated with one constituent predicted their beliefs about possessing attributes associated with either one of the other two constituents.

RQ2f explored how the present-in-self ratings of attributes comprised under the three constituents accorded by respondents in Week 2 differed from the same as given in Week 13. As only data from those participants who provided present-in-self ratings in both Week 2 and Week 13 were included in the analyses of RQ2f, the total number of participants was reduced to 41.

5.2.6 RQ2f. Was there a relationship between the views of college students of second-semester German of the degree to which they themselves possessed each of the three personality constituents, *Accommodator, Expert,* and *Entertainer,* respectively, at the beginning and at the end of an academic semester?

Pearson's correlation coefficients, as listed in Table 28, reflect the relationship between present-in-self-ratings of attributes connoted by each of the three constituents in Week 2 and Week 13, respectively. Due to the performance of three correlation calculations, the alpha level of statistical significance was lowered to $p < .017$ (.05/3).

Table 28. Relationships between the present-in-self ratings of each of the three personality constituents, respectively, given in Week 2 as compared to given in Week 13; n = 41

Correlations between attributes comprised by these pairs of personality constituents			**Week 13**		
			Accommodator	*Expert*	*Entertainer*
Week 2	*Accommodator*	Correlation	.591***		
		p-value	**.000**		
	Expert	Correlation		.543**	
		p-value		**.000**	
	Entertainer	Correlation			.739***
		p-value			**.000**

Significance: * $p < .017$, ** $p \leq .001$, *** $p < .0001$

Present-in-self-ratings of attributes connoted by the three personality constituents, respectively, as ascribed by respondents first in Week 2 and then in Week 13, revealed a significant positive correlation for each of the three constituents ($p = .000$). The correlation was strong for present-in-self-ratings of attributes under *Entertainer* ($r = .739$) and moderate for ratings of attributes associated with *Accommodator* ($r = .591$) and *Expert* ($r = .543$), respectively.

Clearly, students' ratings of their selves at the beginning of the semester predicted how students rated their selves at the end of the semester.

Theme 2, as discussed above, addressed students' beliefs about their selves in terms of possessing attributes associated with the three personality constituents *Accommodator*, *Expert*, and *Entertainer*. By comparison, Theme 3 examined students' beliefs about what percentage of their actual peers possessed attributes associated with each of the three personality constituents. As will be explained in greater detail below, these ratings will be referred to as 'present-in-peer' ratings.

5.3 Theme 3: Students' beliefs about what percentage of their peers possessed qualities connoted with each of the three personality constituents

Theme 3 consisted of six RQs (RQs 3a – f). Pertinent analyses relied on two data sets, each of which contained the same 13 questions, with each question again representing a personal attribute. Students rated each attribute on a percentage scale from 0-100% (0% = none, 100% = all) to indicate the percentage of students in their class section (CS) whom they believed to possess each of the listed attributes. The two data sets were collected at two different time points. Specifically, data set 1 came from students' answers to questions 14-26 of the *Situated Disposition Questionnaire 1,* which was administered during Week 2. Data set 2 comprised the same 13 questions presented on the *Situated Disposition Questionnaire 2,* which was distributed in Week 13. Both questionnaires measured respondents' beliefs about actual students in their particular CS rather than their beliefs about hypothetical peers. To accommodate this perspective, ratings under investigation in Theme 3 will be referred to as 'present-in-peer ratings', as compared to the 'important-in-a-hypothetical-ideal-peer ratings' that were used for analyses in Theme 1 and to the 'present-in-self-ratings' used in Theme 2.

RQs 3a-f investigated the present-in-peers ratings of attributes associated with each of the three personality constituents, *Accommodator*, *Expert*, and *Entertainer*. The present-in-peers ratings of attributes associated with the three constituents were compared synchronically within data set 1 (RQs 3a and 3d) and data set 2; (RQs 3b and 3e) as well as diachronically between the two data sets (RQs 3c and 3f).

To find out whether all CSs could be treated as one group in analyses associated with Theme 3, Levene's tests of equality of variance (Appendix I4) were performed first. These tests confirmed the data to be sufficiently homogenous to warrant parametric inferential statistical analyses. Subsequently, one-way ANOVAs (Appendix J7) were conducted to measure between-CSs-differences for each constituent in each of the two data sets. Due to the multiple performed tests (three within each set), the alpha-level of statistical significance was lowered to $p < .017$ (.05/3). Using the adjusted alpha-level, one-way ANOVAs showed no statistically significant difference between the CSs. Therefore, in the examination of the Theme 3-related RQs, the CSs were combined into one single sample, as had been done for analyses in Theme 1 and Theme 2.

5.3.1 RQ3a. In the views of college students of second-semester German, what percentage of their peers possessed each of the three personality constituents, *Accommodator*, *Expert*, and *Entertainer*, at the beginning of an academic semester?

Table 29 displays descriptive statistics for the present-in-peers ratings of attributes connoted by each constituent. As each constituent represented a grouping of several attributes, these statistics include the composite means of all attributes under each constituent; the means of minimum and maximum scores of these attributes; the differentials between the means of minimum and maximum scores of attributes; the absolute minimum and maximum scores from among all attributes associated with each constituent; and the differential between the absolute minimum

and maximum scores. Respondents reported all scores as the percentage of their peers who possessed each of these attribute. Therefore, the numbers shown in Table 29, too, reflect percentages, with 0 as the potential minimum and 100 as the potential maximum. The number of participants in Week 2 reached 50.

Table 29. Present-in-peers ratings of each of the three personality constituents given in Week 2; n = 50

Personality constituent (Present-in-peers – Week 2)	Attributes comprised under each of these personality constituents	Composite mean	Mean of minimum scores	Mean of maximum scores	Differential between means of minimum and means of maximum scores	Absolute minimum score from among all attributes	Absolute maximum score from among all attributes	Differential between absolute minimum and absolute maximum scores from among all attributes
Accommodator	*patient kind helpful tolerant focused*	71.91	42.00	96.00	54.00	30	100	70
Expert	*confident hardworking proficient prepared*	65.15	32.50	92.50	60.00	0	100	100
Entertainer	*funny creative easygoing likeable*	66.90	42.50	95.00	52.50	20	100	80

On a 0-100 percentage point scale (0% = none, 100% = all), the highest composite mean of attributes comprised under a personality constituent was found for attributes under *Accommodator* (71.91%). The second-highest composite mean was recorded for attributes under the constituent *Entertainer* (66.90%), closely followed by the composite mean for attributes comprised by *Expert* (65.15%). Every one of the attributes associated with any of the personality constituents received the highest score of 100% from at least one respondent. Further, in the judgment of one respondent from CS4, the attribute *hardworking* (comprised under *Expert*) was lacking in all of his classmates.

A repeated measures ANOVA (Appendix J8) examined differences in composite means of present-in-peers ratings of attributes associated with the three personality constituents. The ANOVA revealed a significant difference between these ratings (p = .000) and therefore pairwise

comparisons between personality constituents were performed to determine the precise location of the significant differences. Because these pairwise comparisons constituted post-hoc analyses, the alpha level of statistical significance was set at the customary $p < .05$. Table 30 shows the results, again with composite means expressed in percentages of peers whom students in a given CS believed to possess attributes under a given personality constituent. As in earlier reporting, a positive difference between the composite means implies higher ratings for the attributes associated with the first constituent in the pair whereas a negative difference indicates that the second constituent in the pair received higher ratings.

Table 30. Differences in composite means of present-in-peers ratings between pairs derived from the three personality constituents[1] given in Week 2; n=50

Pairs of personality constituents		**Differences in composite means between attributes comprised under pairs of personality constituents in Week 2 (A – B)**	**Sig. *p* – value**
(A) constituents	**(B) constituents**		
Accommodator	*Expert*	6.760***	**.001**
	Entertainer	5.010***	**.001**
Expert	*Accommodator*	-6.760***	**.001**
	Entertainer	-1.750	.414
Entertainer	*Accommodator*	-5.010***	**.001**
	Expert	1.750	.414

Significance: * p < .05, ** p ≤ .01, and *** p ≤ .001

[1]Composite means scores in Week 2: *Accommodator* (71.91); *Expert* (65.15); and *Entertainer* (66.90)

At the beginning of the semester, the difference in composite means of present-in-peers ratings for the pairs *Accommodator – Expert* and *Accommodator – Entertainer* proved to be statistically significant ($p = .001$), always in favor of attributes associated with *Accommodator*. In other words, the percentage of students whom their peers considered to possess the attributes of *Accommodator* was significantly higher than the percentage of students who were thought to possess the attributes of an *Expert* or the attributes of an *Entertainer*. The difference between the composite means for the constituents *Expert* and *Entertainer* was not significant ($p = .414$).

5.3.2 RQ3b. In the views of college students of second-semester German, what percentage of their peers possessed each of the three personality constituents, *Accommodator*, *Expert*, and *Entertainer*, at the end of an academic semester?

Similar to RQ3a, the presentation of descriptive statistics precedes the reporting of results of inferential statistical analyses. The categories of descriptive statistics shown here repeat those presented in Table 29 (RQ3a). In Week 13, the number of participants equaled 45.

Table 31. Present-in-peers ratings of each of the three personality constituents given in Week 13; n = 45

Personality constituent (Present-in-peers – Week 13)	Attributes comprised under each of these personality constituents	Composite mean	Mean of minimum scores	Mean of maximum scores	Differential between means of minimum and means of maximum scores	Absolute minimum score from among all attributes	Absolute maximum score from among all attributes	Differential between absolute minimum and absolute maximum scores from among all attributes
Accommodator	*patient kind helpful tolerant focused*	72.67	40.00	94.00	54.00	30	100	70
Expert	*confident hardworking proficient prepared*	64.74	32.50	87.50	55.00	20	100	80
Entertainer	*funny creative easygoing likeable*	68.67	30.00	92.50	62.50	10	100	90

At the end of the semester, the highest composite means of present-in-peers rating (72.67%) was recorded for the constituent *Accommodator*. In other words, respondents, on average, thought that nearly 73% of their peers possessed the attributes connoted by the personality constituent of *Accommodator*. In the same vein, almost 69% of peers were believed to possess *Entertainer*-related attributes, and nearly 65% of the peers were thought to have the qualities comprised under the constituent *Expert*.

Each of the individual attributes received the maximum possible score of 100% (of peers possessing this attribute) from at least one respondent. The attribute *funny*, comprised under *Entertainer*, received the lowest recorded score of 10% from one respondent (CS2), meaning that in the eyes of this particular respondent only 10% of his/her peers demonstrated this quality.

A repeated-measures ANOVA further examined whether the differences between the composite means of ratings between the personality constituents were significant (Appendix J9). Initial results showed that indeed there were such differences. To pinpoint the exact location of these significant differences, pairwise comparisons between the three sets of attributes were performed (Table 32, below). These comparisons belonged to post-hoc analyses; hence the alpha level of statistical significance remained at the customary $p < .05$.

Table 32. Differences in composite means of present-in-peers ratings between pairs derived from the three personality constituents[1] given in Week 13; n = 45

Pairs of personality constituents		**Differences in composite means between attributes comprised under pairs of personality constituents in Week 13 (A – B)**	**Sig. *p* – value**
(A) constituents	**(B) constituents**		
Accommodator	*Expert*	7.926***	**.000**
	Entertainer	4.000**	**.005**
Expert	*Accommodator*	-7.926***	**.000**
	Entertainer	-3.926*	**.024**
Entertainer	*Accommodator*	-4.000**	**.005**
	Expert	3.926*	**.024**

Significance: * $p < .05$, ** $p \leq .01$, and *** $p \leq .001$

[1]Composite means scores in Week 13: *Accommodator* (72.67); *Expert* (64.74); and *Entertainer* (68.67)

At the end of the semester, the composite means of present-in-peers ratings under each of the three personality constituents differed significantly in all paired comparisons. Of note is the statistically significant difference between the composite means in the *Expert* (64.7%) – *Entertainer* (68.7%) pair ($p = .024$). Recall that in Week 2, the difference between the composite means of these two constituents (*Expert*, composite mean = 65.15; *Entertainer*, composite mean = 66.90) did not reach the level of statistical significance.

To sum up, at the end of the semester respondents believed significantly more of their peers to possess the attributes of the constituent *Accommodator* than the attributes of either *Expert* or of *Entertainer*. Respondents also thought that significantly more of their peers possessed the attributes of *Entertainer* than of *Expert*.

5.3.3 RQ3c. Among college students of second-semester German, did their views of the percentage of their peers who possessed each of the three personality constituents, *Accommodator*, *Expert*, and *Entertainer*, at the beginning of an academic semester differ from their views of the same at the end of an academic semester?

A series of paired t-tests were performed in order to compare the present-in-peers ratings of three personality constituents, respectively, assigned in Week 2 with those given in Week 13. The results are displayed in Table 33, below. As has been established in previous reporting practices, a positive difference between composite means implies that the first constituent of the pair was rated higher than the second. Conversely, if a difference between composite means is reported as negative, the second constituent of the pair received higher ratings. Please note that the composite means of personality constituents as displayed in Table 33 are different from those shown in Tables 29 and 31 due to the reduced number of participants.

A Bonferroni correction was applied to compensate for repeating the test three times. The alpha level of statistical significance was lowered to $p < .017$ (0.5/3). Ratings of 41 respondents were considered.

Table 33. Differences in composite means of present-in-peers ratings between pairs of each of the three personality constituents, respectively; given in Week 2 as compared to given in Week 13; n = 41

	Composite means of personality constituents		Differences between composite means of personality constituents	Sig.
Personality constituents	**(A) Week 2**	**(A) Week 13**		***p* – value**
Accommodator	73.13	71.90	1.232	.541
Expert	65.67	63.62	2.053	.297
Entertainer	67.19	68.04	-.854	.680

Significance: * $p < .017$, ** $p \leq .001$, *** $p < .0001$

Respondents' composite means of presence-in-peers ratings did not significantly differ between Week 2 and Week 13 for any of the three constituents, *Accommodator*; *Expert*; and *Entertainer* ($p = .541$, $p = .297$, and $p = .680$, respectively). In other words, students' beliefs about the proportion of their peers who possessed the attributes connoted with each of the three constituents remained relatively constant over the course of one academic semester.

5.3.4 RQ3d. At the beginning of an academic semester, was there a relationship between the views of college students of second-semester German of what percentage of their peers possessed the personality constituent *Accommodator*, of what percentage of their peers possessed the personality constituent *Expert*, and of what percentage of their peers possessed the personality constituent *Entertainer*?

Table 34 presents Pearson's correlation coefficients that were calculated for all three pairs of personality constituents. As before, the strength of correlations was categorized as follows: 0.1 – 0.3, weak; 0.4 – 0.6, moderate; and 0.7 and higher, strong. The alpha level was adjusted to $p <$ .017 (.05/3) to account for repeated calculations. The number of participants reached 50.

Table 34. Relationships between present-in-peers ratings of each of the three personality constituents given in Week 2; n = 50

Correlations between attributes comprised by these pairs of personality constituents (Week 2)		*Accommodator*	*Expert*	*Entertainer*
Accommodator	Correlation	1	.568***	.727***
	p-value		**.000**	**.000**
Expert	Correlation		1	.406*
	p-value			**.003**
Entertainer	Correlation			1
	p-value			

Significance: * $p < .017$, ** $p \leq .001$, *** $p < .0001$

In all three pairs the correlations between present-in-peers ratings of constituents were found to be positive and statistically significant. The relationship between the ratings of attributes under *Accommodator* and *Entertainer* ($r = .727$) turned out to be strong and that between the ratings of attributes under *Accommodator* and *Expert* ($r = .568$) as well as between the ratings of attributes comprised under *Expert* and *Entertainer* ($r = .406$) was moderate. Clearly, students' present-in-peers ratings of the attributes connoted by the three personality constituents at the beginning of the semester exhibited conceptual cohesion.

5.3.5 RQ3e. At the end of an academic semester, was there a relationship between the views of college students of second-semester German of what percentage of their peers possessed the personality constituent *Accommodator,* of what percentage of their peers possessed the personality constituent *Expert,* and of what percentage of their peers possessed the personality constituent *Entertainer*?

Pearson's correlation coefficients were calculated for all three pairs of personality constituents, this time for ratings taken in Week 13. Results are presented in Table 35. The strength designations of the correlations as 'weak', 'moderate', and 'strong' was set to be the same as in RQ3d. To compensate for multiple calculations, the alpha level of statistical significance was lowered to $p < .017$ (.05/3). The number of participants equaled 45.

Table 35. Relationships between present-in-peers ratings of each of the three personality constituents given in Week 13; n = 45

Correlations between attributes comprised by these pairs of personality constituents (Week 13)		*Accommodator*	*Expert*	*Entertainer*
Accommodator	Correlation	1	.631***	.777***
	p-value		**.000**	**.000**
Expert	Correlation		1	.681***
	p-value			**.000**
Entertainer	Correlation			1
	p-value			

Significance: * $p < .017$, ** $p \leq .001$, *** $p < .0001$

In Week 13, respondents' present-in-peers ratings of attributes comprised under the three constituents in their peers correlated significantly ($p = .000$) and positively in all three comparisons. Results also revealed that the relationship between the attributes connoted by the respective constituents was strong in the *Accommodator – Entertainer* pair ($r = .777$), and moderate in the *Accommodator* and *Expert* ($r = .631$) and in the *Expert – Entertainer* pairs ($r = .681$). Put differently, respondents' beliefs about the percentage of peers who possessed one personality constituent positively predicted the percentage of peers who possessed either one of the two remaining personality constituents.

5.3.6 RQ3f. Was there a relationship between the views of college students of second-semester German of what percentage of their peers possessed each of the three personality constituents, *Accommodator*, *Expert*, and *Entertainer*, respectively, at the beginning and at the end of an academic semester?

Table 36 displays Pearson's correlation coefficients between the present-in-peers ratings of each of the three personality constituents assigned in Week 2 and in Week 13, respectively. The alpha level was adjusted to $p < .017$ so as to account for repeated correlation calculations. Responses from 41 participants were considered.

Table 36. Relationships between present-in-peers ratings of each of the three personality constituents, respectively; given in Week 2 as compared to given in Week 13; n = 41

Correlations between attributes comprised by these pairs of personality constituents			**WEEK 13**		
			Accommodator	*Expert*	*Entertainer*
WEEK 2	*Accommodator*	Correlation	.530**		
		p-value	**.000**		
	Expert	Correlation		.594***	
		p-value		**.000**	
	Entertainer	Correlation			.554**
		p-value			**.000**

Significance: * $p < .017$, ** $p \leq .001$, *** $p < .0001$

The present-in-peers ratings of attributes represented by the constituents *Accommodator*, *Expert*, and *Entertainer*, respectively, as they were given in Week 2 and Week 13 correlated at a statistically significant level for each of three constituents ($p = .000$). All correlations were positive and moderate for each of the three constituents ($r = .530$, *Accommodator*; $r = .594$, *Expert*; and $r = .554$, *Entertainer*). One can therefore conclude that the respondents' beliefs about the proportion of their peers who possessed the three personality constituents in Week 2 predicted their views about the same in Week 13.

Theme 3 addressed what percentage of their actual peers students believed to possess qualities connoted with each of the three personality constituents. By comparison, Theme 4 focused on

students' beliefs about what percentage of their peers perceived them as possessing the qualities connoted with each of the three personality constituents.

5.4 Theme 4: Students' beliefs about what percentage of their peers perceived qualities connoted with each of the three personality constituents in them

Theme 4 encompassed six RQs (RQs 4a-f). Relevant analyses were based on two data sets, again gathered in Week 2 and Week 13, respectively, with each containing the same type of rating of the same 13 items, namely, the 13 learner attributes explored in previous analyses. For responses in both data sets (odd-numbered *SDQ* questions located between items 89.-113.) participants had to indicate the percentage of classmates (0-100%) who in the respondents' view thought of them (the participants) as possessing the listed attribute. To maintain consistency throughout the description of results, the ratings explored in Theme 4 will be referred to as 'imagined-other-perceived-present-in-self ratings', a choice of phrasing that depicts the direct contrast to the 'present-in-peers ratings' that were investigated in Theme 3.

All six research questions addressed in Theme 4 (RQs 4a-f) adhered to the division of the 13 attributes into the three personality constituents *Accommodator*, *Expert*, and *Entertainer* that had been established in initial analyses (Theme 1, RQ1c). The imagined-other-perceived-present-in-self ratings were first examined synchronically within each of the two data sets (data set 1, RQs 4a and 4d; data set 2, RQs 4b and 4e) and later compared diachronically between the two data sets (RQs 4c and 4f).

To establish the suitability of the data for parametric inferential testing, Levene's tests (Appendix I5) were conducted first. The results showed the data to be adequately homogeneous. Next, one-way ANOVAs (Appendix J10) were performed to examine whether the four CSs can be treated as one sample in terms of their responses on attributes corresponding with each of the

three personality constituents in each of the two data sets. Within each data set, three ANOVAs (one for each personality constituent) were conducted, which required the alpha level of statistical significance to be lowered to $p < .017$ (.05/3). No significant difference between any of the CSs was found for items grouped under any of the three personality constituents in either of the two data sets. Consequently, as had been done for analyses in Themes 1, 2, and 3, the examination of all RQs comprised under Theme 4 treated all four CSs as one sample.

5.4.1 RQ4a. In the views of college students of second-semester German, what percentage of their peers perceived them to possess each of the three personality constituents, *Accommodator*, *Expert*, and *Entertainer*, at the beginning of an academic semester?

Descriptive statistics for the imagined-other-perceived-present-in-self ratings of attributes associated with each of the three constituents are displayed in Table 37 below. Respondents recorded all scores as percentages of peers who perceived them as possessing the constituents under investigation. The numbers shown in Table 37, too, reflect percentages (0-100%). In Week 2, there were 50 student participans.

Table 37. Imagined-other-perceived-present-in-self ratings of each of the three personality constituents given in Week 2; n = 50

Personality constituent (Imagined-other-perceived-present-in-self – Week 2)	Attributes comprised under each of these personality constituents	Combined means	Mean of minimum scores	Mean of maximum scores	Differential between means of minimum and means of maximum scores	Absolute minimum score from among all attributes	Absolute maximum score from among all attributes	Differential between absolute minimum and absolute maximum scores from among all attributes
Accommodator	*patient kind helpful tolerant focused*	71.08	12.00	98.00	86.00	0	100	100
Expert	*confident hardworking proficient prepared*	59.50	0	87.50	87.50	0	100	100
Entertainer	*funny creative easygoing likeable*	57.80	12.50	95.00	82.50	0	100	100

On a 0-100 percentage point scale (0% = none, 100% = all), the highest composite means of imagined-other-perceived-present-in-self ratings occurred for attributes under *Accommodator* (71.08%). The second-highest composite means rating was found for attributes under the constituent *Expert* (59.50%), closely followed by the composite means for attributes comprised under *Entertainer* (57.80%).

At least one of the attributes associated with each of the personality constituents received the highest score of 100% as well as the lowest score of 0% from at least one respondent. Further, one respondent from CS4 believed that in the judgment of all of his peers he lacked each of the attributes comprised under *Expert.*

A repeated measures ANOVA (Appendix J11) tested whether the differences in composite means of imagined-other-perceived-present-in-self ratings between the three personality constituents were significant. After the ANOVA had showed a significant difference between the mean ratings (p = .000), pairwise comparisons between personality constituents were performed to find out the location of the significant difference. Due to the post-hoc nature of the pairwise comparisons, the alpha level of statistical significance was set at the customary $p < .05$. Results are shown in Table 38 below. The composite means are expressed in percentages of peers whom respondents believed to perceive them (the respondents) as possessing attributes associated with a given personality constituent. As reported earlier, a positive difference between the composite means indicates a higher composite rating for the attributes comprised under the first constituent in the pair; conversely, a negative difference reflects a higher composite rating for the second constituent of the pair.

Table 38. Differences in composite means of imagined-other-perceived-present-in-self ratings between pairs derived from the three personality constituents[1] given in Week 2; n=50

Pairs of personality constituents		Differences in composite means between attributes comprised under pairs of personality constituents in Week 2	Sig.
(A) constituents	(B) constituents		*p* - value

		(A – B)	
Accommodator	*Expert*	11.580***	**.000**
	Entertainer	13.280***	**.000**
Expert	*Accommodator*	-11.580***	**.000**
	Entertainer	1.700	.463
Entertainer	*Accommodator*	-13.280***	**.000**
	Expert	-1.700	.463

Significance: * p < .05, ** p ≤ .01, and *** p ≤ .001

[1]Composite means scores in Week 2: *Accommodator* (71.08); *Expert* (59.50); and *Entertainer* (57.80)

At the beginning of the semester (Week 2), the difference in composite means of imagined-other-perceived-present-in-self ratings for the constituent pairs *Accommodator – Expert* and *Accommodator – Entertainer* was found to be statistically significant (p = .000), strongly favoring the constituent *Accommodator*. To rephrase, respondents thought that more peers viewed them as *Accommodators* than *Experts* or *Entertainers*.

5.4.2 RQ4b. In the views of college students of second-semester German, what percentage of their peers perceived them to possess each of the three personality constituents, *Accommodator*, *Expert*, and *Entertainer*, at the end of an academic semester?

Table 39 shows descriptive statistics for the imagined-other-perceived-present-in-self ratings of attributes connoted by each of the three personality constituents in Week 13. The number of participants equaled 45.

Table 39. Imagined-other-perceived-present-in-self ratings of each of the three personality constituents given in Week 13; n = 45

Personality constituent (Imagined-other-perceived-present-in-self ratings-Week 13)	Attributes comprised under each of these personality constituents	Composite mean	Mean of minimum scores	Mean of maximum scores	Differential between means of minimum and means of maximum scores	Absolute minimum score from among all attributes	Absolute maximum score from among all attributes	Differential between absolute minimum and absolute maximum scores from among all attributes
Accommodator	*patient kind helpful tolerant focused*	71.47	30.00	94.00	64.00	0	100	100
Expert	*confident hardworking proficient prepared*	61.06	22.50	95.00	72.50	0	90	90
Entertainer	*funny creative easygoing likeable*	64.06	32.50	97.00	64.50	0	100	100

At the end of the semester, the composite mean of imagined-other-perceived-present-in-self ratings of the personality constituent *Accommodator* (71.47%) was the highest of the three composite ratings. It was followed by the composite ratings of the personality constituent *Entertainer* (64.06%) and *Expert* (61.06%). Put differently, students believed that the highest percentage of peers perceived them (the students) as *Accommodators*.

A repeated-measures ANOVA was used to further examine whether the differences between the composite means of imagined-other-perceived-present-in-self ratings of the personality constituents were significant (Appendix J12). Results revealed that such differences were present (p = .000). To find the exact locations of these significant differences, the three sets of attributes were compared pairwise (Table 40). As these comparisons were performed post-hoc, the alpha level of statistical significance remained at the customary $p < .05$.

Table 40. Differences in composite means of imagined-other-perceived-present-in-self ratings between pairs derived from the three personality constituents given in Week 13; n = 45

Pairs of personality constituents		**Differences in composite means between attributes comprised under pairs of personality constituents in Week 13 (A – B)**	**Sig. *p* - value**
(A) constituents	**(B) constituents**		
Accommodator	*Expert*	10.411***	**.000**
	Entertainer	7.411**	**.003**
Expert	*Accommodator*	-10.411***	**.000**
	Entertainer	-3.000	.205
Entertainer	*Accommodator*	-7.411**	**.003**
	Expert	3.000	.205

Significance: * p < .05, ** p ≤ .01, and *** p ≤ .001

[1]Composite means scores in Week 13: *Accommodator* (71.47); *Expert* (61.06); and *Entertainer* (64.06)

In Week 13, the composite means of imagined-other-perceived-present-in-self ratings of attributes under *Accommodator* differed significantly from that of attributes under either *Expert* (p = .000) or *Entertainer* (p = .003). The difference between the composite means associated with attributes under the constituents *Expert* and *Entertainer* did not reach the level of statistical significance (p = .205).

To sum up, at the end of the semester, respondents believed that more of their peers thought of them as possessing the attributes of the constituent *Accommodator* than the attributes of either *Expert* or *Entertainer*. Respondents further believed that a comparable number of their peers considered them to possess the attributes of *Entertainer* and those of *Expert*.

5.4.3 RQ4c. Among college students of second-semester German, did their views of the percentage of their peers who perceived them to possess each of the three personality constituents, *Accommodator*, *Expert*, and *Entertainer*, at the beginning of an academic semester differ from their views of the same at the end of an academic semester?

A series of paired t-tests were conducted to compare the composite means of imagined-other-perceived-present-in-self ratings of items under each of the three personality constituents, respectively, given at the beginning with those recorded at the end of the academic semester. Table 41 presents the results. As in previous reporting, a positive difference between the composite means indicates that the first constituent (here, representing ratings at the beginning of the semester) of the pair received higher ratings than the second constituent (here, representing ratings at the end of the semester). Conversely, a negative difference between the composite means implies that the composite mean at the end of the semester was higher than the corresponding composite mean at the beginning of the semester. Due to the reduced number of participants, the composite means of personality constituents as displayed in Table 41 are different from those shown in Tables 37 and 39.

To compensate for repeating the test three times, the alpha level of statistical significance was lowered to $p < .017$ (0.5/3). Responses from 41 participants were considered.

Table. 41. Differences in composite means of imagined-other-perceived-present-in-self ratings between pairs of each of the three personality constituents, respectively; given in Week 2 as compared to given in Week 13; n=41

	Composite means of personality constituents		Difference between composite means of personality constituents	Sig. *p* - value
Personality constituent	**(A) Week 2**	**(A) Week 13**		

Accommodator	72.24	71.76	.488	.827
Expert	58.72	60.30	-1.585	.460
Entertainer	59.57	64.27	-4.695	**.020**$^{(*)}$

Significance: (marginal) $^{(*)}$ $p < .05$, * $p < .017$, ** $p \leq .001$, *** $p < .0001$

Composite means of imagined-other-perceived-present-in-self ratings for the constituents *Accommodator* and *Expert* ($p = .827$; $p = .460$, respectively) did not significantly differ between the beginning and end of the semester. In contrast, the across-time difference in composite means of ratings of the attributes associated with the constituent *Entertainer* did show marginal significance ($p = .020$) in favor of the end of the semester. Put differently, students' beliefs about how their peers thought of them in terms of possessing the attributes connoted with *Accommodator* and *Expert* remained relatively unchanged over the course of one academic semester. However, students at the end of the semester believed at a marginally significant level that a larger contingent of their peers perceived them (the students) as *Entertainers* when compared to the percentage of peers who were thought to do the same at the beginning of the semester.

5.4.4 RQ4d. At the beginning of an academic semester, was there a relationship between the views of college students of second-semester German of what percentage of their peers perceived them to possess the personality constituent *Accommodator*, of what percentage of their peers perceived them to possess the personality constituent *Expert*, and of what percentage of their peers perceived them to possess the personality constituent *Entertainer*?

Table 42 shows Pearson's correlation coefficients for all three pairs of personality constituents. As in previous reporting, the strength of correlations was categorized as follows: 0.1 – 0.3, 'weak'; 0.4 – 0.6, 'moderate'; and 0.7 and higher, 'strong'. The alpha level was lowered to $p < .017$ (.05/3) to reflect repeated calculations. The number of participants equaled 50.

Table 42. Relationships between imagined-other-perceived-present-in-self ratings of each of the three personality constituents given in Week 2; n = 50

Correlations between attributes comprised by these pairs of personality constituents (Week 2)		*Accommodator*	*Expert*	*Entertainer*
Accommodator	Correlation	1	.674***	.716***
	p-value		**.000**	**.000**
Expert	Correlation		1	.586***
	p-value			**.000**
Entertainer	Correlation			1
	p-value			

Significance: * $p < .017$, ** $p \leq .001$, *** $p < .0001$

At the beginning of the semester (Week 2), the correlations between the pairs of imagined-other-perceived-present-in-self ratings were positive and statistically significant for all three pairs of constituents ($p = .000$). The relationship between *Accommodator* and *Entertainer* ($r = .716$) was revealed to be strong and that between *Accommodator* and *Expert* ($r = .674$) and *Expert* and *Entertainer* ($r = .586$), respectively, was moderate. It is evident that at the beginning of the semester students' beliefs about how their peers viewed them with respect to possessing the attributes connoted by the three personality constituents were conceptually cohesive.

5.4.5 RQ4e. At the end of an academic semester, was there a relationship between the views of college students of second-semester German of what percentage of their peers perceived them to possess the personality constituent *Accommodator*, of what percentage of their peers perceived them to possess the personality constituent *Expert*, and of what percentage of their peers perceived them to possess the personality constituent *Entertainer*?

Pearson's correlation coefficients were calculated to find out whether the imagined-other-perceived-present-in-self ratings of attributes connoted with each of the three personality constituents were related. Table 43 presents the results. To account for repeated calculations, the alpha level of statistical significance was set at $p < .017$ (.05/3). The participants numbered 45.

Table 43. Relationships between imagined-other-perceived-present-in-self ratings of each of the three personality constituents given in Week 13; n = 45

Correlations between attributes comprised by these pairs of personality constituents (Week 13)		*Accommodator*	*Expert*	*Entertainer*
Accommodator	Correlation	1	.552***	.452*
	p-value		**.000**	**.002**
Expert	Correlation		1	.531**
	p-value			**.000**
Entertainer	Correlation			1
	p-value			

Significance: * $p < .017$, ** $p \leq .001$, *** $p < .0001$

At the end of the semester, respondents' beliefs about the percentage of their peers who considered them to possess the attributes comprised under each of the three constituents correlated significantly, positively, and moderately in all three comparisons *(Accommodator – Expert* and *Expert – Entertainer*, $p = .000$; *Accommodator – Entertainer*, $p = .002$). Put differently, respondents' beliefs about the percentage of peers who perceived them as possessing attributes associated with one personality constituent predicted the percentage of peers whom they believed would see them (the respondents) as also possessing attributes related to either one of the two remaining personality constituents.

5.4.6 RQ4f. Was there a relationship between the views of college students of second-semester German of what percentage of their peers perceived them to possess each of the three personality constituents, *Accommodator*, *Expert*, and *Entertainer*, respectively, at the beginning and at the end of an academic semester?

Table 44 shows Pearson's correlation coefficients between the imagined-other-perceived-present-in-self ratings of each of the three personality constituents assigned in Week 2 and Week 13. Bonferroni adjustment lowered the alpha level to $p < .017$ so as to account for repeated correlation calculations. The number of participants equaled 41.

Table 44. Relationships between imagined-other-perceived-present-in-self ratings of each of the three personality constituents, respectively; given in Week 2 as compared to given in Week 13; n = 41

Correlations between attributes comprised by these pairs of personality constituents			**Week 13**		
			Accommodator	*Expert*	*Entertainer*
Week 2	*Accommodator*	Correlation	.612***		
		p-value	**.000**		
	Expert	Correlation		.680***	
		p-value		**.000**	
	Entertainer	Correlation			.757***
		p-value			**.000**

Significance: * $p < .017$, ** $p \leq .001$, *** $p < .0001$

As collected in Week 2 and Week 13 of the semester, the imagined-other-perceived-present-in-self ratings of attributes connoted with each of the constituents *Accommodator*, *Expert*, and *Entertainer*, respectively, correlated significantly and positively for each of the three constituents ($p = .000$). The ratings for the constituent *Entertainer* as given in Week 2 and Week 13 showed a strong correlation ($r = .757$). Correlations for the constituents *Accommodator* (Week 2) and *Accommodator* (Week 13) proved moderate ($r = .612$), and so did the correlations for the constituents *Expert* (Week 2) and *Expert* (Week 13), ($r = .680$). It stands to reason that respondents' beliefs about the number of their peers who perceived them as possessing the attributes associated with each of the three personality constituents in Week 2 predicted respondents' views about the same in Week 13.

The last two themes, Theme 5 and Theme 6, explored the interaction of students' beliefs that were previously reviewed in Themes 1-4.

5.5 Theme 5: Students' beliefs about the makings of a hypothetical ideal peer vs. students' beliefs about their selves

Theme 5 contrasted students' beliefs about the makings of a hypothetical ideal peer (also referred to as important-in-a-hypothetical-ideal-peer ratings), which were presented in Theme 1, and students' beliefs about their selves (also referred to as present-in-self-ratings), which were introduced in Theme 2.

5.5.1 RQ5a. Did college students of second-semester German accord significantly different important-in-a-hypothetical-ideal-peer ratings as compared to present-in-self-ratings for each of the three personality constituents, *Accommodator*, *Expert*, and *Entertainer*, respectively, at the beginning of an academic semester?

A series of paired t-tests was performed in order to compare the composite means of important-in-a-hypothetical-ideal-peer ratings and the composite means of present-in-self-ratings for each of the three personality constituents as students assigned them in Week 2. Results are presented in Table 45. As in previous reporting, a positive difference between the composite means indicates that the first type of rating for a given constituent (A) was higher than the second one (B). Conversely, a negative difference implies that the second type of rating (B) was higher than the first type (A).

As a result of a Bonferroni correction that was made due to three repeated tests, the alpha level of statistical significance was adjusted to $p < .017$ (.05/3). Statistical significance was considered marginal when the p – value was between .017 and .05. Ratings of 50 participants were considered.

Table 45. Differences between composite means of important-in-a-hypothetical-deal-peer ratings and of present-in self ratings of each of the three personality constituents, respectively, given in Week 2; n = 50

Personality constituent	Composite mean of personality constituents Week 2		Difference between composite means of personality constituents (A-B)	Sig. *p* - value
	(A) Important-in-a-hypothetical-ideal-peer	(B) Present-in-self		
Accommodator	7.92	7.70	.21200	.209
Expert	7.09	6.80	.29667	.161
Entertainer	6.44	6.76	-.32333	.154

Significance: * $p < .017$, ** $p \leq .001$, *** $p < .0001$

At the beginning of the academic semester, there was no statistically significant difference between participants' composite means of important-in-a-hypothetical-ideal-peer ratings and of present-in-self ratings for any of the three constituents. In other words, student participants believed their hypothetical ideal peers needed to possess the qualities of each of the three personality constituents to a similar degree as they (students) believed themselves to possess these qualities.

5.5.2 RQ5b. Did college students of second-semester German accord significantly different important-in-a-hypothetical-ideal-peer ratings as compared to present-in-self-ratings for each of the three personality constituents, *Accommodator, Expert,* and *Entertainer,* respectively, at the end of an academic semester?

To measure the difference between the composite means of important-in-a-hypothetical-ideal-peer ratings and of present-in-self ratings at the end of the semester, a series of paired t-tests were conducted (Table 46). To compensate for repeating the test three times, the alpha level of statistical significance was lowered to $p < .017$ (0.5/3). The number of participants equaled 45.

Table 46. Differences between composite means of important-in-a-hypothetical-deal-peer ratings and of present-in-self ratings of each of the three personality constituents, respectively, given in Week 13; n = 45

Personality constituent	Composite mean of personality constituents Week 13		Difference between composite means of personality constituents (A-B)	Sig. *p* - value
	(A) Important-in-a-hypothetical-ideal-peer	(B) Present-in-self		
Accommodator	7.65	7.39	.25778	.286
Expert	7.10	6.51	.59444	**.039**$^{(*)}$
Entertainer	6.36	6.78	-.41852	.076

Significance: (marginal) $^{(*)}$ $p < .05$, * $p < .017$, ** $p \leq .001$, *** $p < .0001$

In Week 13 of the semester, the difference between respondents' composite means of important-in-a-hypothetical-ideal-peer ratings and their composite means of present-in-self ratings was found to be marginally significant for the constituent *Expert* ($p = .039$). No significant difference was found between the ratings for the constituents *Accommodator* and *Entertainer* ($p = .286$, $p = .076$, respectively). Put differently, students believed that they

possessed the qualities of *Expert* to a lesser degree than they considered these same qualities important for their peers to possess. At the same time, students' beliefs converged when they thought about *Accommodator*- and *Entertainer*-like qualities important in an ideal peer and present in their own selves.

5.5.3 RQ5c. Was there a relationship between the important-in-a-hypothetical-ideal-peer ratings and present-in-self-ratings that college students of second-semester German accorded to each of the three personality constituents, *Accommodator, Expert,* and *Entertainer*, respectively, at the beginning of an academic semester?

To measure the strength of the relationship between the important-in-a-hypothetical-ideal-peer and present-in-self ratings of attributes captured under each of the three personality constituents, Pearson's correlation coefficients were calculated for all three pairs of constituents (Table 47, below). As in the previous reporting of results, coefficients of 0.1 – 0.3 indicated 'weak' correlations; coefficients of 0.4 – 0.6 signaled 'moderate' correlations'; and coefficients of 0.7 and higher showed 'strong' correlations. To compensate for repeated calculations, the alpha level of statistical significance was lowered to $p < .017$ (.05/3). The number of participants reached 50.

Table 47. Relationships between important-in-a-hypothetical-ideal-peer ratings and present-in-self ratings of each of the three personality constituents, respectively, given in Week 2; n = 50

Correlations between attributes comprised by these pairs of personality constituents (Week 2)			**Present-in-self**		
			Accommodator	*Expert*	*Entertainer*
Important-in-a-hypothetical-ideal-peer	*Accommodator*	Correlation	.505**		
		p-value	**.000**		
	Expert	Correlation		.261	
		p-value		.068	
	Entertainer	Correlation			.437**
		p-value			**.001**

Significance: * $p < .017$, ** $p \leq .001$, *** $p < .0001$

At the beginning of the semester, two pairs of important-in-a-hypothetical-ideal-peer ratings and present-in-self ratings were found to be significantly and moderately positively correlated, namely those that pertained to *Accommodator* (p = .000) and *Entertainer* (p = .001). These results suggest that the attributes that students considered important in a hypothetical ideal peer were predicted by the degree to which they believed their selves to possess these same qualities in instances of attributes that constitute an *Accommodator* and an *Entertainer*, respectively, but not in terms of attributes that signify an *Expert.*

5.5.4 RQ5d. Was there a relationship between the important-in-a-hypothetical-ideal-peer ratings and present-in-self-ratings that college students of second-semester German accorded to each of the three personality constituents, *Accommodator, Expert,* and *Entertainer,* respectively, at the end of an academic semester?

Pearson's correlation coefficients were calculated between the important-in-a-hypothetical-ideal-peer ratings and present-in-peers ratings for attributes connoted with each of the three personality constituents. Results are displayed in Table 48, below. The alpha level was lowered to $p < .017$ so as to account for repeated calculations of correlations. Forty-five participants were included.

Table 48. Relationships between important-in-a-hypothetical-deal-peer ratings and present-in-self ratings of each of the three personality constituents, respectively, given in Week 13; n = 45

Correlations between attributes comprised by these pairs of personality constituents (Week 13)			**Present-in-self**		
			Accommodator	*Expert*	*Entertainer*
Important-in-a-hypothetical-ideal-peer	*Accommodator*	Correlation	.281		
		p-value	.062		
	Expert	Correlation		.184	
		p-value		.227	
	Entertainer	Correlation			.485**
		p-value			**.001**

Significance: * $p < .017$, ** $p \leq .001$, *** $p < .0001$

At the end of the academic semester, the important-in-a-hypothetical-ideal-peer ratings and the present-in-self ratings indicated significant and moderate positive correlation (r = .485)

only for the constituent *Entertainer* (*p* = .001). In other words, students' beliefs about hypothetical ideal peers and their selves cohered in the case of consideration of qualities of an *Entertainer*, however, virtually no relationship was found between students' beliefs related to the qualities of each of the two remaining constituents, *Accommodator* and *Expert*.

Theme 6, similar to Theme 5, examined students' beliefs that were introduced in preceding themes in that it contrasted present-in-peers ratings from Theme 3 with imagined-other-perceived-present-in-self ratings from Theme 4.

5.6 Theme 6: Students' beliefs about what percentage of their peers possessed qualities connoted with each of the three personality constituents vs. students' beliefs about what percentage of their peers perceived qualities connoted with each of the three personality constituents in them

Four research questions (RQs 6a-6d) related to Theme 6. Results from Theme 3 (respondents' estimation of the percentage of class peers who possessed qualities connoted by each of the three personality constituents under investigation at the beginning and end of the semester) were juxtaposed with results from Theme 4 (respondents' estimations of what percentage of class peers considered them – the respondents - to possess qualities connoted by each of the three personality constituents under investigation as reported at the beginning and end of the semester). Specifically, RQs 6a and 6b explored differences between the ratings and RQs 6c and 6d examined relationships between the same. As in Theme 5, only inferential statistics will be presented.

5.6.1 RQ6a. Did college students of second-semester German accord significantly different present-in-peers ratings as compared to imagined-other-perceived-present-in-self ratings for each of the three personality constituents, *Accommodator*, *Expert*, and *Entertainer*, respectively, at the beginning of an academic semester?

To answer RQ6a, a series of paired t-tests were conducted so as to compare the composite means of present-in-peers ratings and of imagined-other-perceived-present-in-self ratings of attributes connoted by each of the three personality constituents assigned in Week 2 (Table 49, below). A Bonferroni correction was used to compensate for performing three tests, and the alpha level of statistical significance was lowered to $p < .017$ (.05/3). The number of participants equaled 50.

Table 49. Differences between composite means of present-in-peers ratings and of imagined-other-perceived-present-in-self ratings of each of the three personality constituents, respectively; given in Week 2; n = 50

Personality constituent	**Composite mean of personality constituents Week 2**		**Difference between composite means of personality constituents (A-B)**	**Sig. *p* - value**
	(A) Present-in-peers	**(B) Imagined - other-perceived-present-in-self**		
Accommodator	71.91	71.08	.830	.728
Expert	65.15	59.50	5.650	.054
Entertainer	66.90	57.80	9.100	**.001****

Significance: (marginal) (*) $p < .05$, * $p < .017$, ** $p \leq .001$, *** $p < .0001$

At the beginning of the semester, the difference between respondents' composite means of present-in-peers ratings and composite means of imagined-other-perceived-present-in-self ratings was found to be significant only for the constituent *Entertainer* ($p = .001$). In other words, students believed that the percentage of their peers who possessed the qualities of an *Entertainer* was higher when compared to the percentage of peers who thought that they (the students) possessed those qualities. Students' beliefs did not show such divergence when they considered the qualities comprised under the other two constituents.

5.6.2 RQ6b. Did college students of second-semester German accord significantly different present-in-peers ratings as compared to imagined-other-perceived-present-in-self ratings for each of the three personality constituents, *Accommodator*, *Expert*, and *Entertainer*, respectively, at the end of an academic semester?

A series of paired t-tests was performed in order to compare the composite means of present-in-peers ratings and the composite means of imagined-other-perceived-present-in-self ratings of

attributes connoted with the three personality constituents, as assigned in Week 13. Results are presented in Table 50. To compensate for repeating the test three times, the alpha level of statistical significance was lowered to $p < .017$ (0.5/3). The p – value was considered statistically marginal when it lied between .017 and .05.

Table 50. Differences between composite means of present-in-peers ratings and of imagined-other-perceived-present-in-self ratings of each of the three personality constituents, respectively; given in Week 13; n = 45

Personality constituent	**Composite means of personality constituents Week 13**		**Difference between composite means of personality constituents (A-B)**	**Sig. *p* - value**
	(A) Present-in-peers	**(B) Imagined - other-perceived-present-in-self**		
Accommodator	72.67	71.47	1.200	.570
Expert	64.74	61.06	3.685	.136
Entertainer	68.67	64.06	4.611	**.041**$^{(*)}$

Significance: (marginal) $^{(*)}$ $p < .05$, * $p < .017$, ** $p \leq .001$, *** $p < .0001$

At the end of the semester, results of paired t-tests revealed a marginally significant difference between the composite means of present-in-peers ratings and of the imagined-other-perceived-present-in-self ratings of attributes associated with the constituent *Entertainer* (p = .041). Put differently, at the end of the semester, students perceived the percentage of their peers with *Entertainer*-like qualities to be only marginally significantly higher than the percentage of peers who assigned those qualities to them (students). Please recall that at the beginning of the semester, the present-in-peers ratings of attributes under the constituent *Entertainer* were significantly higher than the imagined-other-perceived-present-in-self ratings of attributes associated with the same constituent. No such distinction was found in students' beliefs related to the other two constituents.

5.6.3 RQ6c. Was there a relationship between the present-in-peers ratings and imagined-other-perceived-present-in-self ratings that college students of second-semester German accorded to each of the three personality constituents, *Accommodator, Expert,* and *Entertainer,* respectively, at the beginning of an academic semester?

Pearson's correlations coefficients were calculated for all three pairs of constituents to measure the strength of the relationship between the present-in-peers ratings and imagined-other-perceived-present-in-self ratings of attributes associated with each of the three personality constituents (Table 51). As reported previously, coefficients of 0.1 – 0.3 showed 'weak' correlations; coefficients of 0.4 – 0.6 indicated 'moderate' correlations'; and coefficients of 0.7 and higher signaled 'strong' correlations. The alpha level of statistical significance was lowered to $p < .017$ to account for repeated calculations (.05/3). Number of participants reached 50.

Table 51. Relationships between present-in-peers ratings and imagined-other-perceived-present-in-self ratings of each of the three personality constituents, respectively; given in Week 2; n = 50

Correlations between attributes comprised by these pairs of personality constituents (Week 2)			**Imagined-other-perceived-present-in-self**		
			Accommodator	*Expert*	*Entertainer*
Present-in-peers	*Accommodator*	Correlation	.402*		
		p-value	**.004**		
	Expert	Correlation		.116	
		p-value		.424	
	Entertainer	Correlation			.384*
		p-value			**.006**

Significance: * $p < .017$, ** $p \leq .001$, *** $p < .0001$

As recorded at the beginning of the semester, the present-in-peers ratings and the imagined-other-perceived-present-in-self ratings of attributes represented by the constituents *Accommodator*, *Expert*, and *Entertainer*, respectively, correlated at a statistically significant level only for constituents *Accommodator* ($p = .004$) and *Entertainer* ($p = .006$). In both instances, the correlation was moderately positive. One can conclude that students' beliefs about the proportion of their peers who possessed the attributes comprised under each of the three personality constituents and their beliefs about the percentage of peers who assigned those

attributes to them (students) cohered around the constituents *Accommodator* and *Entertainer* but not around the constituent *Expert*.

5.6.4 RQ6d. Was there a relationship between the present-in-peers ratings and imagined-other-perceived-present-in-self ratings that college students of second-semester German accorded to each of the three personality constituents, *Accommodator, Expert,* and *Entertainer,* respectively, at the end of an academic semester?

Table 52 shows Pearson's correlation coefficients for all three pairs of personality constituents. Consistent with previous reporting, the strength of correlations was categorized as follows: 0.1 – 0.3, weak; 0.4 – 0.6, moderate; and 0.7 and higher, strong. The alpha level was adjusted to $p <$ .017 (.05/3) to reflect repeated calculations. Participants numbered 45.

Table 52. Relationships between present-in-peers ratings and imagined-other-perceived-present-in-self ratings of each of the three personality constituents, respectively; given in Week 13; n = 45

Correlations between attributes comprised by these pairs of personality constituents (Week 13)			**Imagined-other-perceived-present-in-self**		
			Accommodator	*Expert*	*Entertainer*
Present-in-peers	*Accommodator*	Correlation	.519**		
		p-value	**.000**		
	Expert	Correlation		.480**	
		p-value		**.001**	
	Entertainer	Correlation			.471**
		p-value			**.001**

Significance: * $p < .017$, ** $p \leq .001$, *** $p < .0001$

In Week 13, the correlations between the present-in-peers ratings and the imagined-other-perceived-present-in-self ratings were found to be statistically significant and moderately positive for all three constituents. It is evident that at the end of the semester, students' beliefs about the proportion of their peers who possessed the attributes comprised under each of the three personality constituents and their beliefs about the percentage of peers who assigned those

attributes to them (students) were conceptually cohesive. Different from what was observed for the beginning of the semester, significant correlations also included the relationship measured for the personality constituent *Expert*.

In the chapter that follows, I will discuss how the reported quantitative results cohere and, how qualitative data from student questionnaires and personal and group interviews with study participants complement insights based on quantitative findings. I include in my comments suggestions for areas of inquiry that could benefit from future research.

6.0 Discussion

"When we understand each other, we get things done. And everybody's[8] happy".

(Tom[9], CS[10]3, personal interview)

The goal of my dissertation study was to explore pathways to mutual understanding, or intersubjectivity, among FL students. The examination of students' beliefs about their peers and selves affords not only a view into students' social environment through their own eyes but also an opportunity to witness how students' perceptions unfold synchronically and diachronically as students interact with each other.

6.1 How students imagined their 'ideal' peers

As touched upon in the Literature Review, there is usually an expectation of a difference between one's wished-for idealizations and one's experiences of lived reality (Djikic & Oatley, 2004). No one truly expects to find him- or herself in an ideal circumstance all the time. However, one imagines not only how one could maximize one's personal potential and

[8] Student quotations are presented in their original form to maintain authenticity of their statements
[9] All listed student names are pseudonyms.
[10] Class section

experiences but also how one could contribute better to a larger social unit, be it society as a whole or a local community, such as a foreign language class.

In this study, students' beliefs about their ideal peers served as a baseline for comparison against their beliefs about their actual selves and their actual peers. Beliefs about ideal peers were considered in the context of three personality constituents that peers should possess: *Accommodator, Expert,* and *Entertainer*. Please recall that each of these three constituents was 'built' from a pool of 13 personal learner attributes, each of which was individually rated by the students (for details on the formation of the three personality constituents, please refer to the Results chapter, Section 5.1.3). To recap, the constituent *Accommodator* consisted of the attributes *patient, kind, helpful, tolerant,* and *focused*; the constituent *Expert* comprised the attributes *confident, hardworking, proficient,* and *prepared*; and the constituent *Entertainer* was made up of the attributes *funny, creative, easygoing*, and *likeable*.

The substance of the three personality constituents, *Accommodator*, *Expert*, and *Entertainer*, parallels that of three components of the *Big Five* personality traits model suggested by Costa & McCrae (1992): The personality constituent *Accommodator* could be matched with the trait *Agreeableness*; the constituent *Expert* with the trait *Conscientiousness*; and the constituent *Entertainer* shares elements of the trait *Extraversion*. The two remaining traits of the *Big Five* model, *Openness to Experience* and *Emotional Stability,* could not be matched in the present study due to the lack of complementary attributes provided to respondents for their evaluation.

6.1.1 Multidimensionality of the ideal peer

From both quantitative and qualitative data sources it became clear that students considered all three personality constituents under investigation to be important in a peer – but not equally so.

The by far most valued personality constituent in a peer among the second-semester students of German in this study, both at the beginning and at the end of the semester, was that of *Accommodator*. Its lead over the second most important constituent *Expert* was significant, as was the distance from the constituent *Expert* to the least important component, *Entertainer*. Students' beliefs about what makes a peer ideal appear to have reflected a need for a pleasant, non-confrontational, co-operative, and stress-free environment, which peer-*Accommodators* were thought to be able to provide. These findings reflect the results of other studies that speak to the positive influence that supportive class peers have on student learning (e.g., Chang, 2010; Morris & Tarone, 2003). In the present study, the words of Zach from CS1 echoed the views of many of his peers, "It is important that we are comfortable with each other, … that we can help each other out when needed" (Group Interview 1). Another student, Tom (CS3), identified in a personal interview an ideal peer as someone who "doesn't care if I am wrong". For one female student from CS2 it was important that one's peers would above all "be open-minded and patient, and would smile a lot" (*GDQ*[11], item 5).

Once the accommodating environment had been established, students felt they would benefit from other qualities of their peers, namely from those of an *Expert*. Students found it important that their peers be prepared, exhibit effort and interest in learning of the material, and share the workload evenly. For example, one male student from CS4 appreciated students who were "serious about their work, willing to contribute equal amounts, and knowledgeable about the course" (*GDQ*, item 5). The same sentiment was shared by several other students in the present study as well as by learners described in Léger and Storch (2009), among others.

Results showed that, overall, students considered the qualities of the third personality constituent, the *Entertainer*, to be not as important in their ideal peers as those of *Accommodator*

[11] *General Disposition Questionnaire*

or *Expert*. However, the same data also provided evidence that students' beliefs about the importance of *Entertainer*-related qualities varied widely. Specifically, *Entertainer* was the only constituent that contained an attribute (*funny*) that received every possible importance rating, from the lowest rating of 0, to the highest of 10. Further, students' ratings for *funny* and another *Entertainer*-related attribute, *creative*, exhibited the largest deviation of ratings (expressed in relative standard deviation or *RSD*; the spread of data around the mean) from the mean from among all 13 evaluated attributes (*funny, RSD* = 37%; *creative, RSD* = 32%).

Support for a more differentiated view of peer-*Entertainers* came also from qualitative data, namely personal and group interviews. Students like Will (CS3) considered peer *Entertainers* to be essential in the creation and maintenance of an inspiring, non-boring classroom atmosphere: "I like this class. It has students who make it interesting and not so … well, you know" (personal interview). Other students felt that the entertaining side of peers might get out of hand to the point of being disruptive and could detract from their learning objectives: "I don't like working with class clowns. I'm easily distracted and then nothing gets done." (Betty, CS3, Group Interview 2). The fine line between the positive and negative side of being entertaining was possibly best expressed by Mako from CS4 in a personal interview: "Sometimes people who think … or maybe everyone thinks, are funny, are just arrogant and cocky".

To sum up, students' beliefs as they pertained to the ideal peer possessing the qualities of the *Accommodator*, the *Expert*, and the *Entertainer* reflected a distinct separation between these three components in both concept and valuation. Students believed to be most important that their ideal peers be accommodating in order to establish a cooperative and friendly learning environment. Less important was an ideal peers' conscientiousness about academics so as to

meet their and other students' learning objectives in the class. The least important of the three constituents was the entertaining element that, if viewed positively, could contribute toward the creation and maintenance of a relaxed yet lively and stimulating atmosphere in the class; and, if viewed negatively, was regarded as a distraction from learning.

6.1.2 Zooming in: The role of individual attributes in an ideal peer

The three personality constituents, the *Accommodator*, the *Expert*, and the *Entertainer*, served as overarching and at the same time simplified descriptors of an ideal peer. Each of these constituents represented several individual attributes, as described above (Section 6.1).

The labels that were assigned to the three constituents described the general nature of the constituent; however, they did not provide any insight into the importance of any of the individual attributes in an ideal peer. In order to better understand the dynamics between the personality constituents as they were compared with each other and across time, a more focused look at how students perceived the 13 selected individual attributes in an ideal peer is warranted.

6.1.2.1 The highest-rated attributes in an ideal peer

Results indicate that out of 13 rated personal and learner attributes, students believed that their ideal peers should above all be *patient*, *helpful*, and *hardworking*.

6.1.2.1.1 Patience

According to quantitative data, the attribute *patient* was overall rated as the most important attribute out of the 13 attributes that were presented for evaluation.

The theme of patience as a necessary quality of a peer who students imagined would be ideal, repeatedly surfaced in students' answers to an open-ended questionnaire item posed in the *General Disposition Questionnaire* (*How would you describe students that you work well with?*).

When during individual and group interviews I asked the students to describe an ideal peer or a peer they would like to work with in the class, several students mentioned their peer's patience in connection with their own perceived language proficiency. In a personal interview, Amani, CS4, for example, volunteered, "I know there are students in this class who speak better German. I don't like when they act arrogant like they know everything. I prefer students who can listen and are patient". Tom from CS3 in the personal interview confided that, "German is not my major or anything like that. I try my best but there are times when I notice that other students become impatient with me – I see it on their faces. It's annoying". Regarding themselves as members of a classroom community, it was obvious that students feared that others in class might diminish them. They hoped to attend a class where, in the words of Julia from CS3 during a personal interview, students were "patient, understanding, and friendly".

6.1.2.1.2 Helpfulness

In this study, respondents considered helpfulness to be the second most important attribute of an ideal peer. It rests at the very core of the idea of peer learning, which includes students learning from and teaching each other (Boud, Cohen, & Sampson, 2014). Some students saw their peers as enablers of their own learning, including Jim from CS4, who in a personal interview defined peers with whom he would work well as "students who have the patience to help me understand something when I ask for help, can push me to learn and try". Several students linked helpfulness to achieving the feeling of comfort in the class: "The other students need to be kind and helpful; it makes your life really a lot more comfortable. Like they are not going to judge you, they're going to help you" (Tanya, CS2, Group Interview 2), and "We are comfortable with each other, can help each other out when needed." (Mako, CS4, personal interview).

Helpfulness can also be described as willingness to cooperate, a direct contrast to a display of opposition or ignorance. Students' beliefs reflected this sentiment and showed that in the FL classroom, peer cooperation and being there for each other is a must.

6.1.2.1.3 Intent to work hard

The results of my study revealed that in a German FL classroom, students expected an environment where hard work is valued and leads to success in learning. Ideal peers, in the words of one male student from CS3, are "ones who genuinely care about the language and are working hard to increase their proficiency" (*GDQ*, item 5). Similarly, in an answer to the same question on the *GDQ*, another male student, this time from CS4, appreciated "students who are determined, hardworking people who want to learn and understand material while exceeding expectations".

A few students also viewed the attribute *hardworking* as going hand-in-hand with the attribute *prepared*; in other words, they believed that in order to contribute equally to task accomplishment, their peers had to have done their homework and work hard in class: "I want to be productive in class. I hate working with someone who is not prepared. I like students who are hardworking and smart" (Zach, CS1, Group Interview 1). In the same group interview, Erica from CS2 put a similar sentiment plainly: "I am prepared to work hard, and I expect others to do the same".

Being conscientious about one's work has been linked to significantly higher academic achievement (McAbee & Oswald, 2013). Several student participants, too, considered hard work unavoidable on the road to academic success: "If you want to get an A in this class, you have to work hard", Betty from CS3 mentioned in the second group interview. In the same interview,

another student, Tony (CS4), received agreeing nods from other students present when he said: "No pain, no gain, if you know what I mean".

6.1.2.2 The lowest-rated attributes in an ideal peer

Three out of the 13 attributes occupied the lowest rank of importance for an ideal peer, namely the attributes *funny*, *creative*, and *proficient*. It should be mentioned, however, that even though these attributes were found less important than the other attributes, their average scores (5.76, *funny*; 5.92, *creative*; and 6.14, *proficient*) indicated that according to the 0 –10 scale (0 = very unimportant, 10 = very important) used in this study, these attributes were still considered important.

6.1.2.2.1 Being funny

The attribute *funny*, when compared to the other 12 attributes received on average significantly lower ratings than the first nine attributes. However, the lower ratings did not, in this case, tell the whole story. *Funny* was the only attribute out of 13 that was awarded all of the possible scores, from 0 to 10. Values of the relative standard deviation (*RSD*) only solidified the impression of how widely students differed in their beliefs with respect to this attribute and its importance in an ideal peer: On average, the *RSD* of the attribute *funny* was 37%. In one of the sections, CS3, this spread even reached a staggering 49%.

Qualitative data provide a possible explanation for the extent of the differential between the different ratings of the attribute *funny*. Responses to the open-ended question 5 on the *GDQ* suggested that some students thought they worked well with peers who were, in the students' words, "*funny*, had a sense of humor, could joke around" (male student in CS1), or simply "were fun to be around" (male student in CS3). In personal and group interviews, students expressed their appreciation of peers who had the ability to lighten up the atmosphere, especially at the

beginning of the semester. At the same time, students also revealed that *funny* peers could be distracting for some students who preferred to concentrate on the assignment. In fact, Tom from CS3 in a personal interview would distinguish between one student as *funny* and another who "only tries to be *funny* but isn't". In other instances, students would strive to balance the characteristic of *funny* with other characteristics. For example, one student from CS1 preferred to work with a peer who was "motivated and also *funny*, and laidback" (*GDQ*, item 5). Erica from CS2 said in the first group interview that she appreciated peers "if they're *funny* and have a sense of humor but they also want to get through the task and they also understand what we're supposed to be doing and are *focused*".

One may conclude that the possession of the attribute *funny* could, on the one hand, bring about a pleasant, entertaining experience with a peer but, on the other, could also turn into a source of annoyance or distraction.

6.1.2.2.2 Creativity

Creativity has been long lauded as a personal quality to be nurtured in schools and colleges, and more recently, it has been seen as a core aspect of education (Craft, 2005). The importance of creativity has also been stressed in relation to its explicit role in the economy: "For sustainability and global competitiveness, we need the next generation of human capital to consist of creative and innovative college graduates" (Charyton, Snelbecker, Rahman, & Elliot, 2013, p. 351). The essential role that creativity takes in the views of education and business communities did not, however, seem to be recognized by the student participants in the present study. Based on quantitative results, the attribute *creative* received on average the second-lowest rating from among all the evaluated attributes. It was also the only attribute that in one of the CSs, (CS3), received an average rating below the middle score of 5, which indicated that in this particular

class section, creativity was not considered important for an ideal peer to possess. However, similarly to the attribute *funny*, the differential between the minimum and maximum ratings was large; it included all scores between 1 and 10.

Qualitative data did not shed much light on reasons why, on average, students did not perceive the attribute *creative* to be more important. In fact, neither in the open-ended questionnaire nor in the personal and group interviews did students mention the attribute *creative* as a quality that students would desire for a peer to have, which probably underscores the relative unimportance of this attribute in students' minds. In the first group interview, Lena from CS1 commented on her expectations of *creativity* in an ideal peer: "*Creative*? Maybe. It would help but it is not necessary". Although it is impossible to ascertain exactly how representative Lena's opinion was, results of quantitative analyses imply that many of her peers would agree.

Concerning the disparity in the importance that school administrators and potential employers as compared to students appear to assign to creativity, it may be a matter of perspective. It is conceivable that when students described an 'ideal' peer, they focused not so much on the independent contributions that this peer could make but rather on the peer's ability to support their collaboration in a manner that allows the student him- or herself to shine or, at least, to prevent the student from feeling inferior or imposed upon. As a result, participants in this study seemed to prefer *patient*, *helpful*, *hardworking* over *creative* peers. In a similar vein, respondents may have believed that the typical tasks of the language classroom require dedication and persistence rather than inspiration and independent thought.

6.1.2.2.3 Proficiency

Results of quantitative analyses showed that in all four CSs, the attribute *proficient* ranked consistently among the least important attributes. Qualitative data with respect to this attribute

were scarce, and in most instances did not refer to it directly. In the *General Disposition Questionnaire* (item 5), female student from CS3 described a peer that she would work well with as someone who "tend(s) to attempt to speak only in German during the activities and give(s) a full effort". A male student from CS4 would work well with a peer who "has a decent grasp of the material". The only student who mentioned proficiency explicitly was one female student participant from CS3 who pointed out the journey-like nature of being *proficient* by stating that students one works well with are students "who genuinely care about the language and are working hard to increase their proficiency" (*GDQ*, item 5).

It might be helpful to review quantitative results in the context of students' assessment of their own proficiency. You might recall from the initial description of study participants (Table 1a, Research Methodology Section 4.4.1.4) that out of 59 students who completed at least one of the questionnaires (*SDQ1*, S*DQ2*, and *GDQ*), 34 assessed their German speaking ability relative to their classmates as "average" when compared to ten who described themselves as "somewhat above average"; one who thought he was "way above average"; and ten who regarded themselves as "somewhat below average". Four students did not share this information. With that in mind, it might be assumed that students, on average, were comfortable with their own proficiency level in the class, and that they were unlikely to perceive their peers as possessing proficiency that was either superior or inferior to their own. As a result, students might have believed that they neither could nor needed to rely on their peers to improve their own proficiency.

6.1.2.3 Other notable attributes

To conclude the review of what value learners placed on individual attributes of an ideal German language learner, I will briefly address two more attributes that stood out in the analysis, each for

a different reason, namely the attributes *tolerant* and *focused*. The attribute *tolerant* was unique because of its special position in one class section (CS3); the attribute *focused* drew attention because of its homogenous ratings.

6.1.2.3.1 Tolerance

Overall, the attribute *tolerant* was considered of middling importance for an ideal peer to possess – it placed 6th out of 13 attributes, after the attributes *patient*, *helpful*, *hardworking*, *focused*, and *kind* on average ratings. What makes this attribute unique, however, is its placement in CS3, where it was the most important attribute out of the rated 13.

I searched the qualitative data for explanations of this attribute's unusual importance in CS3. During the duration of one semester, I observed CS3 six times for a complete class meeting (fifty minutes). On several occasions, I noticed that the atmosphere in the class was disturbed by the conduct of one student (Becky) who stood out for her loud behavior and who constantly commented on issues, mostly of an academic character (e.g., directions for assignments, the nature and length of assignments, etc.) – all without much regard for her peers. From Becky's behavior it was obvious that she considered the teacher to be the only one with relevant expertise in the class, and that she ignored her peers, even if assigned to work with them in a small group. During my observations, she was asked to work with several different students in the class and always behaved in what appeared to be a self-centered and patronizing fashion. I was able to interview two of the students who were assigned as partners to this particular student in two different pair work tasks. One student, Tom, was very reserved with his comments in the personal interview: "Yes, there were some challenges with this pair work but the assignment got completed." Tom did not wish to further elaborate on his comments. The audio recording of the referenced pair work revealed that there was only minimal interaction between Becky and Tom.

In fact, when Becky asked Tom her only question and Tom provided the correct answer to it, Becky immediately summoned the teacher to check the correctness of Tom's answer against what she thought was the right answer. The second student, Julia, was hesitant when in a personal interview she was first asked to describe her pair work with Becky. Ultimately, she commented:

> I've never worked with anyone like that before. She never really listened to me, so she would always assume that she was right and I was wrong, and then we would have to look it up … I felt she was like a boss who shoots down ideas. That's kind of how I felt, that she was a boss, and I was just like pitching stuff, and she would just be like no, no, no, but then come up with the same idea.

Neither Tom nor Julia used the adjective *tolerant* (or rather, *intolerant* in this context) but the general sentiment that both students shared was clear.

I believe that students' perception of the atmosphere in the class influenced the way students evaluated the importance of the 13 attributes in an ideal peer. In a class in which students sometimes faced arrogance and intentionally poor communication from a peer, demands for *tolerance* in an ideal peer became high.

6.1.2.3.2 Focus

Students viewed the attribute *focused* as the fourth most-important attribute in an ideal peer out of all 13 rated attributes.

Please recall that the attribute *focused* was not part of the attributes that were presented in the original study design, the one used in the pilot study. Rather, the attribute *focused* was added based on the suggestion of three students who wrote in the attribute *focused* in a blank space on

the version of the *General Disposition Questionnaire* that was administered during the pilot study.

In the present study, interviewed participants regarded the attribute *focused* as the opposite of *inattentive.* Mako from CS4 noted in the personal interview, “There are some students who goof around a lot, too much”. Erica, CS2, in a first group interview, shared Mako’s view: “I really don’t like when people just pretend to be in the class”. With their learning goals in mind, students also used *focused* as a synonym for peers who could stay on task: “It’s nice to work with people who know what needs to be done and do it, who are focused” (Evan, CS4, personal interview).

The ratings of this attribute displayed the smallest *SD* and *RSD* from among the attributes, meaning that students’ beliefs with respect to *focused* were the most homogeneous when compared to beliefs about the remaining 12 attributes. Data from group interviews seemed to support the findings from questionnaires insofar as not showing any contradictions or wide disagreements among student participants. A comment by Cheung from CS4 during the second group interview was followed by nods of all students present:” Well, I’m in the class ‘cause I want to get better in German. I think staying on task is really important here”. In the same group interview, Betty from CS3 included the attribute *focused* among the attributes of a peer she would work well with: “I think to be nice is important. And like kind of *focused* on what’s going on in class”. Again, her statement received unanimous approval, both verbal and non-verbal, from the rest of the interviewees who were present.

It may be concluded that the attribute *focused*, apart from its importance to the makeup of an ideal peer, is a quality which was appreciated by student participants to a similar degree.

Associated with staying on task and paying attention in class, *focused* appeared to be an essential attribute relevant to the achievement of students' learning objectives.

6.1.3 Suggestions for future research: The ideal peers

The results of the present study speak clearly about the differentiated importance that study participants allocated to each of the three personality constituents in an ideal peer, with *Accommodator*-like qualities valued most, followed by qualities of an *Expert*, and then by those of an *Entertainer*. Data that I collected as a part of this project but that I did not include in the dissertation indicate that it might be worthwhile to extend the investigation of students' beliefs about an ideal peer to that of an ideal pair work partner, that is, to examine students' beliefs in settings in which a peer's personal qualities assume immediate relevance. Specifically, preliminary findings showed that students believed an ideal pair work partner should possess *Accommodator*-related qualities to the same degree as the qualities of an *Expert* (Appendix K), which indicated that the distinct priorities that pertained to hypothetical ideal peers in general classroom settings did not carry over entirely into the context of pair work. When the goal was to complete an assignment collaboratively, the contribution of *expertise* became as important as that of *accommodation*. In contrast, in whole-class work, the need for a peer-*Expert* might not have been as pressing due to the dominant expert role of the teacher. Learning about the influence of classroom setting on learners' beliefs would allow teachers to become more aware of potentially different expectations students might have of their peers as they engage in a variety of class activities. Research shows that some students are reluctant to work with peers (Fushino, 2010, Storch & Aldosari, 2010) and prefer teacher-fronted instruction to that of either pair or small group work (Brown, 2009). A better understanding of students' concerns could help teachers address these issues head-on, and dispel or mediate them.

The well-defined hierarchy of the importance of the three personality constituents in an ideal peer could also serve as a point of reference for a further investigation that considers learner variables. Future research might usefully examine whether the present study's findings would hold true for students who were largely new to college generally and the FL class particularly, namely students in their first semester. As the demographic information of current study participants shows (please see the Research Methodology section), more than one-half of the student participants had completed the first-semester German course at the university under investigation, and were thus familiar with the general workings of the language program, including its expectations for language learners. A survey of beliefs of students who would not possess this sense of familiarity would identify the point in time when the image of an idealized peer first forms in students' minds.

Data on students' beliefs about the importance of 13 individual attributes revealed how students prioritized these attributes in their peers. In a future study, I would like to explore what degree of importance the 13 attributes would take in students' perceptions of their ideal teacher. This examination would add to the existing research not only by describing the wished for attributes of the teacher as presented in other studies (Arnon & Reichel, 2007; Komarraju, 2013) but also by its capacity to directly compare the two ideals: the one of the peer and the one of the teacher. Such an expanded representation of the ideal in the FL class would offer a more comprehensive picture of the interplay of different social aspects of classroom learning as well as of students' imagined division of labor between students and teachers.

6.2 How students 'measure up': Students' beliefs about their selves vs. students' beliefs about ideal peers

FL classes offer not only an environment designed to meet students' learning objectives but they also could be described as places that afford social interaction. In intersubjective transactions, the ability to identify with others and at the same time to distinguish between self and others plays a key role. The image of an ideal peer, as discussed in the previous section of this chapter, by itself is a one-dimensional construct. Evidence from social psychology research, however, shows that in interaction beliefs about others do not exist in a vacuum but rather that they are interconnected with beliefs about oneself (Buckingham & Alicke, 2002; Decety & Sommerville, 2003).

6.2.1 How students saw their selves

When students were asked to 'look in the mirror' and reflect on the degree to which they possessed the 13 selected attributes, students both at the beginning and at the end of the semester primarily saw the image of an *Accommodator*. The depictions of an *Expert* and an *Entertainer* were visible to a lesser degree, with both personality constituents represented in equal measure. In light of existing research about people's self-evaluations, these results are not unexpected. If one follows the basic premise that people generally want to feel good about themselves, it could also be expected that one's means to satisfy this need would be "by claiming to possess culturally valued qualities" (Brown & Kobayashi, 2003, p. 87). Being *patient, kind, helpful, tolerant,* and *focused* (all attributes of an *Accommodator*) could be considered equivalent to owning these values. Not surprisingly then, students' evaluation of their selves as foremost being *accommodating* to others reflected what students thought that the society, the institution, and their classroom community had expected of them. As for the explanation of lower ratings for the constituents *Expert* and *Entertainer* (relative to those of *Accommodator*), these might be related

to a theory that people in their self-evaluation are more critical about traits that they consider more difficult to attain (Hoelzl & Rustichini, 2005).

Qualitative data collected from personal and group interviews about students' self-image provided only anecdotal and isolated evidence in support of quantitative findings, mainly due to the absence of directly pertinent questions. Nevertheless, some students did reflect on their selves as they commented on pair work they had just completed: "I didn't know Amani [pseudonym] before we were paired up today. You know, I consider myself a friendly, outgoing person, so I think that did the trick", said Jim from CS4 in a personal interview. Tanya from CS2 in the second group interview mentioned about herself that "I like helping but also don't want to hurt people's feelings. So I didn't talk like … as much as I usually do". In a personal interview, Mako from CS4 was concerned about her partner's opinion of one of the markers of her personality:

> I was a bit worried because Otto [pseudonym] seemed to be so… confident. He always talks with …hm… other students. I listen a lot, and… I do well with grammar, well, but I am …hm…kinda shy. I didn't know what he would think of me.

Jim, Tanya, and Mako shared beliefs about their selves not in isolation but rather in the context of their beliefs about others as well as beliefs that they thought others might have about them. Similarities and differences between different but related sets of beliefs are explored next.

6.2.2 Convergence and divergence between beliefs about selves and beliefs about ideal peers

Quantitative data revealed that in terms of the personality constituents *Accommodator, Expert,* and *Entertainer*, students' views about their selves overlapped with their views about the importance of these constituents in an ideal peer in some aspects while they differed in others. Both students' beliefs about their selves and their beliefs about an ideal peer highlighted the

attributes of the *Accommodator*, be it by emerging as the strongest perceived representation in their selves or by being of the highest perceived importance in others. This finding reflects that students recognized the social and interactive nature of the FL class, and saw their selves and their ideal peers as members of a learner community rather than as individual learners. Through placing the highest value on the qualities of *Accommodator* (*patient, kind, helpful, tolerant,* and *focused*) students projected their need to create and maintain intersubjectivity.

A direct comparison of students' ratings of their selves with those of an ideal peer at the beginning of the semester yielded not a single significant difference in any of the three constituents. It stands to reason that when students have not yet had the opportunity to get to know the others, their views of an ideal peer relied mostly on their self-image. This conclusion is confirmed by research studies about self-other beliefs (e.g. Meltzof & Brooks, 2001; Morry, Reich, and Kito, 2010). As the semester unfolded, students had opportunities to interact and participate in whole class, pair, and small group work, and they gained knowledge about other students' performance, which could have influenced their self-evaluation (Buckingham & Alicke, 2002). At the end of the semester, students' reexamination of their beliefs about what they can contribute and what they can expect from their ideal peers showed that by then students considered their selves marginally weaker on their possession of *Expert*-like qualities than they would like to see these qualities in their peers. In other words, the *Expert*-like qualities desired in others assumed a more compensatory character as the semester neared its end.

A point of divergence between beliefs about the self and beliefs about others was found when I took a closer look at the representations of the *Expert* and the *Entertainer* as they compared between the ideal peer and the self. While, at both the beginning and the end of the semester, in the ideal peer the *Entertainer*-like qualities were perceived as significantly less

important than the qualities of the *Expert,* students did not make that distinction when they evaluated their selves. In students' self-evaluations at the beginning and the end of the semester, the *Expert*- and *Entertainer*-related parts of their personality were represented equally. It seems that in contrast to how students envisioned the need for an entertaining aspect of an ideal peer, describing their selves as *funny*, *easygoing*, *creative*, and *likeable* (all comprised under *Entertainer*) was on par with students' self-perceived *Expert*-like qualities (*confident*, *hardworking*, *proficient,* and *prepared*). Such a view of their selves captured students' own desire to create and maintain the appearance of a persona with both expertise and a strong social presence.

The misalignment between students' perceptions of the constituents *Entertainer* and the *Expert* in their ideal peers when compared to students' view of these two constituents in their selves was also observed when I considered the conceptual cohesiveness of the two constituents within each set of beliefs at the beginning as well as at the end of the semester. In the ideal peer at both time points of the semester, the correlations between the *Entertainer* and the *Expert* were weak and insignificant, which demonstrated dissociation between the two constituents. In contrast, in self-evaluations the correlations between the constituents *Expert* and *Entertainer* proved to be moderate and significant at both the beginning and the end of the semester, indicating that students' beliefs about the two constituents were conceptually cohesive.

6.2.3 Suggestions for future research: The self

The sets of beliefs that were explored in the present study included beliefs about actual selves and beliefs about ideal peers. To create a parallel for a more direct comparison with self-beliefs, it might be of interest for future studies to collect data (both quantitative and qualitative) on what students believe about 'typical' rather than ideal peers with respect to the perceived importance

of the 13 attributes, in addition to the already collected data on the percentage of students in the actual classroom who are believed to possess these attributes (Section 6.3, below). The results would meaningfully contribute to the discussion of how *Self-enhancement theory* can be applied to research of self-beliefs, and also complement the existing data bank by adding texture to the study of students' beliefs about attractive learner characteristics.

The evaluation of the self based on the three composite constituents as performed in the present data analysis yielded an interesting but rather abridged depiction, according to which students saw their selves as *Accommodators* in the first place, and as *Entertainers* and *Experts* (at equal rank) in the second. In a future project, I would like to expand on the current exploration of self-evaluation by focusing on the role of individual attributes in students' perceptions of their selves. This suggestion is based in part on data I have already collected but not yet fully analyzed. Preliminary analysis of self-ratings of 13 individual attributes based on the available Likert-style questionnaire data from the beginning of the semester (*SDQ1,* items 57-69) revealed that in contrast to the two most important attributes sought in an ideal peer (*patient* and *helpful,* Results, Theme 1; Section 5.1.1), students viewed their selves primarily as *tolerant* and *kind* (Appendix L). Future studies might focus on the reasons behind students' self-evaluation. Doing so would provide researchers and teachers with a more nuanced understanding of how students regard their selves.

6.3 In the real, not ideal classroom: Students' beliefs about actual peers

Previously, I discussed beliefs about a type of peer who students imagined to be an ideal person to work with in class and the image of self as it related to the ideal peer. In contrast, in the present section I will examine beliefs about the *real* rather than idealized peer and the image of self as it is rendered not via self-reflection but through beliefs about the self that have been

projected onto others. Specifically, I will address the percentage of peers who students believed possessed the qualities associated with the three personality constituents as well as students' beliefs about the percentage of peers who assigned those qualities to them (students).

6.3.1 The perceived make-up of the actual class

Only a few days into the semester, student participants, on average, perceived almost three quarters (72%) of students in their class to have *Accommodator*-like qualities. Respondents, again on average, thought a significantly smaller percentage of students but still well over one half of the class (67%) to possess the qualities of *Entertainer*; and almost the same average percentage of students (65%) was thought to possess *Expert*-like qualities.

It is noteworthy that at the beginning of the semester the average percentage of students who were thought to possess the qualities of a certain personality constituent ranged between 65% and 72%. That is, on average, approximately one third of students in the class were thought to lack these qualities. While it is indeed conceivable that students genuinely believed an approximate third of the class to fall short in each of the three personality constituents, an alternative explanation is that students – at the time of their responses – had not had enough contact with each other. As a result, the missing third may represent a mental allowance for missing information, not a confident assessment of the qualities represented in the class. To exemplify, Evan from CS4 in a personal interview observed about his pair work partner "Uhm… I never worked with her before; I had no impressions, positive or negative. "

6.3.1.1 First impressions

It is unlikely that at the time of the first questionnaire (*SDQ1*, Week 2) students knew each other well enough to pass informed judgments about each other's personalities. It is more likely that students' perceptions stemmed from their first impressions of their peers, based on (a) peers'

appearance and/or (b) the respondents' interpretations of other students' behaviors in class. In an answer to a personal interview question *What went through your mind when you learned who you are going to work with in a peer task?,* a peer's appearance served as a basis of first impression to some of the students: "I was working with the person sitting next to me, he looked friendly enough" (Will, CS3), or "I thought… Well, she looked like my cousin, it was weird" (Tom, CS3). Research indicates that appearance and especially facial features and expressions take an essential part in a formation of a first impression. For example, Willis and Todorov's (2006) series of experiments suggested that a minimal exposure (0.1 second to 1 second) was sufficient for participants to form an impression, and any additional time of contact boosted participants' confidence in their original judgments.

Other students in the present study based their impressions of others not on the looks but rather on their interpretations of briefly observed behaviors. In the answer to the above-mentioned personal interview question posed in the beginning of the semester (*What went through your mind when you learned who you are going to work with in a peer task?*), Amani from CS4 mentioned in a personal interview, "I was happy. The person I was working with [Jim], he seems to know German well, and that's always a plus in a partner". Also in a personal interview, Otto from the same section stated:

> I was OK with whoever I was working with, and I was working with a lady who is quiet most of the time but then, I was like OK, I'll just get her to talk. I just thought to myself like, hey, I'm going to speak and if I don't know something I can always ask her or the teacher.

Otto's partner Mako (CS4) shared her impressions about what she felt before interacting with Otto:

> I worked with a guy who can speak German fluently, so I felt pretty nervous 'cause I cannot speak well, and I felt a lot of pressure; I was … overwhelmed and nervous. I heard him saying to his friends, uhm, before the class, that whenever he heard somebody who cannot speak German correctly, he'd get a little bit annoyed".

Mako's feelings about the upcoming interaction with Otto were based on her observation of Otto's previous behavior. Such observations have been claimed to be quite relevant for expectations of how pleasurable the future interaction might be (Denrell, 2005). As Mako's initial impression of Otto raised her self-doubt and caused anxiety, she clearly did not look forward to working with him.

6.3.1.2 From first impressions to familiarity

The value of the strength of first impression should be noted when appreciating, comparatively, students' ratings of their peers at the end of the semester, after students had the opportunity to get to know each other and develop peer relationships. As analysis suggests, quantitative results at the end of the semester were virtually identical to those at the beginning. Participants, on average, still perceived almost three quarters of students in class as *Accommodators* (73% compared with 72% at the beginning of the semester), and a similar percentage of students as *Entertainers* (69% compared with 67% at the beginning of the semester). Participants' perception of the percentage of students- *Experts* remained exactly the same (65% at both the beginning and the end of the semester).

The argument about missing information used as an alternative to explain students' beliefs at the beginning of the semester (Section 6.3.1) sounds less plausible when explaining students' beliefs at the end of the semester. Assuming that by the end of the semester students had and took the opportunities to learn more about each other, their views about one-third of

students in class not possessing each of the three personality constituents might have this time, at the end of the semester, reflected their beliefs as informed by interaction with and observed behavior of other students in class.

The quantitative results suggest that participants' view of the actual students in class did not change over time; the qualitative data underscore that students in their interactions truly relied on the first impressions they had formed of their peers. You might remember Amani (CS4) who at the beginning of the semester had a positive feeling about her pair work partner based on her first impression. In a personal interview at the end of the semester, Amani commented on thoughts she had before the pair work which were this time based not on her first impressions but rather experience: "I worked with Jim [pseudonym] before so I wasn't nervous at all. I said to myself, like, OK, let's do this!" Similarly, when in a personal interview at the end of the semester Jim (CS4) described his feelings about the upcoming interaction with Amani, he also referred to his past experiences:

> She's so easy-going in terms of hm like helping you out if you have trouble with German. I had positive feelings, my expectations were high 'cause I know Amani [pseudonym] is smart … she's very good about explaining nuances of German, so I always feel I can learn something when I work with her.

6.3.1.3 Familiarity and positive impressions

Overall, the students who participated in either personal or group interviews (for the complete list of interview participants please see the Methods chapter, Section 4.4) spoke positively about the aspect of increased familiarity with their peers. For example, Vala from CS1 commented in the first group interview on the perceived dynamics of her class: "I think as a class we now get

along really well. Some days it's like we're all joking. It's great". Lena, also from CS1, who was present at the same group interview, shared Vala's view:

> Yeah, I agree. I think we definitely have like all, like, have made our relationships throughout the semester like we definitely have a big group of friends in there that we get along with really well. It's really important in class. It makes you feel more comfortable, more willing to, like, participate.

Tori from CS4 commented in the second group interview along the same lines,

> I think we're all pretty comfortable with each other, I like, I wish, we could almost have, like, the same class next semester 'cause, like, we all get along pretty well, and I would work with anybody in the class. We learn something and I enjoy the people.

Finally, Betty, a student from CS3 which, if you recall, was a home to one 'challenging' student (Becky), commented in the second group interview:

> Well, I think now we know each other pretty well, you know we kind of know what to expect. I think, overall, it's a good class. I hm became good friends with two girls from the class; we like having fun together.

Based on Vala's, Lena's, Tori's, and even Betty's statements which were representative of those made by many other students present at the interviews, increased familiarity with peers greatly contributed to the students' sense of comfort and allowed them to base their expectations of future interactions on experiences rather than impressions.

6.3.1.4 Familiarity and fun

In many of the personal interviews conducted at the end of the semester, students mentioned *having fun* and *joking around* as some of the major descriptors of their interactions with peers.

During a personal interview, Amani (CS4) alluded to the entertaining aspect of her interaction with Otto: “We had a lot of fun. He has a creative mind because his fairy tale was about the mafia; so that was a little different. But, hey, everybody has their own perception of fairy tales”. Julia from CS3, in a personal interview stated about her pair work with Will, also from CS3: “Oh, today was fun. I like doing pair work with him. You not only get stuff done but can also joke around. We mix it up a bit”. Another student, Tori (CS4), described her experiences with the German class in the second group interview as follows: “I couldn’t imagine us [students] just like sitting there. We’re a good class, you know, we like having fun. We laugh a lot, it makes the class what it is”. Otto, also from CS4, expressed similar sentiment in a personal interview:

> The class is really enjoyable. It’s something I actually look forward to in the afternoon, surprisingly. Students in my class are a lax bunch, casual, like, we joke a lot but at the same time we do everything that’s thrown at us.

One can posit that the element of fun as brought out towards the end of semester helped students not only feel comfortable around their peers but also led students to the enjoyment of their class. In a first group interview, Zach from CS1, commented: “I really like this class… After a few weeks, we started to get along really well, you know, in class, we joke and have fun”. Zach, unlike Tori and Jim, in his statement directly linked having fun in class with the formation of mutual understanding among the students.

6.3.1.5 Familiarity and negative impressions

It should be mentioned, however, that not in all instances did greater familiarity with one’s peers have the same positive effect on students’ perceptions. During personal and group interviews that I conducted with a total of 19 students, statements of two students, each from a different class section, stood out as they described their inability to form stronger relationships with some of the

other students. One of the interviewed students, Mako from CS4, expressed in a personal interview that even though she felt more comfortable in the class as time went on, she also had difficulties with overcoming her initially negative impressions of some of her peers. You might recall that due to her first impression of her peer Otto, Mako felt ‘nervous’ and ‘overwhelmed’ before her first pair work interaction with him. In a personal interview conducted at the end of the semester, Mako still referred to herself as ‘a little worried’ and ‘anxious’ when she found out she was assigned as Otto’s pair work partner. When I asked Mako in an another personal interview to comment on the feelings that she had before an interaction with another partner (Jim) whom she worked with earlier in the semester, Mako’s answer displayed the same undertone as her answer about working with Otto:

> I got a little bit nervous. I first worked with him [Jim], like, at the very beginning of the semester, and then I don’t know, like, I was supposed to work with him again but he paired with other two students who were sitting next to him and suddenly he turned away and then went to the other group to do the pair work so I felt a little bit nervous, like, maybe I wasn’t, like, good enough for him. Now, I worked with him again, it was OK but I was still very nervous, because you know, what he did before.

In the second group interview, an international (Asian) student, Cheung (CS4), related his inability to connect with some peers to his personal insecurity when interacting with students from a different ethnic background:

> You know, I felt it always difficult to be open with hm the American students. I had real difficulty with that. Also, in this class, I much more preferred to work with my Asian friends. I was hm comfortable then.

Mako's and Cheung's examples demonstrate that encounters with one's peers over the course of the semester might not change one's first impressions. On the one hand, Mako's anxiety which originated before the first encounter with her peers Otto and Jim persisted after their interaction. Cheung, on the other hand, was unable to overcome stereotypes of dividing students into groups. In the case of both students, however, it appears that their negative experiences seemed to have been related not only to their feelings about others but also to their feelings about their selves.

6.3.2 What do the others think of me?

As social beings, people often wonder about how they appear in the eyes of others. The environment of a FL classroom is based on extensive interaction among its members. As a part of their interactions, students invariably form beliefs not only about their selves but also about what other students in the class may think of them, that is, students develop metaperceptions. In the present study, at the beginning of the semester, students' metaperceptions (students' beliefs about how other students saw them) mostly corresponded with how students viewed the class. That is, students thought that others saw them as they (students) saw others. However, beliefs about qualities comprised under the constituent *Entertainer* were exempted from this trend. At the beginning of the semester, students, on average, believed that significantly higher percentage of students in class possessed the qualities of *Entertainer* than the percentage of their peers who believed the same about them (the student raters). By the end of the semester, however, this gap had decreased, resulting in only marginally significant difference between the two sets of beliefs. The smaller gap can be fully attributed to the marginally significant increase in the percentage of peers who, as students believed, attributed to them (the students) the qualities of *Entertainer*, all while students' views about the percentage of students in class who possessed the *Entertainer*-

like qualities did not change. It might be that the change in students' metaperceptions with respect to the constituent *Entertainer* could be related to the already-discussed connection between an increased familiarity with peers and stronger feelings of enjoyment and fun. A smaller gap between what students thought of the students in class and what they believed that other students thought of them when comparing students' beliefs at the beginning of the semester with their beliefs at the end could also be an indication of an evolving intersubjectivity; at the end of the semester, students could have felt more at ease with what their peers might have thought of them. They developed relationships, and just as they saw a certain number of their peers having the qualities of an *Entertainer*, they were also more able to imagine that closer number of others assigned those qualities to them.

Quantitative analysis, too, revealed that overtime, the relationship between what students thought of peers in class and what they believed their peers thought of them strengthened; correlations that were weak or borderline moderate at the beginning of the semester grew into being solidly moderate by the end of the semester. Indications that students' perceptions of others and their perceptions of how others perceived them in turn developed in tandem also come from some of the qualitative data. Amani (CS4) in a personal interview during one of the last weeks of the semester stated, "Of course, I consider it [the class] enjoyable, and I also think, I hope, that the others enjoy working with me". It appears that by the end of the semester, Amani saw herself as an integral part of the class, with her subjective thoughts overlapping with the perceived intersubjective reality.

6.3.3 Suggestions for future research: The actual peers

Incidental qualitative data based on personal and group interviews confirmed existing reports that the formation of one's beliefs about others begins before or during the first direct interaction

between both parties (Zebrowitz & Montepare, 2015); quantitative data from the first administration of the *Situated Disposition Questionnaire* reflected how students perceived their peers early on after only a few class periods had passed. It is therefore not known whether and how many students had an opportunity to form their beliefs through interactions with one another during that time. In order to more consistently capture the impact of the very first encounters between the students, a future study might focus on students' interactions and classroom dynamics during the first day of class in the semester. These findings would expand on the existing research about the importance of first day impressions to the formation of students' beliefs and these first impressions' lasting implications for student motivation (Wilson & Wilson, 2007).

Increased familiarity with one another has shown that students were, overall, becoming more comfortable and relaxed in the class as the time passed. Data from personal and group interviews that I have collected but not yet analyzed include statements in which students explicitly relate the perceived comfortable atmosphere in the class to their liking of their peers which in turn leads to their successes in learning. In the future, I would like to explore the influence that the personal attributes perceived in others might have on students' beliefs about learning. This type of inquiry would contribute to the larger body of research about the role of affect and relationships in learning (e.g., Dewaele & MacIntyre, 2014, Imai, 2010; and Swain, 2013).

Personal and group interviews revealed that even with increased familiarity, a few students lacked the ability to bond with their peers. You might recall that one student, Mako (CS4), harbored feelings of inadequacy and low self-confidence when facing interactions with her peers Otto and Jim. It is conceivable that her impressions of Otto and Jim, both before and

after her interaction with them, might have had more to do with Mako's feelings about herself than her views about the two peers. In order to explore this assumption it might be worthwhile to continue investigation of the relationship between feelings about self and others.

Qualitative data also brought up a possible link between students' ethnic background and their feelings of insecurity towards some of their peers. In the present study, Cheung's (CS4) Asian ethnicity seemed to have shaped his beliefs about himself and his American peers. Considering ethnic, racial, and national divisions between students might be perhaps an uncomfortable topic but one that needs to be explored further, especially when the object of study is a foreign language (such as German) that (stereotypically and inaccurately) is associated with an ethnically homogeneous native-speaking population.

6.4 Students' beliefs: Shared, static, dynamic

The core of the present study was to explore intersubjectivity among students, be it students' beliefs about their ideal peers, their selves, their real peers, or students' beliefs about what their peers thought of them. The applied research design examined students' beliefs not only synchronically but also diachronically (data were collected in Week 2 and Week 13 of a 15-week-long semester) in order to determine which beliefs are shared and whether they are static or dynamic.

6.4.1 Students' shared beliefs

Due to the fact that at the beginning of the semester students' beliefs about the importance of the presence of three personality constituents (*Accommodator*, *Expert*, and *Entertainer*) in their peers showed no significant difference across four different class sections, statistical analysis allowed for combining all four class sections into one group. This action would not have been possible had significant differences in students' beliefs been found between any two of the four

sections. The fact that, on average, students in all four CSs believed in the same hierarchy of the personal constituents important in their peers speaks to the representative nature of these beliefs within the specific institutional context.

Another belief that students shared was related to the constituent *Accommodator*. In every researched theme, from beliefs about ideal peers, to beliefs about self and real peers, the constituent *Accommodator* placed ahead of the other two constituents (*Expert* and *Entertainer*), each time sporting a significant lead. As mentioned previously, the dominant position of the constituent *Accommodator* in students' beliefs underscored the need students had for the establishment of mutual understanding. In other words, being *patient*, *kind*, *helpful*, *tolerant*, and *focused* (all associated with *Accommodator*) was used to build a necessary base for the very formation of intersubjectivity.

Finally, based on qualitative data from personal and group interviews, as students learned more about each other, they became more comfortable in class. Majority of interviewed students also shared a belief that increased familiarity with their peers had a positive effect on their enjoyment of the class.

6.4.2 Stability of students' beliefs

Overall, the majority of students' beliefs remained static according to quantitative data analyses. These beliefs included: (a) beliefs about the importance of constituents *Expert* and *Entertainer* in their ideal peers; (b) beliefs about their selves; (c) beliefs about the percentage of peers who possessed each of the three personality constituents; and (d) metaperceptions related to constituents *Accommodator* and *Expert*. In none of these beliefs was there a significant difference between the beginning and the end of the semester.

Only two marginally significant changes in beliefs were recorded (please see the next section). These findings speak to a relative stability of students' beliefs, at least when measured quantitatively. In the present study, a better part of what students believed after they first met with their peers corresponded to what students perceived after they had spent one semester with these same peers. It is therefore conceivable that some of the beliefs about ideal and real peers and self could be what Rokeach (1968) and later Furinghetti and Pekhonen (2002) called 'central' beliefs, namely beliefs which are more difficult to change because they are held with a high degree of conviction.

6.4.3 Changes in students' beliefs

As mentioned in the previous section, all but two investigated students' beliefs remained unchanged when the comparison between the beginning and the end of the semester was made. Time - in the case of the present study it was 11 weeks between the administrations of the two questionnaires (*SDQ1* and *SDQ2*) – seemed to interact with students' beliefs related to two of the three personality constituents in an ideal peer, *Accommodator* and *Entertainer*. Specifically, results indicated that at the beginning of the semester, the qualities of *Accommodator* were more important in an ideal peer at a marginally significant level than at the end of the same semester. One possible explanation could be that at the beginning of the semester students overestimated the value of the importance of possessing the qualities of *Accommodator*. Once students had become more comfortable with their peers in class, their expectations of how accommodating an ideal peer should be were adjusted. In other words, any change between the beginning and the end of the semester could be due to different degrees of importance accorded to the same concept of an ideal peer. Another explanation goes to the possibility that students' imaginings of the ideal peer in the beginning of the semester could have referenced a different concept than their

imaginings at the end of the semester. Such a shift may hint at the 13 characteristics not sufficiently representing the concept of an ideal peer, i.e., additional characteristics may have contributed at either or both points.

Another change in students' beliefs was recorded when, at a marginally significant level, students felt that a higher percentage of their peers thought of them (the students) as *Entertainers* at the end of the semester than had at the beginning of the semester. This finding was corroborated in personal and group interviews. In interviews held at the end of the semester students had accorded greater importance to the fun and enjoyment elements of peer interaction than they had in interviews conducted at the beginning of the semester. As the semester progressed, students could have developed stronger perceptions of their selves as being viewed as *Entertainers* by their peers simply because they themselves were having more fun in class.

Even as the majority of students' beliefs appeared relatively stable, the shift in some beliefs should not be dismissed. The complex nature of beliefs attested to in the present data is consistent with recent research that speaks of beliefs as "both stable and changing" (Negueruela-Azarola, 2011, p. 360-361) or as being defined "by the change/stability dichotomy" (Mercer, 2011, p. 343).

6.4.4 Suggestions for future research: Beliefs and time

Out of the two changes over the course of the semester that were recorded in students' beliefs, one change occurred in students' perceptions of the constituent *Accommodator* in their ideal peers; the other change was noted in students' perceptions of how their peers viewed them with respect to the constituent *Entertainer*. As data collection happened only at the beginning (Week 2) and then, again, at the end of the semester (Week 13), it is unclear when exactly students altered their beliefs. Investigation of the time point, circumstances and possible reasons

surrounding students' belief change through several repeated administrations of the questionnaires and through more frequent observations and interviews might contribute to a better understanding of the dynamic component of students' beliefs.

It is difficult to determine, however, whether these findings documented students' beliefs comprehensively. It is possible that with an earlier start of data collection, more or significant changes in students' beliefs would have been found. It might be of benefit to start collecting data on the very first day of class, possibly even before the first class (based on the roster of enrolled students) in order to come as close as possible to capturing data that reflect the full formation of students' beliefs.

As mentioned previously, a possible shift in students' conceptualization of an ideal peer could have rendered the instrument used to measure students' beliefs more or less suitable for capturing fully what students believed at a given moment. To account for conceptual changes, future research may ask students to suggest additional characteristics at the beginning as well as at the end of the semester.

It also might be of benefit to future research to expand on the present study by focusing on changes (or lack thereof) in beliefs as these relate to teachers, including beliefs about students held by teachers; beliefs by students about their teachers; and beliefs that students suspect their teachers to have about them. Comparing these types of beliefs would add to the present inquiry on evolving intersubjectivity in the FL class, for it is inherent to teacher-student relationships just as it is to the relationships between students.

7.0 Limitations

In addition to the limitations that are inherent to research designs similar to that of the present study (e.g., an emphasis on self-reporting, a relatively small number of participants, and

convenience sampling), limitations specifically related to the study at hand pertain. They include limitations resulting from the research instrument, the makeup of participants, and the timing of the questionnaire administration.

7.1 Limitations resulting from the research instrument

The 13 attributes used in the study were not theoretically comprehensive. I selected the 13 attributes that became the building blocks of the three emerged personality constituents of an ideal peer, *Accommodator*, *Expert*, and *Entertainer*, based initially on an informal survey of 14 students enrolled in a third-semester German class, i.e., based on empirical data. The selection of attributes did not follow established theoretical models, such as the personality framework known as the *Big Five* model (Costa & McCrae, 2008; Costa & McCrae, 1992). As mentioned in Discussion (Section 6.1), a comparison of the empirically based research instruments and personality theories showed that only three of the five domains of the *Big Five* model could be matched between the two (*Accommodator* with *Agreeableness*, *Expert* with *Conscientiousness*, and *Entertainer* with *Extraversion*). The two remaining domains of the *Big Five*, *Emotional Stability* and *Openness to Experience*, were not covered by the present study due to the absence of attributes associated with those domains in the research instrument. On the *General Disposition Questionnaire* (*GDQ*) or in personal and group interviews with the researcher, study participants mentioned qualities that they desired in an ideal peer but that were not included in the selected 13 attributes. They were *nice, open-minded, determined*, *friendly*, *witty*, *engaged*, and others. It appears that at least some of these attributes correspond with the components of the *Big Five* that were missing in the research instrument of the present study (e.g., the attribute *open-minded* is associated with *Openness to Experience*).

7.2 Limitations resulting from the makeup of participants

Based on a number of variables that relate to participants prevent this study from claiming generalizability. They include the gender distribution of participants, their ethnic make-up, their institutional context, and the self-selection process (volunteer participation) mandated by the Institutional Review Board.

With respect to gender distribution of the participants, notable is the over-representation of the male perspective in the quantitative potion of the present study, both in absolute terms and relative to the gender distribution of all students enrolled. Of all enrolled (66 students), 43 students were male and 23 female, a ratio of almost 2:1 in favor of male students. When the 59 students (42 male and 17 female students; please see the Research Methodology section, Table 1a for more details) who completed at least one of the questionnaires (*GDQ*, *SDQ1*, *SDQ2*) were considered, the ratio of male to female students was even higher, 2.5:1. According to several studies, gender could have been a factor in a perception of both peers and the self. In her 1982 seminal article, Gilligan found that females perceived their relationships as a web with themselves located centrally and connected to others, whereas males saw themselves at the top of a hierarchy. Gender differences in beliefs were also found with respect to social interaction with peers of the same sex. An examination of three studies of college students by Benenson et al. (2009) led to the conclusion that males had a higher threshold of tolerance and showed a higher acceptance of stresses in their relationships with male peers than did female students with their female peers. With regard to self-perceptions, Orenstein (2013) discussed young women's lower self-esteem and confidence in their own performance when compared to their male counterparts. Based on the findings of the described studies, the participant sample of the present study, which heavily favored males, could have interacted with the study's outcome.

In addition to an uneven male-female representation, of note is also a prevalence of one type of ethnicity that students claimed. Of the 59 students (out of enrolled 66) who shared their personal information, 43 students self-identified as Caucasian/White and eight students claimed Asian ethnicity. From observations and personal and group interviews, the only prominent ethnic divisions were Asian/international students versus others. Based on the fact that the participant sample was otherwise quite ethnically homogenous, claims about ethnic affiliations and divisions cannot be made but with a different sample it may prove to be a worthwhile point of investigation.

The fact that participants were drawn from a specific institutional context with particular practices and expectations presents another limitation. It is conceivable that student's beliefs and perceptions were, to a degree, shaped by the institution and the language program itself. In addition, more than half of student participants had already completed one semester of German at the same university. Being familiar with the institutional and departmental expectations might have influenced the way these experienced students channeled their answers into the questionnaires and personal and group interviews.

The self-selection process of the participants is another limitation to the study's generalizability. Fifty-nine students of 66 who enrolled chose to participate in one or more quantitative portions of the study (questionnaires). A smaller number of participants took part in the qualitative part of the study (ten students in personal and nine students in group interviews). Consequently, the self-selection process probably shaped qualitative data more as the number of students providing these data compared to those enrolled was a much smaller subset than the number of students who provided data for the questionnaires. Further indicating underlying but not exactly known principles of self-selection, all participants who accepted the invitation to

personal interviews perceived themselves as either 'average' or as 'somewhat above average' in their German speaking ability relative to their classmates. By comparison, students who volunteered for group interviews did not include students whose self-perceived German speaking ability was 'above average'. Apart from the fact that either type of interview failed to draw the full complement of self-confidence types, the distribution of volunteers between these two different formats probably is meaningful even as the distribution's precise import remains obscure.

7.3 Limitations resulting from the timing of the questionnaires' administration

The timing of questionnaire administration was not conducive to capturing students' first impressions of their peers. One of the main objectives of the present study was to follow the formation or evolution of intersubjectivity. It was therefore important to record the very first impressions that students had about their peers. As stated by existing research (Willis & Todorov, 2006) and supported by statements of several students in the present study, first impressions are formed very quickly and do not necessarily need to involve direct personal interaction. Even though I administered the take-home *General Disposition Questionnaire* (*GDQ*) in the beginning of the second week of each participating class, and the first of the two take-home *Situated Disposition Questionnaires (SDQs)* in the middle of the second week of the semester, I was not able to capture students' very first impressions of their peers and class in general. Furthermore, with personal interviews starting two weeks into the semester, some student interviewees appeared to have already 'settled' into their class. One of the students, Julia (CS3), commented in her personal interview in the third week of the semester: "Today was really good. Hard to believe it's been only two, wait, yeah, two weeks". In retrospect, deploying the research instruments on the first day of class, possibly even asking students to fill out a very

brief first impression survey in class, not at home, would have provided more uniform conditions for the examination of student beliefs as they related to their very first encounters with their FL peers.

8.0 Pedagogical Implications

I believe that how students, on average, form beliefs about their selves and their peers is not exclusive to the language classrooms under investigation but bears implications for any instructional setting where interaction between students takes place. Aside from students themselves and their peers, another factor that plays a role in the formation of students' beliefs is represented by the teacher. It is the teacher who provides opportunities for students to get to know each other, who recognizes students' shared beliefs as well as students' individual differences.

8.1 Providing opportunities to get to know each other

Over the course of the semester, all four teachers in the present study provided their students with opportunities to learn in settings that afforded close contact between students, namely pair work, work in triads or whole-class mixers (a setting in which all students mingle and interact with one or more students). Their interactional practices allowed students to engage socially and learn about one another. Based on the qualitative data of the present study, students generally became more comfortable with the class as the semester progressed, not the least due to previous close encounters with their peers, which informed students about what to expect from future interactions. It should be also mentioned, however, that in some cases such opportunities had no influence on students' comfort level or even lead to a confirmation of students' negative impressions. In those instances, providing a variety of classroom activities and settings as well as 'mixing' students 'up' during these activities could prove beneficial.

In the present study, students did appreciate the chance to work with different peers in class. Amani from CS4 stated in a personal interview at the end of the semester:"By now, I've been paired up with pretty much everybody. It's nice to get to know people. That's why I like this class, it's not like my other classes where you barely know a few people". Jim, also from CS4, during a personal interview at the end of the semester, was a bit less enthusiastic than Amani but still supportive of the idea of being paired with different partners: "I don't like to get up from my seat. That's just me. But I understand that it's good to work with other students, not just those who I'm sitting next to".

The present study's results imply that the formation of student beliefs about their peers happens very early in the semester, which places a high importance on the very first time students meet each other. It is therefore important that teachers carefully and thoughtfully plan the first day of class, all the while keeping in mind how decisive and also possibly stressful this particular point in time might be for the students. A student quote from a study by Ehrman and Dörnyei (1998) captures the sentiment of the first day of class as felt by students:

> At the beginning, when I didn't know the group, I was always nervous – when nobody knows the others yet and doesn't even dare to approach and start getting to know them. Everybody is alone and so very shy; you don't know what you can joke about and what you can say to the others without offending them; ... It's all so uncertain. You don't know how other people's minds work. (pp. 110-111)

Clearly, the process of group formation is challenging for some learners. 'Icebreaker' – type activities can help set students at ease and allow them to become aware of each other as people.

8.2 Recognition of shared beliefs

The results of the present study indicated that students in a FL class do share certain beliefs. Specifically, students clearly appreciated the accommodating qualities of their peers more than they did their peers' entertaining qualities and expertise. In the whole class, students did not necessarily look at each other as resources of learning, nor did they come to class expecting first and foremost entertainment. These findings could be of relevance to teachers who in their communicatively-based classes might envision their students fulfilling both expert and entertaining roles.

8.3 Recognition of individual differences

In the classroom, teachers do not face a monolithic block of learners but rather learners with different personalities, backgrounds, levels and types of motivation, and response inclinations in certain situations – simply put, each student is unique. The more teachers recognize these differences, the more successful they can be in meeting the needs of each of their students.

Individual student differences in the present study were demonstrated by a high differential between the lowest and the highest ratings that students assigned to several attributes, specifically the attributes *funny* and *creative* in an ideal peer. As mentioned in the Discussion (Section 6.1.2.2), qualitative data corroborated the findings and showed that some students did not care for those attributes at all while others considered them to be very important.

Students also differed in how they perceived working with their actual peers – some felt comfortable and enjoyed themselves; others felt anxious and nervous. Some were open to working with all of their peers, others preferred to interact with peers of the same ethnic background as was their own. It might be worth the effort for the teachers to explain to students

their reasoning behind activities that involve student interactions, be it in pair work, small group work or mixer activities. It might also be of benefit to the whole class if the teachers spend some time (especially in the beginning of the semester) on promoting group cohesiveness by building shared history through either games, special events, or other activities.

By recognizing the diversity of students' personalities and beliefs, both verbally (e.g., explicitly stating the awareness of diversity) and by action (e.g., letting students voice their diverse perspectives), teachers can help create a class environment of tolerance and trust, in which students feel not only respected but also encouraged to show respect to others.

9.0 Conclusion

As I set out to conduct this research project, I had a rather nebulous expectation as to what I would find. Primarily, I intended to expand my understanding of not only how students perceived their selves and others in German class but also whether and how these perceptions intersected with and related to each other. My personal experiences as well as relevant research had led me to believe that in the classrooms students engage in more than just cognitive learning processes. In fact, I have always viewed classrooms as places that not only facilitate learning but also provide compact yet meaningful venues for social interaction, both verbal and non-verbal. Results of my investigation provided strong support for my beliefs. When students in the present study reflected on their classroom experiences, they were able to not only comment on what they had learned and how they had learned it but to also share precise thoughts about the personalities of their peers and teachers and the atmosphere and social and affective 'quality' of the class.

Quantitative data from questionnaires, supported by statements of students during personal and group interviews, demonstrated that students needed to establish and maintain intersubjectivity when working with their peers. Students' desire to accomplish that was

expressed through the high ratings that they awarded to accommodating qualities. These were consistently the highest when compared to the qualities associated with expertise or entertainment. Being an *Accommodator* before all else was a belief students held across the board, whether they referred to their ideal peers, real peers or their selves.

An examination of students' beliefs about their selves and others showed these beliefs to be predominantly stable, with only a few beliefs noting a slight change over the course of one semester. The apparent stability of these beliefs underscores the importance of pinpointing the exact circumstances under and the time point at which students first form their beliefs.

I believe that an awareness of students' beliefs, including the presently explored facets of students' beliefs about peers and their selves, allows teachers to see the class community through their students' eyes, which will ultimately lead them to a better understanding of the inner workings of the social and affective environment of a FL classroom.

10.0 References

Agudo, J. (2012). Investigating Spanish EFL students' beliefs and preferences regarding the effectiveness of corrective feedback. *International Journal of Humanities and Social Science, 2*(19), 121-131.

Alicke, M., Klotz, M., Breitenbecher, D., Yurak, T., & Vredenburg, D. (1995). Personal contact, individuation, and the better-than-average effect. *Journal of personality and social psychology*, *68*(5), 804.

Allport, G. (1961). *Pattern and growth in personality*. Oxford, England: Reinhart and Winston.

Allport, G., & Odbert, H. (1936). Trait-names: A psycho-lexical study. *Psychological monographs*, *47*(1), i.

Amuzie, G., & Winke, P. (2009). Changes in language learning beliefs as a result of a study abroad. *System, (37)* 3, 366–79.

Apple, M. (2011). *The Big Five personality traits and foreign language speaking confidence among Japanese EFL students*. Temple University.

Aragão, R. (2011). Beliefs and emotions in foreign language learning. *System, 39*(3), 302-313. doi:10.1016/j.system.2011.07.003

Arnold, J. (Ed.). (1999). *Affect in language learning.* Cambridge, MA: Cambridge University Press.

Arnon, S., & Reichel, N. (2007). Who is the ideal teacher? Am I? Similarity and difference in perception of students of education regarding the qualities of a good teacher and of their own qualities as teachers. *Teachers and Teaching: theory and practice*, *13*(5), 441-464.

Bandura, A. (1997). *Self-efficacy: The exercise of control.* New York: Freeman.

Bandura, A. (1986). *Social foundations of thought and action: A social cognitive theory.* Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall.

Barcelos, A. (2006). Researching beliefs about SLA: A critical review. *Beliefs about SLA. New Research Approaches.* Eds. P. Kalaja, y A.M. Barcelos. New York: Springer. 7-33.

Barcelos, A. (2003). Researching beliefs about SLA: A critical review. *Beliefs about SLA: New research approaches*, *2*, 7-33.

Barcelos, A., & Kalaja, P. (2011). Introduction to beliefs about SLA revisited. *System*, *39*(3), 281-289.

Bailey, P., Onwuegbuzie, A., & Daley, C. (2000). Using learning style to predict foreign language achievement at the college level. *System, 28*(1), 115-133.

Barresi, J., & Moore, C. (2008). The neuroscience of social understanding. *The shared mind: Perspectives on intersubjectivity*, 39-66.

Benenson, J., Markovits, H., Fitzgerald, C., Geoffroy, D., Flemming, J., Kahlenberg, S. , & Wrangham, R. (2009). Males' greater tolerance of same-sex peers. *Psychological Science*, *20*(2), 184-190.

Bernat, E., & Lloyd, R. (2007). Exploring the gender effect on EFL learners' beliefs about language learning. *Australian Journal of Educational & Developmental Psychology*, *7*(1), 79-91.

Booth, K., & Wheeler, N. (2008). *The Security Dilemma.* Basingstoke: Palgrave.

Boud, D., Cohen, R., & Sampson, J. (Eds.). (2014). *Peer learning in higher education: Learning from and with each other*. Routledge.

Briggs, K. (1976). *Myers-Briggs type indicator*. Palo Alto, CA: Consulting Psychologists Press.

Brown, A. (2009). Students' and Teachers' Perceptions of Effective Foreign Language Teaching: A Comparison of Ideals. *The Modern Language Journal, 93*, 46–60. doi: 10.1111/j.1540-4781.2009.00827.x

Brown, J. & Kobayashi, C. (2003), Motivation and manifestation: Cross–cultural expression of the self–enhancement motive. *Asian Journal of Social Psychology, 6*, 85–88. doi: 10.1111/1467-839X.t01-1-00012

Brown, J. & Kobayashi, C. (2002). Self-enhancement in Japan and America. *Asian Journal of Social Psychology*, *5*(3), 145-168.

Buckingham, J., & Alicke, M. (2002). The influence of individual versus aggregate social comparison and the presence of others on self-evaluations. *Journal of personality and social psychology*, *83*(5), 1117.

Carney, D., Colvin, C., & Hall, J. (2007). A thin slice perspective on the accuracy of first impressions. *Journal of Research in Personality*, *41*(5), 1054-1072.

Carreira, J. (2012). Motivational orientations and psychological needs in EFL learning among elementary school students in Japan. *System*, *40*(2), 191-202.

Cattell, R. (1943). The description of personality: basic traits resolved into clusters. *The journal of abnormal and social psychology*, *38*(4), 476.

Chang, L. (2010). Group processes and EFL learners' motivation: A study of group dynamics in EFL classrooms. *TESOL Quarterly*, *44*(1), 129-154.

Charyton, C., Snelbecker, G., Rahman, M., & Elliott, J. (2013). College students' creative attributes as a predictor of cognitive risk tolerance. *Psychology of Aesthetics, Creativity, and the Arts*, *7*(4), 350-357.

Clément, R., Dörnyei, Z., & Noels, K. (1994). Motivation, self-confidence, and group cohesion in the foreign language classroom. *Language learning*, *44*(3), 417-448.

Conard, M. (2006). Aptitude is not enough: How personality and behavior predict academic performance. *Journal of Research in Personality*, *40*(3), 339-346.

Costa, P. & McCrae, R. (2008). The revised neo personality inventory (neo-pi-r). *The SAGE handbook of personality theory and assessment*, *2*, 179-198.

Costa, P. & McCrae, R. (1992). Neo personality inventory–revised and neo five-factor inventory professional manual. *Odessa, FL: Psychological Assessment Resources*.
.

Cottrell, C., Neuberg, S., & Li, N. (2007). What do people desire in others? A sociofunctional perspective on the importance of different valued characteristics. *Journal of personality and social psychology*, *92*(2), 208-231.

Craft, A. (Ed.). (2005). *Creativity in schools: Tensions and dilemmas*. Psychology Press.

Cross, R., Parker, A., Christensen, C., Anthony, S., & Roth, E. (2004). *The hidden power of social networks*. Audio-Tech Business Book Summaries, Incorporated.

Decety, J., & Sommerville, J. (2003). Shared representations between self and other: a social cognitive neuroscience view. *Trends in cognitive sciences*, *7*(12), 527-533.

Deci, E., & Ryan, R. (1985). The general causality orientations scale: Self-determination in personality. *Journal of research in personality*, *19*(2), 109-134.

Denrell, J. (2005). Why Most People Disapprove of Me: Experience Sampling in Impression Formation. *Psychological Review*, *112*(4), 951-978. doi:10.1037/0033-295X.112.4.951

Dewaele, J. (2012). Personality. Personality traits as independent and dependent variables. *Psychology for language learning: Insights from research, theory and practice*, 42-58.

Dewaele, J., & Furnham, A. (1999). Extraversion: The unloved variable in applied linguistic research. *Language Learning*, *49*(3), 509-544.

Dewaele, J., & MacIntyre, P. (2014). The two faces of Janus? Anxiety and enjoyment in the foreign language classroom. *Studies in Second Language Learning and Teaching*, *4*(2), 237-272.

Dewaele, J. & Wei, L. (2013). Is multilingualism linked to a higher tolerance of ambiguity? *Bilingualism: Language and Cognition*, *16*(01), 231-240.

DiNitto, R. (2000). Can collaboration be unsuccessful? A sociocultural analysis of classroom setting and Japanese L2 performance in group tasks. *Journal of the Association of Teachers of Japanese, 34*, 179–210.

Dixon, L., Zhao, J, Shin, J., Wu, S., Su, J., Burgess-Brigham, R., Gezer, M., & Snow, C. (2012). What We Know About Second Language Acquisition: A Synthesis From Four Perspectives. *Review of Educational Resea*rch, *82*, 5-60. doi:10.3102/0034654311433587

Djikic, M., & Oatley, K. (2004). Love and personal relationships: Navigating on the border between the ideal and the real. *Journal for the Theory of Social Behaviour*, *34*(2), 199-209.

Dörnyei, Z. (2009). Individual Differences: Interplay of Learner Characteristics and Learning Environment. *Language Learning*, *59*230-248. doi:10.1111/j.1467-9922.2009.00542.x

Dörnyei, Z. (2007). Creating a motivating classroom environment. In *International handbook of English language teaching* (pp. 719-731). Springer US.

Dörnyei, Z. (2006). Individual differences in second language acquisition. *AILA Review*, *19*(1), 42-68.

Dörnyei, Z. (2005). *The psychology of the language learner*. US: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

Dörnyei, Z. (1998). Motivation in second and foreign language learning. *Language Teaching, 31*, 117-135.

Dörnyei, Z., & Murphey, T. (2003). Group Dynamics in the Language Classroom. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Duff, P. (2012). Identity, agency, and second language acquisition. *Handbook of second language acquisition*, 410-426.

Duranti, A. (2010). Husserl, intersubjectivity and anthropology. *Anthropological Theory*, *10*(1-2), 16-35.

Ehrman, M. (1990). The role of personality type in adult language learning: An ongoing investigation. *Language aptitude reconsidered*, 126-178.

Ehrman, M., & Dörnyei, Z. (1998). *Interpersonal dynamics in second language education: The visible and invisible classroom*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications, Inc.

Ehrman, M., & Oxford, R. (1990). Adult language learning styles and strategies in an intensive training setting. *The modern language journal*, *74*(3), 311-327.

Ellis, N., & Larsen-Freeman, D. (2006). Language emergence: Implications for applied linguistics – Introduction to the special issue. *Applied Linguistics 27*(4), 558–589.

Ellis, R. (2008). Learner Beliefs and Language Learning. *Asian EFL Journal, 10*(4), 7-25.

Ely, C. (1986). An analysis of discomfort, risktaking, sociability, and motivation in the L2 classroom. *Language learning*, *36*(1), 1-25.

Endo, Y. (2007). Optimistic and pessimistic biases and comparative judgmental processes in Japan: Do people really compare themselves to their peers? *Asian Journal of Social Psychology, 10*(4), 224-232.

Erkan, D., & Saban, A. (2011). Writing performance relative to writing apprehension, self-efficacy in writing, and attitudes towards writing: A correlational study in Turkish tertiary-level EFL. *The Asian EFL Journal Quarterly*, *13*(1), 163-191.

Farsides, T., & Woodfield, R. (2003). Individual differences and undergraduate academic success: The roles of personality, intelligence, and application. *Personality and Individual differences*, *34*(7), 1225-1243.

Firth, A., & Wagner, J. (1997). On discourse, communication, and (some) fundamental concepts in SLA research. *Modern Language Journal*, *81*(3), 285-300.

Firth, A., & Wagner, J. (2007). Second/Foreign Language Learning as a Social Accomplishment: Elaborations on a Reconceptualized SLA. *The Modern Language Journal, 91*, 800–819. doi: 10.1111/j.1540-4781.2007.00670.x

Forsyth, D. (2009). *Group dynamics*. Cengage Learning.

Furinghetti, F., & Pehkonen, E. (2002). Rethinking characterizations of beliefs. In *Beliefs: A hidden variable in mathematics education?* (pp. 39-57). Springer Netherlands.

Furrer, C., & Skinner, E. (2003). Sense of relatedness as a factor in children's academic engagement and performance. *Journal of educational psychology*, *95*(1), 148.

Fushino, K. (2010), Causal Relationships Between Communication Confidence, Beliefs About Group Work, and Willingness to Communicate in Foreign Language Group Work. *TESOL Quarterly, 44,* 700–724. doi: 10.5054/tq.2010.235993

Gass, S. (2003). *Input and interaction*. In Handbook of Second Language Acquisition, C. Doughty and M. Long (eds), 224–255. Oxford: Blackwell.

Gass, S., & Mackey, A. (2007). Input, interaction, and output in second language acquisition. *Theories in second language acquisition: An introduction*, 175-199.

Gillespie, A. (2012). Position exchange: The social development of agency. *New Ideas in Psychology, 30,* 32-46.

Gillespie, A., & Cornish, F. (2010). Intersubjectivity: Towards a Dialogical Analysis. *Journal for the Theory of Social Behaviour, 40,* 19–46. doi: 10.1111/j.1468-5914.2009.00419.x

Gilligan, C. (1982). *In a different voice*. Harvard University Press.

Gilovich, T. (1991). *How we know what isn't so: The fallibility of human reason in everyday life.* New York: Free Press.

Goldberg, L. (1981). Language and individual differences: The search for universals in personality lexicons. L. Wheeler (Ed.), *Review of personality and social psychology,* Vol. 2. Beverly Hills, CA: Sage, pp. 141–165.

Goodwin, G., Piazza, J., & Rozin, P. (2014). Moral character predominates in person perception and evaluation. *Journal of personality and social psychology*, *106*(1), 148.

Guerrero, de M., & Villamil, O. (1994). Social-cognitive dimensions of interaction in L2 peer revision. *The Modern Language Journal*, *78*(4), 484-496.

Hall, J. (2010). Interaction as Method and Result of Language Learning. *Language Teaching 43*(2), 202-215.

Hamilton, D. & Huffman, L. (1971). Generality of impression-formation processes for evaluative and nonevaluative judgments. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, *20*(2), 200.

Haneda, M. (1997). Second Language Learning in a 'Community of Practice': A Case Study of Adult Japanese Learners. *Canadian Modern Language Review*, *54*(1), 11.

Harkness, S., Blom, M., Oliva, A., Moscardino, U., Zylicz, P., Bermudez, M., Feng, X., Carrasco–Zylics, A., Axia, G., & Super, C. (2007). Teachers' ethnotheories of the 'ideal student' in five western cultures. *Comparative Education*, *43*(1), 113-135.

Heyes, C. (2005). Imitation by association. In: Hurley, S., Chater, N. (Eds.), *Perspectives on Imitation: From Mirror Neurons to Memes.* MIT Press.

Hinger, B. (2006). The distribution of instructional time and its effect on group cohesion in the foreign language classroom: A comparison of intensive and standard format courses. *System*, *34*(1), 97-118.

Hoelzl, E., & Rustichini, A. (2005). Overconfident: Do You Put Your Money On It?*. *The Economic Journal*, *115*(503), 305-318.

Horwitz, E. (2001). Language anxiety and achievement. *Annual review of applied linguistics*, *21*, 112-126.

Horwitz, E. (1988). The beliefs about language learning of beginning university foreign language students. *Modern Language Journal*, *72* (1988), 283–294.

Howard, P., & Howard, J. (1995). *The big five quickstart: An introduction to the five-factor model of personality for human resource professionals*. ERIC Clearinghouse.

Hsieh, P. & Schallert, D. (2008). Implications from self-efficacy and attribution theories for an understanding of undergraduates' motivation in a foreign language course. *Contemporary Educational Psychology*, *33*(4), 513-532.

Hurley, S., & Chater, N. (Eds.) (2005). *Perspectives on imitation.* Cambridge, MA: MIT Press.

Husserl, E. (1931). *Ideas: General introduction to pure phenomenology.* London: Allen and Unwin.

Imai, Y. (2010). Emotions in SLA: New Insights From Collaborative Learning for an EFL Classroom. *The Modern Language Journal, 94,* 278–292. doi: 10.1111/j.1540-4781.2010.01021.x

Incecay, V., & Dollar, Y. (2011). Foreign language learners' beliefs about grammar instruction and error correction. *Procedia-Social and Behavioral Sciences*, *15*, 3394-3398.

John, O., Naumann, L., & Soto, C. (2008). Paradigm shift to the integrative big five trait taxonomy. *Handbook of personality: Theory and research*, *3*, 114-158.

John, O., & Srivastava, S. (1999). The Big Five trait taxonomy: History, measurement, and theoretical perspectives. *Handbook of personality: Theory and research*, *2*(1999), 102-138.

Jung, C. (1921). *Psychologische Typen*. Zürich, Rascher. Trans. Psychological Types, by HG Baynes. London: Kegan Paul.

Kang, S. (2005). Dynamic emergence of situational willingness to communicate in a second language. *System, 33*, 277–292.

Kangas, M. (2010). Creative and playful learning: Learning through game co-creation and games in a playful learning environment. *Thinking Skills and Creativity*, *5*(1), 1-15.

Kinsella, K. (1996). Designing group work that supports and enhances diverse classroom work styles. *TESOL Journal*, *6*(1), 24-30.

Komarraju, M. (2013). Ideal Teacher Behaviors Student Motivation and Self-Efficacy Predict Preferences. *Teaching of Psychology*, *40*(2), 104-110.

Komarraju, M., & Karau, S. (2005). The relationship between the big five personality traits and academic motivation. *Personality and individual differences*, *39*(3), 557-567.

Kramsch, C., & Whiteside, A. (2007). Three Fundamental Concepts in Second Language Acquisition and Their Relevance in Multilingual Contexts. *The Modern Language Journal*, *91*, 907–922. doi: 10.1111/j.1540-4781.2007.00677.x

Krashen, S. (1982). *Principles and practice in second language acquisition* (pp. 1982-1982). Pergamon: Oxford.

Kreishan, L., & Al-Dhaimat, Y. (2013). Intrinsic and Extrinsic Motivation, Orientation and Achievements in L2 of Arab Learners of English, French and German: A Study from Jordan. *International Education Studies*, *6*(12), p52.

Lantolf, J. & Genung, P. (2002). I'd rather switch than fight": An activity-theoretic study of power, success, and failure in a foreign language classroom. *Language acquisition and language socialization: Ecological perspectives*, 175-196.

Lantolf, J. & Pavlenko, A. (2001). econd (L) anguage (A) ctivity theory: Understanding second language learners as people. *Learner contributions to language learning: New directions in research*, 141-158.

Lantolf, J. & Thorne, S. (2006). *Sociocultural theory and the genesis of second language development*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Larsen-Freeman, D. (2012). Complex, dynamic systems: A new transdisciplinary theme for applied linguistics?. *Language Teaching*, *45*(02), 202-214.

Larsen-Freeman, D. (2011). A complexity theory approach to second language development/acquisition, In D. Atkinson (Ed.). *Alternative Approaches to Second Language Acquisition* (pp. 48-72). New York: Routledge.

Larsen-Freeman, D. (2009). Adjusting expectations: The study of complexity, accuracy, and fluency in second language acquisition. *Applied Linguistics*, *30*(4), 579-589.

Larsen-Freeman, D., & Cameron, L. (2008). *Complex systems and applied linguistics*. New York: Oxford University Press.

Lave, J., & Wenger, E. (1991). *Situated learning: Legitimate peripheral participation*. Cambridge University Press.

Lefkowitz, N., & Hedgcock, J. (2006). Sound Effect: Social Pressure and Identity Negotiation in the Spanish Language Classroom. *Applied Language Learning*, *16*(1), 17-42.

Léger, D., & Storch, N. (2009). Learners' perceptions and attitudes: Implications for willingness to communicate in an L2 classroom. *System*, *37*(2), 269-285.

Leki, I. (2001). “A narrow thinking system”: Nonnative-English-speaking students in group projects across the curriculum. *TESOL quarterly*, *35*(1), 39-67.

Linell, P. (2009). *Rethinking language, mind, and world dialogically: interactional and contextual theories of human sense-making*. Charlotte, NC: Information Age Publishing.

Littlewood, W. (1996). “Autonomy”: An anatomy and a framework. *System*, *24*(4), 427-435.

Lockhart, C., & Ng, P. (1995). Analyzing talk in ESL peer response groups: Stances, functions, and content. *Language Learning*, *45*(4), 605.

Loewen, S., Li, S., Fei, F., Thompson, A., Nakatsukasa, K., Ahn, S., & Chen, X. (2009). Second language learners' beliefs about grammar instruction and error correction. *The Modern Language Journal*, *93*(1), 91-104.

Long, M. (1983). Native speaker/non-native speaker conversation and the negotiation of comprehensible input1. *Applied linguistics*, *4*(2), 126-141.

Makarychev, A., & Sergunin, A. (2012). *Multipolarity, Intersubjectivity, and Models of International Society: Experiences of Russia-EU (Mis) communication*. Center for Global Politics, Freie Universität Berlin.

Markee, N. (2005). The organization of off-task classroom talk in second language classrooms. In K. Richards & P. Seedhouse (eds.), *Applying Conversation Analysis*, 197–213. Basingstoke: Palgrave Macmillan.

Markus, H. & Kitayama, S. (1991). Culture and the self: Implications for cognition, emotion, and motivation. *Psychological review*, *98*(2), 224.

Markus, H., & Nurius, P. (1986). Possible selves. *American psychologist*, *41*(9), 954.

Martin, J., Sokol, B., & Elfers, T. (2008). Taking and coordinating perspectives: From prereflective interactivity, through reflective intersubjectivity, to metareflective sociality. *Human Development*, *51*(5-6), 294-317. doi:10.1159/000170892

Matusov, E. (1996). Intersubjectivity without agreement. *Mind, culture, and activity*, *3*, 25-45.

McAbee, S., & Oswald, F. (2013). The criterion-related validity of personality measures for predicting GPA: A meta-analytic validity competition. *Psychological assessment*, *25*(2), 532.

McCrae, R. & Costa, P. (1987). Validation of the Five-Factor model of personality across instruments and observers. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 52*, 81-90.

Mayer, J. (1995). The system-topics framework and the structural arrangement of systems within and around personality. *Journal of Personality, 63*, 459-493.

Meltzoff, A., & Brooks, R. (2001). "Like me" as a building block for understanding other minds: Bodily acts, attention, and intention." *Intentions and intentionality: Foundations of social cognition*. 171-191.

Mercer, S. (2011). Language learner self-concept: Complexity, continuity and change. *System, 39*(3), 335-346.

Mercer, S., Ryan, S., & Williams, M. (2012). *Psychology for language learning: Insights from research, theory and practice*. Palgrave Macmillan.

Mills, N., Pajares, F., & Herron, C. (2007). Self-efficacy of college intermediate French students: Relation to achievement and motivation. *Language learning, 57*(3), 417-442.

Mills, N., Pajares, F., & Herron, C. (2006). A reevaluation of the role of anxiety: Self-efficacy, anxiety, and their relation to reading and listening proficiency. *Foreign Language Annals, 39*(2), 276-295.

Moody, R. (1988). Personality preferences and foreign language learning. *The Modern Language Journal, 72*(4), 389-401.

Moore, D., & Small, A. (2007). Error and bias in comparative judgment: On being both better and worse than we think we are. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 92*, 972–989.

Mori, J., & Hayashi, M. (2006). 'The achievement of intersubjectivity through embodied completions: A study of interactions between first and second language speakers,' *Applied Linguistics 27*(2). 195–219.

Morita, N. (2004). Negotiating participation and identity in second language academic communities. *Tesol Quarterly, 38*(4), 573-603.

Morris, F. & Tarone, E. (2003). Impact of Classroom Dynamics on the Effectiveness of Recasts in Second Language Acquisition. *Language Learning, 53*: 325–368. doi: 10.1111/1467-9922.00219

Morry, M., Reich, T., & Kito, M. *(*2010*).* How do I see you relative to myself? Relationship quality as a predictor of self- and partner-enhancement within cross-sex friendships, dating relationships, and marriages. *Journal of Social Psychology, 150,* 369–392.

Muramatsu, C. (2013). *Portraits of second language learners: agency, identities, and second language learning.* (Doctoral dissertation) Retrieved from http://ir.uiowa.edu/etd/4885/

Navarro, D., & Thornton, K. (2011). Investigating the relationship between belief and action in self-directed language learning. *System, 39*(3), 290-301.

Negueruela-Azarola, E. (2011). Beliefs as conceptualizing activity: A dialectical approach for the second language classroom. *System*, *39*(3), 359-369.

Nikoopour, J., & Farsani, M. A. (2010). On the relationship between language learning strategies and personality types among Iranian EFL learners. *Journal of English studies*, *1*(1), 81-101.

Noels, K. (2005). Orientations to learning German: Heritage language learning and motivational substrates. *Canadian Modern Language Review/La Revue canadienne des langues vivantes*, *62*(2), 285-312.

Noels, K. (2001). New orientations in language learning motivation: Towards a model of intrinsic, extrinsic, and integrative orientations and motivation. In Z. Dörnyei & R. Schmidt (Eds.), *Motivation and second language acquisition* (pp. 43-68). Honolulu: University of Hawai'i Press.

Noftle, E., & Robins, R. (2007). Personality predictors of academic outcomes: big five correlates of GPA and SAT scores. *Journal of personality and social psychology*, *93*(1), 116.

Norman, W. (1963). Toward an adequate taxonomy of personality attributes: Replicated factor structure in peer nomination personality ratings. *The Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology*, *66*(6), 574-583. doi:10.1037/h0040291

Norton, B. (2013a). *Identity and language learning: Extending the conversation*. Bristol, UK: Multilingual matters.

Norton, B. (2013b). Identity and second language acquisition. *The Encyclopedia of Applied Linguistics*. doi: 10.1002/9781405198431.wbeal0521

Norton, B., & Toohey, K. (2002). Identity and language learning. In R.B. Kaplan (Ed.), *Oxford University handbook of applied linguistics* (pp. 115-123). Oxford and New York: Oxford University Press.

O'Connor, M. & Paunonen, S. (2007). Big Five personality predictors of post-secondary academic performance. *Personality and Individual differences*, *43*(5), 971-990.

Orenstein, P. (2013). *Schoolgirls: Young women, self esteem, and the confidence gap*. Anchor.

Osterman, K. (2000). Students' need for belonging in the school community. *Review of educational research*, *70*(3), 323-367.

Ożańska-Ponikwia, K. (2012). What has personality and emotional intelligence to do with 'feeling different'while using a foreign language?. International Journal of Bilingual Education and Bilingualism, 15(2), 217-234.

Peng, J. (2011). Changes in language learning beliefs during a transition to tertiary study: The mediation of classroom affordances. *System*, *39*(3), 314-324.

Petit, J. (2008). From brain resonance to intersubjectivity: Are we by now bridging the gap? *Encyclopaideia: Rivista di fenomenologia pedagogia formazione*, *12*(23), 97–116.

Philp, J., Walter, S., & Basturkmen, H. (2010). Peer interaction in the foreign language classroom: What factors foster a focus on form? *Language Awareness 19* (4), 261-279.

Pomerantz, A., & Bell, N. (2007). Learning to play, playing to learn: FL learners as multicompetent language users. *Applied Linguistics*, *28*(4), 556-578.

Poropat, A. (2009). A meta-analysis of the five-factor model of personality and academic performance. *Psychological bulletin*, *135*(2), 322.

Rahimi, A., & Abedini, A. (2009). The interface between EFL learners' self-efficacy concerning listening comprehension and listening proficiency. *Novitas-Royal*, *3*(1), 14-28.

Ramírez-Esparza, N., Gosling, S., Benet-Martínez, V., Potter, J., & Pennebaker, J. (2006). Do bilinguals have two personalities? A special case of cultural frame switching. *Journal of research in personality*, *40*(2), 99-120.

Reyes, M., Brackett, M., Rivers, S., White, M., & Salovey, P. (2012). Classroom emotional climate, student engagement, and academic achievement. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, *104*(3), 700.

Rokeach, M. (1968). Beliefs, attitudes and values: A theory of organization and change. San Francisco: Josey – Bass.

Ryan, R., & Deci, E. (2000). Self-determination theory and the facilitation of intrinsic motivation, social development, and well-being. *American psychologist*, *55*(1), 68.

Safdarian, Z., Ghyasi, M., & Farsani, M. (2014). How Reading Strategy Use And Personality Types Are Related? *Reading*, *14*(1).

Sato, M. (2013). Beliefs about peer interaction and peer corrective feedback: Efficacy of classroom intervention. *The Modern Language Journal*, *97*(3), 611-633.

Schegloff, E. (2007). *Sequence organization in interaction: Volume 1: A primer in conversation analysis* (Vol. 1). Cambridge University Press.

Schmuck, R., & Schmuck, P. (1975). *Group processes in the classroom.* Dubuque, IA: Brown Company Publishers.

Schutz, A. (1970). *Reflections on the Problem of Relevance*. Yale University Press.

Seedhouse, P. (2010). *The relationship between pedagogical focus and interaction in L2 lessons.* In Macaro, E. (Ed.), Continuum Companion to SLA. London: Continuum.

Seedhouse, P. (2005). "Task" as research construct. *Language Learning 55* (3): 533-570.

Seedhouse, P. (2004). The interactional architecture of the language classroom: A conversation analysis perspective. *Language Learning 54*, supplement 1: x-300.

Seedhouse, P. (1996). *Learning talk: A study of the interactional organisation of the L2 classroom from a CA institutional discourse perspective*. Unpublished doctoral thesis, University of York, UK.

Senior, R. (1997). Transforming language classes into bonded groups. *ELT Journal*, *51*(1), 3-11.

Sharp, A. (2009). Personality and second language learning. *Asian Social Science*, *4*(11), p. 17.

Siebert, L. (2003). Student and teacher beliefs about language learning. *The ORTESOL Journal*, *21*, 7-39.

Sinclair, J. & Coulthard, M. (1975). *Towards an Analysis of Discourse*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Skehan, P. (1989). *Individual Differences in Second Language Learning.* New York: Edward Arnold.

Soureshjani, K., & Naseri, N. (2011). An investigation into the relationship between self-esteem, proficiency level, and the reading ability of Iranian EFL language learners. *Journal of Language Teaching and Research*, *2*(6), 1312-1319.

Stevick, E. (1980). *Teaching languages: A way and ways*. Rowley: Newbury House Publishers.

Storch, N. (2005). Collaborative writing: Product, process, and students reflections. *Journal of Second Language Writing 14*(3), 153-173.

Storch, N. (2002). Patterns of interaction in ESL pair work. *Language Learning 52* (1): 119-158.

Storch, N., & Aldosari, A. (2012). Pairing learners in pair work activity. *Language teaching research*, 1362168812457530.

Storch, N., & Aldosari, A. (2010). Learners' use of first language (Arabic) in pair work in an EFL class. *Language Teaching Research*, *14*(4), 355-375.

Sullivan, H. (1953). *The interpersonal theory of psychiatry*. New York: Norton.

Sunnafrank, M., & Ramirez, A. (2004). At first sight: Persistent relational effects of get-acquainted conversations. *Journal of Social and Personal Relationships*, *21*(3), 361-379.

Swain, M. (2013). The inseparability of cognition and emotion in second language learning. *Language Teaching*, *46*(02), 195-207.

Swain, M. (1985). Communicative competence: some roles of comprehensible input and comprehensible output in its development. *In Input in Second Language Acquisition*, Susan Gass and Carolyn Madden (eds.), 235-253. Rowley, MA: Newbury House.

Swenson III, J., Schneller, G., & Henderson, J. (2014). The Better-Than-Average Effect and 1 Corinthians 13: A Classroom Exercise. *Christian Higher Education*, *13*(2), 118-129.

Tanaka, K., & Ellis, R. (2003). Study-abroad, language proficiency, and learner beliefs about language learning. *JALT Journal 25* (1), 63–83.

Taylor, P. (2014). Mother tongue and identity in a Thai ESP classroom: A communities-of-practice perspective. *LEARN Journal: Language Education and Acquisition Research Network, 7*(1), 76-90.

Thomsen, L., Sidanius, J., & Fiske, A. P. (2007). Interpersonal leveling, independence, and self-enhancement: a comparison between Denmark and the US, and a relational practice framework for cultural psychology. *European Journal of Social Psychology*, *37*(3), 445-469.

Thurstone, L. (1934). The vectors of mind. *Psychological review*, *41*(1), 1.

Toussaint-Clark, C. (2007). *Patterns of Interaction between Low-Level Non-Academic ESL LearnerS*. Unpublished Master's thesis. Portland State University, Oregon

Van Lier, L. (2014). *Interaction in the language curriculum: Awareness, autonomy and authenticity*. New York: Routledge.

Verhoeven, L., & Vermeer, A. (2002). Communicative competence and personality dimensions in first and second language learners. *Applied Psycholinguistics*, *23*(03), 361-374.

Vygotsky, L. (1978). *Mind in society: The development of higher mental processes.* Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.

Wang, J., Spencer, K., & Xing, M. (2009). Metacognitive beliefs and strategies in learning Chinese as a foreign language. *System*, *37*(1), 46-56.

Waring, H. Z. (2012). Doing being playful in the second language classroom. *Applied linguistics*, ams047.

Watanabe, Y., & Swain, M. (2007). Effects of proficiency differences and patterns of pair interaction on second language learning: collaborative dialogue between adult ESL learners. *Language Teaching Research, 11*(2), 121-142.

Weedon, C. (1997). *Feminist Practice and Poststructuralist Theory* (2nd edn.). Oxford: Blackwell. (1st edn. 1987.)

Wells, G. (1998). Using L1 to Master L2: A Response to Anton and DiCamilla's 'Socio-Cognitive Functions of L1. *Canadian Modern Language Review, 54*(3), 343-353.

Wenden, A. (1999). An introduction to metacognitive knowledge and beliefs in language learning: Beyond the basics. *System, 27*(4), 435-441. doi:10.1016/S0346-251X(99)00043-3

Wenger, E. (2011). *Communities of practice: A brief introduction.* Retrieved from https://scholarsbank.uoregon.edu/xmlui/handle/1794/1173

Wenger, E. (2000). Communities of practice and social learning systems. *Organization, 7*(2), 225-246.

Wenger, E. (1998). *Communities of Practice: Learning, Meaning, and Identity.* Cambridge, England: Cambridge University Press.

Wheelan, S., Davidson, B., & Tilin, F. (2003). Group Development Across Time Reality or Illusion?. *Small group research, 34*(2), 223-245.

Wigglesworth, G., & Storch, N. (2012). What role for collaboration in writing and writing feedback. *Journal of Second Language Writing*, *21*(4), 364-374.

Willis, J., & Todorov, A. (2006). First impressions making up your mind after a 100-ms exposure to a face. *Psychological science, 17*(7), 592-598.

Wilson, J. & Wilson, S. (2007). The first day of class affects student motivation: An experimental study. *Teaching of Psychology*, *34*(4), 226-230.

Winke, P. M. (2007). The psychology of the language learner: Individual differences in second language acquisition. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition, 29*(01), 143-144.

Yang, J., & Kim, T. (2011). Sociocultural analysis of second language learner beliefs: A qualitative case study of two study-abroad ESL learners. *System, 39*(3), 325-334.

Yoshida, R. (2013). Conflict between learners' beliefs and actions: speaking in the classroom. *Language Awareness, 22*(4), 371-388.

Yoshida, R. (2008). Learners' perception of corrective feedback in pair work. *Foreign Language Annals, 41*(3), 525-541.

Zebrowitz, L., & Montepare, J. (2015). *Faces and first impressions.* APA handbooks in psychology. Retrieved from http://dx.doi.org/10.1037/14341-008.

Zell, E., & Alicke, M. (2011). Age and the Better-Than-Average Effect. *Journal of Applied Social Psychology*, *41*(5), 1175-1188.

Zins, J. (Ed.). (2004). *Building academic success on social and emotional learning: What does the research say?*. Teachers' College Press.

Appendix A
Research Questions

Theme 1: The makings of a hypothetical ideal peer

RQ1a. As how important did college students in four combined course sections of second-semester college German rate each of the 13 personal attributes in the makings of a hypothetical ideal peer at the beginning of an academic semester?

RQ1b. Did college students in four separate course sections of second-semester German differ significantly in how they rated the importance of the 13 attributes to the makings of a hypothetical ideal peer at the beginning of an academic semester?

RQ1c. Into what principal components (personality constituents) could 13 attributes of a hypothetical ideal peer be grouped based on the ratings of importance accorded by college students of second-semester German at the beginning of an academic semester?

RQ1d. As how important did college students of second-semester German rate each of the three personality constituents, *Accommodator*, *Expert*, and *Entertainer*, when they considered the makings of a hypothetical ideal peer at the beginning of an academic semester?

RQ1e. As how important did college students of second-semester German rate each of the three personality constituents, *Accommodator*, *Expert*, and *Entertainer*, when they considered the makings of a hypothetical ideal peer at the end of an academic semester?

RQ1f. Did college students of second-semester German accord significantly different degrees of importance to each of the three personality constituents, *Accommodator*, *Expert*, and *Entertainer*, respectively, when they considered the makings of a hypothetical ideal peer at the beginning as compared to the end of an academic semester?

RQ1g. At the beginning of an academic semester, was there a relationship between the views of college students of second-semester German of the importance of the personality constituent *Accommodator*, of the importance of the personality constituent *Expert*, and of the importance of the personality constituent *Entertainer* when they considered the makings of a hypothetical ideal peer?

RQ1h. At the end of an academic semester, was there a relationship between the views of college students of second-semester German of the importance of the personality constituent *Accommodator*, of the importance of the personality constituent *Expert*, and of the importance of

the personality constituent *Entertainer* when they considered the makings of a hypothetical ideal peer?

RQ1i. Was there a relationship between the views of college students of second-semester German of the importance of each of the three personality constituents, *Accommodator*, *Expert*, and *Entertainer*, respectively, at the beginning and at the end of an academic semester?

Theme 2: The contribution of the three personality constituents to students' beliefs about their selves

RQ2a. In the views of college students of second-semester German, to what degree did they themselves possess each of the three personality constituents, *Accommodator*, *Expert*, and *Entertainer*, at the beginning of an academic semester?

RQ2b. In the views of college students of second-semester German, to what degree did they themselves possess each of the three personality constituents, *Accommodator*, *Expert*, and *Entertainer*, at the end of an academic semester?

RQ2c. Among college students of second-semester German, did their views of the degree to which they themselves possessed each of the three personality constituents, *Accommodator*, *Expert*, and *Entertainer*, at the beginning of an academic semester differ from their views of the same at the end of an academic semester?

RQ2d. At the beginning of an academic semester, was there a relationship between the views of college students of second-semester German of the degree to which they themselves possessed the personality constituent *Accommodator*, of the degree to which they themselves possessed the personality constituent *Expert*, and of the degree to which they themselves possessed the personality constituent *Entertainer*?

RQ2e. At the end of an academic semester, was there a relationship between the views of college students of second-semester German of the degree to which they themselves possessed the personality constituent *Accommodator*, of the degree to which they themselves possessed the personality constituent *Expert*, and of the degree to which they themselves possessed the personality constituent *Entertainer*?

RQ2f. Was there a relationship between the views of college students of second-semester German of the degree to which they themselves possessed each of the three personality constituents, *Accommodator*, *Expert*, and *Entertainer*, respectively, at the beginning and at the end of an academic semester?

Theme 3: Students' beliefs about what percentage of their peers possessed qualities connoted with each of the three personality constituents

RQ3a. In the views of college students of second-semester German, what percentage of their peers possessed each of the three personality constituents, *Accommodator*, *Expert*, and *Entertainer*, at the beginning of an academic semester?

RQ3b. In the views of college students of second-semester German, what percentage of their peers possessed each of the three personality constituents, *Accommodator*, *Expert*, and *Entertainer*, at the end of an academic semester?

RQ3c. Among college students of second-semester German, did their views of the percentage of their peers who possessed each of the three personality constituents, *Accommodator*, *Expert*, and *Entertainer*, at the beginning of an academic semester differ from their views of the same at the end of an academic semester?

RQ3d. At the beginning of an academic semester, was there a relationship between the views of college students of second-semester German of what percentage of their peers possessed the personality constituent *Accommodator*, of what percentage of their peers possessed the personality constituent *Expert*, and of what percentage of their peers possessed the personality constituent *Entertainer*?

RQ3e. At the end of an academic semester, was there a relationship between the views of college students of second-semester German of what percentage of their peers possessed the personality constituent *Accommodator*, of what percentage of their peers possessed the personality constituent *Expert*, and of what percentage of their peers possessed the personality constituent *Entertainer*?

RQ3f. Was there a relationship between the views of college students of second-semester German of what percentage of their peers possessed each of the three personality constituents, *Accommodator*, *Expert*, and *Entertainer*, respectively, at the beginning and at the end of an academic semester?

Theme 4: Students' beliefs about what percentage of their peers perceived qualities connoted with each of the three personality constituents in them

RQ4a. In the views of college students of second-semester German, what percentage of their peers perceived them to possess each of the three personality constituents, *Accommodator*, *Expert*, and *Entertainer*, at the beginning of an academic semester?

RQ4b. In the views of college students of second-semester German, what percentage of their peers perceived them to possess each of the three personality constituents, *Accommodator*, *Expert*, and *Entertainer*, at the end of an academic semester?

RQ4c. Among college students of second-semester German, did their views of the percentage of their peers who perceived them to possess each of the three personality constituents, *Accommodator*, *Expert*, and *Entertainer*, at the beginning of an academic semester differ from their views of the same at the end of an academic semester?

RQ4d. At the beginning of an academic semester, was there a relationship between the views of college students of second-semester German of what percentage of their peers perceived them to possess the personality constituent *Accommodator*, of what percentage of their peers perceived them to possess the personality constituent *Expert*, and of what percentage of their peers perceived them to possess the personality constituent *Entertainer*?

RQ4e. At the end of an academic semester, was there a relationship between the views of college students of second-semester German of what percentage of their peers perceived them to possess the personality constituent *Accommodator*, of what percentage of their peers perceived them to possess the personality constituent *Expert*, and of what percentage of their peers perceived them to possess the personality constituent *Entertainer*?

RQ4f. Was there a relationship between the views of college students of second-semester German of what percentage of their peers perceived them to possess each of the three personality constituents, *Accommodator*, *Expert*, and *Entertainer*, respectively, at the beginning and at the end of an academic semester?

Theme 5: Students' beliefs about the makings of a hypothetical ideal peer vs. students' beliefs about their selves

RQ5a. Did college students of second-semester German accord significantly different important-in-a-hypothetical-ideal-peer ratings as compared to present-in-self-ratings for each of the three personality constituents, *Accommodator*, *Expert*, and *Entertainer*, respectively, at the beginning of an academic semester?

RQ5b. Did college students of second-semester German accord significantly different important-in-a-hypothetical-ideal-peer ratings as compared to present-in-self-ratings for each of the three personality constituents, *Accommodator*, *Expert*, and *Entertainer*, respectively, at the end of an academic semester?

RQ5c. Was there a relationship between the important-in-a-hypothetical-ideal-peer ratings and present-in-self-ratings that college students of second-semester German accorded to each of the three personality constituents, *Accommodator*, *Expert*, and *Entertainer*, respectively, at the beginning of an academic semester?

RQ5d. Was there a relationship between the important-in-a-hypothetical-ideal-peer ratings and present-in-self-ratings that college students of second-semester German accorded to each of the three personality constituents, *Accommodator*, *Expert*, and *Entertainer*, respectively, at the end of an academic semester?

Theme 6: Students' beliefs about what percentage of their peers possessed qualities connoted with each of the three personality constituents vs. students' beliefs about what percentage of their peers perceived qualities connoted with each of the three personality constituents in them

RQ6a. Did college students of second-semester German accord significantly different present-in-peers ratings as compared to imagined-other-perceived-present-in-self ratings for each of the three personality constituents, *Accommodator*, *Expert*, and *Entertainer*, respectively, at the beginning of an academic semester?

RQ6b. Did college students of second-semester German accord significantly different present-in-peers ratings as compared to imagined-other-perceived-present-in-self ratings for each of the three personality constituents, *Accommodator*, *Expert*, and *Entertainer*, respectively, at the end of an academic semester?

RQ6c. Was there a relationship between the present-in-peers ratings and imagined-other-perceived-present-in-self ratings that college students of second-semester German accorded to each of the three personality constituents, *Accommodator*, *Expert*, and *Entertainer*, respectively, at the beginning of an academic semester?

RQ6d. Was there a relationship between the present-in-peers ratings and imagined-other-perceived-present-in-self ratings that college students of second-semester German accorded to each of the three personality constituents, *Accommodator*, *Expert*, and *Entertainer*, respectively, at the end of an academic semester?

Appendix B1
Situated Disposition Questionnaire 1

Jana Martin (jcmartin4@wisc.edu) Today's Date:

Name Code (The street number of your residence-day of birth, e.g., 126-15): _____

Course & Time of Class: (circle one) Ger102-9:55 Ger102-11:00 Ger102-01:20 Ger102-03:30

How important is to you that **students** in your German 102 class have the following qualities? Circle what applies.

		very unimportant				relatively unimportant		neither important nor unimportant			relatively important			very important
1.	confident	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10		
2.	hard-working	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10		
3.	proficient in German	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10		
4.	prepared	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10		
5.	funny	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10		
6.	easy-going	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10		
7.	focused	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10		
8.	patient	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10		
9.	kind	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10		
10.	helpful	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10		
11.	tolerant	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10		
12.	creative	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10		
13.	likeable	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10		

In your perception, how many PERCENT of students in your German class are the following? Circle what applies.

		none										all
14.	helpful	0	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100
15.	likeable	0	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100
16.	creative	0	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100
17.	kind	0	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100
18.	funny	0	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100
19.	confident	0	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100
20.	prepared	0	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100
21.	hard-working	0	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100
22.	easy-going	0	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100
23.	tolerant	0	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100
24.	patient	0	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100
25.	focused	0	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100
26.	proficient in German	0	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100

In this German class **during whole class instruction, HOW OFTEN** can you describe yourself as following? Please write your responses in percentages.

0% of the time 10% 20% 30% 40% 50% 60% 70% 80% 90% 100% of the time
almost never sometimes almost always

27.	I feel confident.	0	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100
28.	I am well-prepared.	0	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100
29.	I know what is expected of me in terms of language participation in class.	0	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100
30.	I feel comfortable.	0	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100
31.	I am focused.	0	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100
32.	I complete all assigned homework.	0	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100
33.	I like volunteering my answers and comments.	0	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100
34.	I like to be called on by the teacher.	0	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100
35.	I like to be corrected by the teacher.	0	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100
36.	I think about how the teacher will judge me.	0	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100
37.	I think about how other students will judge me.	0	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100
38.	I pay attention in class.	0	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100
39.	I have fun.	0	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100
40.	I notice what other students are saying.	0	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100
41.	I notice when other students are not paying attention.	0	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100
42.	I notice other students' facial expressions.	0	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100
43.	I notice other students' gestures.	0	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100
44.	I notice what other students wear.	0	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100
45.	I notice how confident other students are.	0	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100
46.	I make eye contact with other students.	0	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100
47.	I think about things not related to class.	0	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100
48.	I feel tired.	0	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100
49.	I try not to look tired.	0	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100
50.	I feel energetic.	0	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100
51.	I feel bored.	0	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100
52.	Other students look energetic.	0	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100
53.	Other students look bored.	0	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100
54.	Other students look focused.	0	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100
55.	Other students look tired.	0	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100

56. Express in percentages, how much class time during this semester so far you **HAVE SPENT** on each of these types of activities. The total needs to add up to 100%.

pair work	_____%
triad work (3 people)	_____%
work in a group larger than 3 people	_____%
mixer activities (activity, in which students walk around and interact with each other)	_____%
teacher-led instruction directed at the whole class	_____%
individual (solo) work	_____%
TOTAL	100 %

How do you perceive **yourself** as a student in your German language classroom? Circle what applies.

		not at all					somewhat					extremely
57.	confident	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
58.	hard-working	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
59.	proficient in German	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
60.	prepared	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
61.	funny	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
62.	easy-going	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
63.	patient	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
64.	kind	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
65.	helpful	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
66.	tolerant	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
67.	creative	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
68.	focused	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
69.	likeable	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10

In this class, how important is to you that **other students** believe **you have** the following qualities? Circle what applies.

		very unimportant			relatively unimportant		neither important nor unimportant			relatively important		very important
70.	kind	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
71.	funny	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
72.	helpful	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
73.	focused	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
74.	likeable	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
75.	tolerant	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
76.	easy-going	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
77.	creative	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
78.	hard-working	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
79.	proficient in German	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
80.	patient	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
81.	confident	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
82.	prepared	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10

To how many percent of your classmates do these statements apply?

83.	I know *[....] percent* of my classmates well.	0	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100
84.	I chat with *[....] percent* of my classmates in the classroom before the class starts.	0	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100
85.	During class, I chat (about things unrelated to class or instruction) with *[....] percent* of my classmates.	0	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100
86.	I socialize with *[....] percent* of my classmates for structured volunteer activities outside of class (e.g.,Kaffestunden, DeKimo, German Club, etc.)	0	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100
87.	I socialize with *[....] percent* of my classmates for personal interest activities outside of class (parties, etc.)	0	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100
88.	I consider *[....] percent* of my classmates to be confident.	0	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100
89.	I believe that I am being thought of as confident by *[....] percent* of my classmates.	0	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100
90.	I consider *[....] percent* of my classmates to be hardworking.	0	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100
91.	I believe that I am being thought of as hardworking by *[....] percent* of my classmates.	0	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100
92.	I consider *[....] percent* of my classmates to be proficient in German.	0	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100
93.	I believe that I am being thought of as proficient in German by *[....] percent* of my classmates.	0	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100
94.	I consider *[....] percent* of my classmates to be prepared when they come to class.	0	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100
95.	I believe that I am being thought of as prepared when I come to class by *[....] percent* of my classmates.	0	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100
96.	I consider *[....] percent* of my classmates to be funny.	0	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100
97.	I believe that I am being thought of as funny by *[....] percent* of my classmates.	0	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100
98.	I consider *[....] percent* of my classmates to be easy-going.	0	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100
99.	I believe that I am being thought of as easy-going by *[....] percent* of my classmates.	0	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100
100.	I consider *[....] percent* of my classmates to be patient.	0	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100
101.	I believe that I am being thought of as patient by *[....] percent* of my classmates.	0	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100
102.	I consider *[....] percent* of my classmates to be kind.	0	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100
103.	I believe that I am being thought of as kind by *[....] percent* of my classmates.	0	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100
104.	I consider *[....] percent* of my classmates to be helpful.	0	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100
105.	I believe that I am being thought of as helpful by *[....] percent* of my classmates.	0	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100
106.	I consider *[....] percent* of my classmates to be tolerant.	0	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100
107.	I believe that I am being thought of as tolerant by *[....] percent* of my classmates.	0	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100
108.	I consider *[....] percent* of my classmates to be focused.	0	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100
109.	I believe that I am being thought of as focused by *[....] percent* of my classmates.	0	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100
110.	I consider *[....] percent* of my classmates to be creative.	0	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100

111.	I believe that I am being thought of as creative by *[.....] percent* of my classmates.	0	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100
112.	I like *[.....] percent* of my classmates.	0	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100
113.	I believe that *[.....] percent* of my classmates like me.	0	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100

114. In this class, with respect to German language proficiency, what place as a learner would you assign yourself at this point of time?

0% 10% 20% 30% 40% 50% 60% 70% 80% 90% 100%

the bottom 25% somewhere in the middle the top 25%

115. In this class, where, do you believe, would other students in the class place you in terms of German language proficiency?

0% 10% 20% 30% 40% 50% 60% 70% 80% 90% 100%

the bottom 25% somewhere in the middle the top 25%

116. In this class, where, do you believe, would the teacher place you in terms of German language proficiency?

0% 10% 20% 30% 40% 50% 60% 70% 80% 90% 100%

the bottom 25% somewhere in the middle the top 25%

PAIR WORK

117. In this class, what percentage of students do you enjoy working with in a pair work?

0% of students 10% 20% 30% 40% 50% 60% 70% 80% 90% 100% of students

118. In this class, what percentage of students, do you believe, enjoys working with you in a pair work?

0% of students 10% 20% 30% 40% 50% 60% 70% 80% 90% 100% of students

In this class, how important are these qualities in a partner for you to enjoy working with him or her in pair work?

		very unimportant		relatively unimportant		neither important nor unimportant		relatively important		very important	
119.	creative	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
120.	likeable	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
121.	easy-going	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
122.	prepared	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
123.	tolerant	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
124.	proficient in German	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
125.	patient	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
126.	kind	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
127.	focused	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
128.	helpful	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
129.	funny	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
130.	confident	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
131.	hard-working	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10

In this class, how important are these qualities in a partner for you to accomplish the task as intended by the instructor?

		very unimportant			relatively unimportant		neither important nor unimportant			relatively important		very important
132.	kind	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
133.	hard-working	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
134.	proficient in German	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
135.	helpful	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
136.	funny	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
137.	easy-going	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
138.	patient	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
139.	confident	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
140.	focused	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
141.	prepared	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
142.	likeable	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
143.	creative	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
144.	tolerant	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10

What percentage of time do you and your partner spend and what percentage should you spend on the following during pair work in this class? Please write your responses **in percentages**. The column totals need not add up to 100% as some things can be done at the same time.

0% of the time 10% 20% 30% 40% 50% 60% 70% 80% 90% 100% of the time
almost never sometimes almost always

During pair work,	I am	I should be	My partner is	My partner should be
145. taking notes.	_____	_____	_____	_____
146. asking the teacher for help when something is unclear.	_____	_____	_____	_____
147. pointing out mistakes made by the other partner.	_____	_____	_____	_____
148. using German.	_____	_____	_____	_____
149. having fun.	_____	_____	_____	_____

How important are each of the following to your contribution to pair work in this class? Please circle the number from 0-10 as it applies.

0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10
very unimportant relatively unimportant neither important nor unimportant relatively important very important

150. type of task (e.g. dialogue, fill-in-the-blanks, etc.)	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
151. my understanding of the task	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
152. my partner's understanding of the task	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
153. my interest in the task	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
154. my partner's interest in the task	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
155. my personality	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
156. my partner's personality	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10

157. my German language proficiency	0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10
158. my partner's German language proficiency	0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10
159. my mood	0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10
160. my partner's mood	0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10
161. my energy level	0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10
162. my partner's energy level	0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10

163. Please describe how you and your partner **DO and SHOULD** spend time during a typical given pair work activity in this class. Each column needs to add up to 100%.

	I am	I should be	My partner is	My partner should be
a) focusing on the task	_____%	_____%	_____%	_____%
b) occupied with things related to the class but unrelated to the task	_____%	_____%	_____%	_____%
c) occupied with things unrelated to the class	_____%	_____%	_____%	_____%
	100 %	100 %	100 %	100 %

164. During pair work, when you and your partner do things related to the class but unrelated to the task, what might you be doing? Please list examples.

_____

165. During pair work, when you and your partner do things unrelated to class, what might you be doing? Please list examples.

_____

In your past experiences with pair work in this class, what was the percentage of your **usual contribution** to accomplishing the task with regard to the following?

0%	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100%
I contributed very little		I contributed less than my partner			I and my partner contributed evenly		I contributed more than my partner		I contributed almost everything	

166.	Providing new ideas.	0	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100
167.	Keeping work on track.	0	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100
168.	Amount of German spoken.	0	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100
169.	Quality of German spoken.	0	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100
170.	Contributing overall.	0	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100
171.	Other – please list _____	0	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100

In this class, how often do you do or experience the following **IN PAIR WORK**? Please write in the percentage.

0% of the time 10% 20% 30% 40% 50% 60% 70% 80% 90% 100% of the time
almost never sometimes almost always

172.	Knowing what teacher expects of me.	0	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100
173.	Knowing what my partner expects of me.	0	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100
174.	Understanding the given task.	0	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100
175.	My partner's understanding the given task.	0	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100
176.	Having fun.	0	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100
177.	Being energetic.	0	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100
178.	Being tired.	0	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100
179.	Being bored.	0	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100
180.	Feeling confident.	0	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100
181.	Being well-prepared.	0	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100
182.	Feeling being judged by my partner.	0	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100
183.	Noticing what my partner wears.	0	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100
184.	Noticing my partner's facial expressions.	0	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100
185.	Noticing my partner's gestures.	0	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100
186.	Making eye contact with my partner.	0	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100
187.	Working with students who I consider to be on the same level of proficiency as I am.	0	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100
188.	Working with students who I consider to be on the lower level of proficiency as I am.	0	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100
189.	Working with students who I consider to be on the higher level of proficiency as I am.	0	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100
190.	Chatting and/or joking.	0	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100
191.	Practicing vocabulary and/or grammar.	0	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100
192.	Having passionate discussion with my partner.	0	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100
193.	Lacking real discussion with my partner.	0	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100
194.	Working with different partners.	0	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100
195.	Working with students of the same gender.	0	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100
196.	Working with students of the opposite gender.	0	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100
197.	Working with students who are dominant.	0	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100
198.	Working with students who are passive.	0	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100

THANK YOU!

Appendix B2
Situated Disposition Questionnaire 2

Jana Martin (jcmartin4@wisc.edu) Today's Date:

Name Code (The street number of your residence-day of birth, e.g., 126-15): _____

Course & Time of Class: (circle one) Ger102-9:55 Ger102-11:00 Ger102-01:20 Ger102-03:30

How important is to you that **students** in your German 102 class have the following qualities? Circle what applies.

		very unimportant					neither important nor unimportant				relatively important	very important
				relatively unimportant								
1.	confident	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
2.	hard-working	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
3.	proficient in German	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
4.	prepared	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
5.	funny	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
6.	easy-going	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
7.	focused	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
8.	patient	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
9.	kind	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
10.	helpful	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
11.	tolerant	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
12.	creative	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
13.	likeable	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10

In your perception, how many PERCENT of students in your German class are the following? Circle what applies.

		none										all
14.	helpful	0	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100
15.	likeable	0	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100
16.	creative	0	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100
17.	kind	0	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100
18.	funny	0	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100
19.	confident	0	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100
20.	prepared	0	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100
21.	hard-working	0	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100
22.	easy-going	0	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100
23.	tolerant	0	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100
24.	patient	0	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100
25.	focused	0	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100
26.	proficient in German	0	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100

In this German class **during whole class instruction, HOW OFTEN** can you describe yourself as following? Please write your responses in percentages.

0% of the time 10% 20% 30% 40% 50% 60% 70% 80% 90% 100% of the time
almost never sometimes almost always

27.	I feel confident.	0	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100
28.	I am well-prepared.	0	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100
29.	I know what is expected of me in terms of language participation in class.	0	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100
30.	I feel comfortable.	0	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100
31.	I am focused.	0	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100
32.	I complete all assigned homework.	0	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100
33.	I like volunteering my answers and comments.	0	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100
34.	I like to be called on by the teacher.	0	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100
35.	I like to be corrected by the teacher.	0	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100
36.	I think about how the teacher will judge me.	0	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100
37.	I think about how other students will judge me.	0	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100
38.	I pay attention in class.	0	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100
39.	I have fun.	0	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100
40.	I notice what other students are saying.	0	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100
41.	I notice when other students are not paying attention.	0	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100
42.	I notice other students' facial expressions.	0	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100
43.	I notice other students' gestures.	0	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100
44.	I notice what other students wear.	0	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100
45.	I notice how confident other students are.	0	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100
46.	I make eye contact with other students.	0	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100
47.	I think about things not related to class.	0	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100
48.	I feel tired.	0	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100
49.	I try not to look tired.	0	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100
50.	I feel energetic.	0	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100
51.	I feel bored.	0	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100
52.	Other students look energetic.	0	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100
53.	Other students look bored.	0	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100
54.	Other students look focused.	0	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100
55.	Other students look tired.	0	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100

56. Express in percentages, how much class time during this semester so far you **HAVE SPENT** on each of these types of activities. The total needs to add up to 100%.

pair work	_____%
triad work (3 people)	_____%
work in a group larger than 3 people	_____%
mixer activities (activity, in which students walk around and interact with each other)	_____%
teacher-led instruction directed at the whole class	_____%
individual (solo) work	_____%
TOTAL	100 %

How do you perceive **yourself** as a student in your German language classroom? Circle what applies.

		not at all					somewhat					extremely
57.	confident	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
58.	hard-working	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
59.	proficient in German	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
60.	prepared	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
61.	funny	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
62.	easy-going	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
63.	patient	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
64.	kind	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
65.	helpful	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
66.	tolerant	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
67.	creative	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
68.	focused	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
69.	likeable	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10

In this class, how important is to you that **other students** believe **you have** the following qualities? Circle what applies.

		very unimportant			relatively unimportant		neither important nor unimportant			relatively important		very important
70.	kind	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
71.	funny	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
72.	helpful	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
73.	focused	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
74.	likeable	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
75.	tolerant	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
76.	easy-going	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
77.	creative	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
78.	hard-working	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
79.	proficient in German	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
80.	patient	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
81.	confident	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
82.	prepared	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10

To how many percent of your classmates do these statements apply?

83.	I know *[....] percent* of my classmates well.	0	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100
84.	I chat with *[....] percent* of my classmates in the classroom before the class starts.	0	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100
85.	During class, I chat (about things unrelated to class or instruction) with *[....] percent* of my classmates.	0	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100
86.	I socialize with *[....] percent* of my classmates for structured volunteer activities outside of class (e.g.,Kaffestunden, DeKimo, German Club, etc.)	0	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100
87.	I socialize with *[....] percent* of my classmates for personal interest activities outside of class (parties, etc.)	0	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100
88.	I consider *[....] percent* of my classmates to be confident.	0	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100
89.	I believe that I am being thought of as confident by *[....] percent* of my classmates.	0	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100
90.	I consider *[....] percent* of my classmates to be hardworking.	0	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100
91.	I believe that I am being thought of as hardworking by *[....] percent* of my classmates.	0	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100
92.	I consider *[....] percent* of my classmates to be proficient in German.	0	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100
93.	I believe that I am being thought of as proficient in German by *[....] percent* of my classmates.	0	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100
94.	I consider *[....] percent* of my classmates to be prepared when they come to class.	0	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100
95.	I believe that I am being thought of as prepared when I come to class by *[....] percent* of my classmates.	0	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100
96.	I consider *[....] percent* of my classmates to be funny.	0	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100
97.	I believe that I am being thought of as funny by *[....] percent* of my classmates.	0	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100
98.	I consider *[....] percent* of my classmates to be easy-going.	0	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100
99.	I believe that I am being thought of as easy-going by *[....] percent* of my classmates.	0	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100
100.	I consider *[....] percent* of my classmates to be patient.	0	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100
101.	I believe that I am being thought of as patient by *[....] percent* of my classmates.	0	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100
102.	I consider *[....] percent* of my classmates to be kind.	0	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100
103.	I believe that I am being thought of as kind by *[....] percent* of my classmates.	0	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100
104.	I consider *[....] percent* of my classmates to be helpful.	0	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100
105.	I believe that I am being thought of as helpful by *[....] percent* of my classmates.	0	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100
106.	I consider *[....] percent* of my classmates to be tolerant.	0	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100
107.	I believe that I am being thought of as tolerant by *[....] percent* of my classmates.	0	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100
108.	I consider *[....] percent* of my classmates to be focused.	0	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100
109.	I believe that I am being thought of as focused by *[....] percent* of my classmates.	0	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100
110.	I consider *[....] percent* of my classmates to be creative.	0	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100

111.	I believe that I am being thought of as creative by *[.....] percent* of my classmates.	0	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100
112.	I like *[.....] percent* of my classmates.	0	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100
113.	I believe that *[.....] percent* of my classmates like me.	0	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100

114. In this class, with respect to German language proficiency, what place as a learner would you assign yourself at this point of time?

0% 10% 20% 30% 40% 50% 60% 70% 80% 90% 100%

the bottom 25% somewhere in the middle the top 25%

115. In this class, where, do you believe, would other students in the class place you in terms of German language proficiency?

0% 10% 20% 30% 40% 50% 60% 70% 80% 90% 100%

the bottom 25% somewhere in the middle the top 25%

116. In this class, where, do you believe, would the teacher place you in terms of German language proficiency?

0% 10% 20% 30% 40% 50% 60% 70% 80% 90% 100%

the bottom 25% somewhere in the middle the top 25%

PAIR WORK

117. In this class, what percentage of students do you enjoy working with in a pair work?

0% of students 10% 20% 30% 40% 50% 60% 70% 80% 90% 100% of students

118. In this class, what percentage of students, do you believe, enjoys working with you in a pair work?

0% of students 10% 20% 30% 40% 50% 60% 70% 80% 90% 100% of students

In this class, how important are these qualities in a partner for you to enjoy working with him or her in pair work?

		very unimportant		relatively unimportant		neither important nor unimportant		relatively important		very important	
119.	creative	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
120.	likeable	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
121.	easy-going	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
122.	prepared	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
123.	tolerant	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
124.	proficient in German	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
125.	patient	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
126.	kind	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
127.	focused	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
128.	helpful	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
129.	funny	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
130.	confident	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
131.	hard-working	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10

In this class, how important are these qualities in a partner for you to accomplish the task as intended by the instructor?

		very unimportant			relatively unimportant		neither important nor unimportant			relatively important		very important
132.	kind	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
133.	hard-working	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
134.	proficient in German	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
135.	helpful	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
136.	funny	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
137.	easy-going	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
138.	patient	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
139.	confident	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
140.	focused	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
141.	prepared	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
142.	likeable	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
143.	creative	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
144.	tolerant	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10

What percentage of time do you and your partner spend and what percentage should you spend on the following during pair work in this class? Please write your responses **in percentages**. The column totals need not add up to 100% as some things can be done at the same time.

0% of the time 10% 20% 30% 40% 50% 60% 70% 80% 90% 100% of the time
almost never sometimes almost always

During pair work,	I am	I should be	My partner is	My partner should be
145. taking notes.	_____	_____	_____	_____
146. asking the teacher for help when something is unclear.	_____	_____	_____	_____
147. pointing out mistakes made by the other partner.	_____	_____	_____	_____
148. using German.	_____	_____	_____	_____
149. having fun.	_____	_____	_____	_____

How important are each of the following to your contribution to pair work in this class? Please circle the number from 0-10 as it applies.

0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10
very unimportant relatively unimportant neither important nor unimportant relatively important very important

150. type of task (e.g. dialogue, fill-in-the-blanks, etc.)	0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10
151. my understanding of the task	0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10
152. my partner's understanding of the task	0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10
153. my interest in the task	0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10
154. my partner's interest in the task	0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10
155. my personality	0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10
156. my partner's personality	0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10

157. my German language proficiency	0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10
158. my partner's German language proficiency	0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10
159. my mood	0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10
160. my partner's mood	0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10
161. my energy level	0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10
162. my partner's energy level	0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10

163. Please describe how you and your partner **DO and SHOULD** spend time during a typical given pair work activity in this class. Each column needs to add up to 100%.

	I am	I should be	My partner is	My partner should be
a) focusing on the task	_____%	_____%	_____%	_____%
b) occupied with things related to the class but unrelated to the task	_____%	_____%	_____%	_____%
c) occupied with things unrelated to the class	_____%	_____%	_____%	_____%
	100 %	100 %	100 %	100 %

164. During pair work, when you and your partner do things related to the class but unrelated to the task, what might you be doing? Please list examples.

_____

165. During pair work, when you and your partner do things unrelated to class, what might you be doing? Please list examples.

_____

In your past experiences with pair work in this class, what was the percentage of your **usual contribution** to accomplishing the task with regard to the following?

0%	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100%
I contributed very little		I contributed less than my partner			I and my partner contributed evenly		I contributed more than my partner		I contributed almost everything	

166.	Providing new ideas.	0	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100
167.	Keeping work on track.	0	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100
168.	Amount of German spoken.	0	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100
169.	Quality of German spoken.	0	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100
170.	Contributing overall.	0	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100
171.	Other – please list _____	0	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100

In this class, how often do you do or experience the following **IN PAIR WORK?** Please write in the percentage.

0% of the time almost never 10% 20% 30% 40% 50% sometimes 60% 70% 80% 90% almost always 100% of the time

172.	Knowing what teacher expects of me.	0	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100
173.	Knowing what my partner expects of me.	0	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100
174.	Understanding of the given task.	0	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100
175.	My partner's understanding of the given task.	0	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100
176.	Having fun.	0	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100
177.	Being energetic.	0	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100
178.	Being tired.	0	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100
179.	Being bored.	0	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100
180.	Feeling confident.	0	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100
181.	Being well-prepared.	0	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100
182.	Feeling being judged by my partner.	0	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100
183.	Noticing what my partner wears.	0	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100
184.	Noticing my partner's facial expressions.	0	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100
185.	Noticing my partner's gestures.	0	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100
186.	Making eye contact with my partner.	0	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100
187.	Working with students who I consider to be on the same level of proficiency as I am.	0	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100
188.	Working with students who I consider to be on the lower level of proficiency as I am.	0	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100
189.	Working with students who I consider to be on the higher level of proficiency as I am.	0	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100
190.	Chatting and/or joking.	0	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100
191.	Practicing vocabulary and/or grammar.	0	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100
192.	Having passionate discussion with my partner.	0	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100
193.	Lacking real discussion with my partner.	0	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100
194.	Working with different partners.	0	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100
195.	Working with students of the same gender.	0	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100
196.	Working with students of the opposite gender.	0	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100
197.	Working with students who are dominant.	0	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100
198.	Working with students who are passive.	0	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100

199. Do you think that the questionnaires related to this study influenced the way you look at pair work?
Circle what applies. Yes No
If yes, please provide brief explanation:

---

200. Do you think that the questionnaires related to this study influenced the way you see yourself and other students in the classroom? Circle what applies. Yes No

If yes, please provide brief explanation:

THANK YOU!

Appendix C
Personal Interview with Students

Jana Martin (jcmartin4@wisc.edu) Today's Date:

Name Code (The street number of your residence-day of birth, e.g., 126-15): _____
Course & Time of Class: (circle one) Ger102-8:50 Ger102-9:55 Ger102-12:05 Ger102-01:20 Ger102-3:30

Sample Interview Questions:

1. How did it come to you working with your partner? (teacher assigned, you chose, the other student chose)
2. What went through your mind when you learned what you were asked to do in this task?
3. What went through your mind when you learned who you were going to work with in this task?
   What were your feelings and expectations going into this pair work?
4. What were you and your partner supposed to specifically do in the task?
What would have been 'good behaviors'?
5. What were the objectives of this task? (can be social or learning-oriented, please be honest)
As intended by the teacher? As intended by your partner? As intended by you?
6. How would you describe your contributions and behaviors in this task?
7. How would you describe your partner's contributions and behaviors in this task?
8. How well did your own contribution and behavior in pair work reflect
The teacher's objectives
Your partner's objectives
Your objectives
9. How well did your partner's contribution and behavior in pair work reflect
   The teacher's objectives
   Your objectives
   His/her own objectives
10. How would you describe the process by which
your partner came to contribute or behave as s/he did?
you came to contribute or behave as you did?
11. What went through your mind right during pair work? (Name some specific thoughts; e.g., 'this is boring/interesting', 'how do you say…' thoughts unrelated to class "I am tired…', etc.)
What made you think so?
12. What, do you think, went through your partner's mind during pair work? What makes you think so?
13. Name some adjectives that describe how you and your partner worked together.
14. If you were to choose a profession to describe your role in this pair work, what would it be (e.g., manager, secretary, mason, interior decorator, therapist, butcher, …?
What made you make that choice?
What associations do you have with this profession?
15. If you were to choose a profession to describe your partner's role in this pair work, what would it be?
   What made you make that choice?
16. What went through your mind right after the pair work was finished? What made you think so?
17. What, do you think, went through your partner's mind after the pair work was finished?
What makes you think so?
18. What was the teacher's role during your pair work?
19. Did you pay attention to what other students were doing?
Did you try to talk to people other than your partner? If yes, what did you notice/do?
Why did you pay attention to others/talk with others?
20. Did you pay attention to what the teacher was doing?

Appendix D
Personal Interview with Teachers

Jana Martin (jcmartin4@wisc.edu) Today's Date:

Name Code (The street number of your residence-day of birth, e.g., 126-15):

Sample questions:

Pair Work

1. How much time do you spend, on average, on pair work in your class?
2. What pair work tasks do you assign?
3. What percentage of pair activities that you assigned in the class, were set up as such by the course textbook? What percentage by other sources? By you?
4. What do you do during student pair work?
5. How often during pair work, do your students, on average, ask you for help?
   What type of help do they ask for?
6. How do you determine that students are finished with the task?
7. What do you do once students appear finished with the task?
8. Do you assign, or do you let students choose partners for pair work?
   If you do assign partners, is there any reasoning to the partner assignment? If yes, what is it?
9. What are, if any, reactions of students that you notice in response to your partner assignment?
10. How do you think, on average, students feel about pair work?
    Why do you think they feel that way?
    Do your students give you any indications or feedback as to their feelings about pair work activities?
11. In your opinion, what do students understand under "working well" in pair work?
12. In your opinion, what do students understand under "not working well" in pair work?
13. What do you think, how do your students, on average, view their ideal pair work partner?
    What do you think are the personal qualities your students appreciate in their pair work partner?
    What do you think are the personal qualities your students do not appreciate in their pair work partner?
    Do you think that students, on average, prefer to work with the students of the same gender as they are?
    Do you think that students, on average, prefer to work with the students of higher, same or lower proficiency than they are?
14. In your opinion, in your German class, what makes a person likeable?
    To the students?
    To you?
15. Do you think STUDENTS form opinions of each other in class?
How soon do they do that?
Based on what evidence, do you think?
Do these opinions change in the course of the semester?
Based on what evidence, do you think?
16. Do YOU form opinions about the students in class?
    How soon do you do that?
    Based on what evidence?
    Do these opinions change in the course of the semester?
Based on what evidence?
17. Do you think that students' views of each other match how you view these individuals?
18. Do you think that your students, on average, are aware of how the other students in the class view them? How would they learn what others think of them?
19. Do you notice students behaving differently during whole-class discussions and small group activities?

Specific Task

20. What was the objective of this specific pair work task?
21. What were the learning opportunities?
22. What could have gone wrong?
23. How much did students feel about it?
24. How did the focal partners feel about it?
25. How did the students A and B (C and D) work together during this task?
    What makes you think that?
26. Did students A (B) (C and D) finish the task earlier, at the same time, or later than other students?
27. How did they behave during the task?
28. Did you notice anything different about their behavior during this task as compared with their behavior during whole-class instruction? Did they interact with students from other pairs?

Focal Partners

29. In your opinion, how does the focal student A (B, C, D) work with other students?
    During pair work?
30. What, in your opinion, are focal student's A (B, C, D) personal qualities? (funny, helpful, kind,…)
31. Does the student A (B, C, D) show any emotions during pair work?
32. Does the student A (B, C, D) show interest in participating in organized voluntary activities (e.g. DeKimo, Kaffeestunde, etc.)
33. Where, in regards to proficiency, is student A (B, C, D) in comparison to other students in your class?
    Pronunciation? Grammar? Vocabulary?
34. How much L1 does A (B, C, D) use in comparison with other students in class?
35. What is A's (B's, C's, D's) pattern of participation in whole class?

How much in comparison to other students does A (B, C, D) volunteer his/her answers?

36. Does the focal student A (B, C, D) show any preference for his/her pair work partners?
37. How, do you think, is A (B, C, D) viewed by their classmates?

In terms of: personal qualities, proficiency, participation

38. In your opinion, do other students like to work with the focal student A (B, C, D) in pair work?

Appendix E
Group Interview with Students

Jana Martin (jcmartin4@wisc.edu) Today's Date:

Name Codes (The street number of your residence-day of birth, e.g., 126-15):

_____ _____ _____

_____ _____ _____

_____ _____ _____

Course & Time of Class: (circle one) Ger102-8:50 Ger102-9:50 Ger102-12:05 Ger102-01:20 Ger102-3:30

1. What determines whether you like a class, any class?
2. What determines whether you like a language class?
3. How would you describe your class?
   What are your thoughts about this class' dynamics?
4. Do you like being in this class?
   What makes you feel that way?
5. How do you, as a whole class, work together?
   What all does working well together involve?
6. In your opinion, in your German class, what makes a person likeable?
   To the students?
   To you?
   To the teacher?
7. What are your thoughts about the value of pair work in the classroom?
8. What are your thoughts, feelings, and expectations when going into pair work?
   During pair work?
   After pair work?
9. What would you describe as an "ideal" pair work?
10. What all needs to be in place before working well with someone in pair work?
    What determines the compatibility of pair work partners?

How can one develop this compatibility?

11. Does the level of compatibility improve with time?
    What can you and other students do to make these improvements?
    What can the teacher do to make these improvements?
12. Do you usually feel/think differently about pair work at the beginning as compared to the end of a semester?

What about this semester?

13. Do you usually feel/think differently about working with certain people at the beginning as compared to the end of the semester?

What about this semester?

14. Has this study influenced your thoughts about classroom dynamics and pair work in any way?

Appendix F
General Disposition Questionnaire

Jana Martin (jcmartin4@wisc.edu) Today's Date:

Name Code (The street number of your residence-day of birth, e.g., 126-15): _____

Course & Time of Class: (circle one) Ger102-9:55 Ger102-11:00 Ger102-01:20 Ger102--03:30

Age: _____

Gender: M F (circle one)

Ethnicity: _____ The language/s you spoke growing up: _____

Relative to my classmates', I would assess my German speaking ability to be

way below average | somewhat below average | average | somewhat above average | way above average

Have you taken any German language classes at this university in the past? Yes No
If yes, please list them: _____

Please answer the following questions in the space provided:

1. What goes through your mind as you consider whether to say something in teacher-led discussions?

_____

_____

2. What then might make you decide to remain silent? _____

3. What then might make you decide to speak up? _____

4. What happens when you work **well** with other students? What does **well** mean?

_____

_____

5. How would you describe students that you work **well** with?

_____

_____

6. How would you describe the opposite of **working well** with students? What happens when you do not **work well** with other students?

_____

_____

7. How would you describe students you do **not work well** with?

_____

_____

8. What goes through your mind as you consider whether to say something in **pair work**?

_____

_____

9. What then might make you decide to remain silent?

10. What then might make you decide to speak up?

_____

11. What are your best qualities in partner work that others appreciate?

_____

12. What are your worst qualities in partner work that others do not appreciate?

_____

13. What do you see as benefits of pair work for you?

_____

_____

14. What do you see as the drawbacks of pair work for you?

_____

_____

15. What adjectives would you use to describe an **ideal** pair work?

_____ _____ _____ _____ _____

16. What metaphor would you use to describe an **ideal** pair work?

_____

_____

17. Why would the teacher want you to do pair work in the classroom?

_____

_____

Read each statement and decide the extent of its importance to you. Please write in the number from 0-10 as it applies.

0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
very unimportant		relatively unimportant			neither important nor unimportant		relatively important		very important	

<u>To me</u>	0-10
18. getting to know other students in the class is ...	_____
19. conversing with other students in the classroom **before** the class starts is ...	_____
20. conversing with other students **during class** about things unrelated to class is ...	_____
21. socializing with my classmates in <u>organized voluntary activities</u> **outside of class** is ... (e.g.,Kaffestunden, DeKimo, German Club)	_____
22. socializing with my classmates <u>for personal interest activities</u> **outside of class** (parties, etc.) is	_____

23. Express in percentages, how much time in a class period you **WOULD LIKE TO SPEND** on each of these types of activities. The total needs to add up to 100%.

pair work	_____%
work in a triad (3 people)	_____%
work in a group larger than 3 people	_____%
mixer activities (activity, in which students walk around and interact with each other)	_____%
teacher-led instruction directed at the whole class	_____%
individual (solo) work	_____%
TOTAL	100 %

24. Express in percentages, how much time in a class period you **SHOULD SPEND** to learn the most on:

pair work	_____%
work in a triad (3 people)	_____%
work in a group larger than 3 people	_____%
mixer activities (activity, in which students walk around and interact with each other)	_____%
teacher-led instruction directed at the whole class	_____%
individual (solo) work	_____%
TOTAL	100 %

PAIR WORK

How do you feel about the following potential aspects of pair work? Please circle the number of your response.

0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
very much dislike		somewhat dislike		neither like nor dislike			somewhat like		very much like	

25. Pair work, generally.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
26. Working with different partners throughout the semester.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
27. Working with students of my gender.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
28. Working with students of the opposite gender.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
29. Working with students who I consider to be on the same level of language proficiency as I am.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
30. Working with students who I consider to be on a lower level of language proficiency than I am.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
31. Working with students who I consider to be on a higher level of language proficiency than I am.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
32. Chatting, joking.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
33. Practicing vocabulary or grammar.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
34. Being involved in passionate discussions with my partner.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
35. Lacking real discussion with my partner.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
36. Working with students who are dominant.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
37. Working with students who are passive.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10

38. In your past experiences with pair work outside of this class, what was the percentage of your **usual contribution** to accomplishing the task with regard to the following?

0%	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100%
I contributed very little		I contributed less than my partner			I and my partner contributed evenly		I contributed more than my partner		I contributed almost everything	

39.	Contributing with new ideas.	0	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100
40.	Keeping work on track.	0	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100
41.	Amount of German spoken.	0	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100
42.	Quality of German spoken.	0	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100
43.	Contributing overall.	0	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100
44.	Other – please list _____	0	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100

How would you define **your ideal partner for pair work** in a German language classroom? Circle what applies.

		not at all					somewhat					extremely
45.	confident	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
46.	hard-working	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
47.	proficient in German	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
48.	prepared	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
49.	funny	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
50.	easy-going	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
51.	patient	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
52.	kind	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
53.	focused	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
54.	helpful	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
55.	tolerant	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
56.	creative	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
57.	likeable	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10

THANK YOU!

Appendix G
IRB Approval Form

THE UNIVERSITY of WISCONSIN MADISON

Education and Social/Behavioral Science IRB
2/25/2015

Submission ID number:	SE-2012-0426-CR003
Title:	Pair work in the foreign language classroom
Principal Investigator:	MONIKA MARIA T CHAVEZ
Point-of-contact:	JANA C MARTIN
IRB Staff Reviewer:	CASEY PELLIEN

A designated ED/SBS IRB member conducted an expedited review of the above-referenced continuing review progress report form. The study was approved by the IRB member for the period of 12 months with the expiration date of 2/24/2016. The study qualified for expedited review pursuant to 45 CFR 46.110 and, if applicable, 21 CFR 56.110 and 38 CFR 16.110:

Category 7: Research on individual or group characteristics or behavior (including, but not limited to, research on perception, cognition, motivation, identity, language, communication, cultural beliefs or practices, and social behavior) or research employing survey, interview, oral history, focus group, program evaluation, or quality assurance methodologies

To access the materials approved by the IRB, including any stamped consent forms and recruitment materials, please log in to your ARROW account and view the documents tab in the submission's workspace.

Please review the Investigator Responsibilities guidance (http://go.wisc.edu/m0lovn) , which includes a description of IRB requirements for submitting continuing review progress reports, changes of protocol and reportable events.

Please contact the appropriate IRB office with general questions: Health Sciences IRBs at 608-263-2362 or Education and Social/Behavioral Science IRB at 608-263-2320. For questions related to this submission, contact the assigned staff reviewer.

Appendix H
IRB Consent Forms

University of Wisconsin – Madison
Pair Work in the Foreign Language Classroom
Research Participant Information and Consent Form

Dear students and teachers,

You are invited to participate in a study on teachers' and students' beliefs and perceptions about pair work. The purpose of the study is to explore teachers' and students' perspectives on the nature of the pair work in a foreign language classroom, including but not limited to its social, organizational, and affective aspect. You have been asked to participate because you are enrolled in a second-semester German course. The research will be conducted in the classroom where the language instruction is scheduled to regularly take place.

If you are a student, and you decide to participate in this research, you will be asked to complete three take-home questionnaires (20 min each) during the semester and six 3-part in-class questionnaires (each part - 1 min.). On the six in-class questionnaire days, the researcher will conduct observations, including audio recordings that will be used only for the purpose of transcription, and then destroyed. Your participation in the third part of the study will involve being videotaped for 6 class periods during the semester. A separate consent form will need to be signed by you for this part of the study. If you are interested in the fourth part of the study consisting of six interviews (10-15 min each) with the researcher, please indicate your commitment by signing on the bottom of this form. The interviews will be audio recorded only for the purpose of transcription.

If you are a teacher and consent to participate in this research, you will be asked to complete one take-home questionnaire (20 min) and six 3-part in-class questionnaires (each part - 1 min). In addition, if you consent to the interview part of the study (a separate signature line on the bottom of this consent form), you will be asked to participate in six 10-15-minute interviews with the researcher.

You will receive $5 for completing first take-home questionnaire, $7 for the second take-home questionnaire, $8 for the third take-home questionnaire and $7 for each interview. If you do withdraw prior to the end of the study, you will receive compensation for all items you completed up to your withdrawal.

While there will probably be publications as a result of this study, your name will not be used. Any sensitive, highly personal or identifiable information will be deleted, and not included in any publications. Only the researcher and the Principal Investigator will have access to the study data. Data related to this study kept on researcher's personal computer will be protected by a personal password. Material data such as questionnaires, interview audio tapes, and in-class video tapes will be kept in a locked campus office of the Principal Investigator.

If you participate in this study, we would like to be able to quote you directly without using your name. If you agree to allow us to quote you in publications, please initial the statement at the bottom of this form.

If you have questions, you may contact Jana Martin, a doctoral student in the German Department of the College of Letters and Sciences at the UW-Madison, at jcmartin4@wisc.edu, or the study's Principal Investigator,
Dr. Monika Chavez, a professor in the German Department at the same university, at mmchavez@wisc.edu. If you are not satisfied with response of research team, have more questions, or want to talk with someone about your rights as a research participant, you should contact the Education Research and Social & Behavioral Science IRB Office at 608-263-2320.

Your participation is completely voluntary. If you decide not to participate, to participate only in a part of the study or to withdraw from the study, it will have no effect on your grade in this course or any future courses. We don't anticipate any risks and any direct benefits to you from participation in this study.

Your signature indicates that you have read this consent form, had an opportunity to ask any questions about your participation in this research and voluntarily consent to participate. You will receive a copy of this form for your records.

By signing your name below, you agree to participate in the two questionnaire portions of this study.

For privacy purposes, your name will not be on any documents connected to the study except the consent forms. Data from other documents will be linked together by a name code only. Please provide your name code on the line below:

Name Code (The street number of your residence-day of birth, e.g., 126-15): _____

_____ _____ _____
Name of Participant (please print) **Signature** **Date**

I give my permission to be quoted directly in publications without using my name. _____ **(Initials)**

By signing your name below, you agree to participate in the individual interview portion of this study.

_____ _____ _____
Name of Participant (please print) **Signature** **Date**

UNIVERSITY OF WISCONSIN-MADISON
Research Participant Consent to Video Tape

Title of the Study: Pair work in the foreign language classroom

Principal Investigator: Prof. Monika Chavez (email: mmchavez@facstaff.wisc.edu)

Student Researcher: Jana Martin (email: jcmartin4@wisc.edu)

WHAT WILL MY PARTICIPATION INVOLVE?

Students and teachers: If you decide to participate in this third part of the study, you will be asked to give researcher your permission to video tape you for 6 class periods during the semester. The files will be retained on researcher's personal computer protected by personal password for one year before they are destroyed. While there will probably be publications as a result of this study, your name will not be used. Any sensitive, highly personal or identifiable information will be deleted, and not included in any publications. Only the researcher and the Principal Investigator will have access to the study data. Data related to this study kept on researcher's personal computer will be protected by a personal password. Materials such as video tapes will be kept at a locked campus office of the Principal Investigator.

WHOM SHOULD I CONTACT IF I HAVE QUESTIONS?

You may ask any questions about the research at any time. If you have questions about the research after you leave today you should contact the Principal Investigator Prof. Monika Chavez at 608-262-8783. You may also call the student researcher, Jana Martin at 608-262-3489.

If you are not satisfied with response of research team, have more questions, or want to talk with someone about your rights as a research participant, you should contact the Education Research and Social & Behavioral Science IRB Office at 608-263-2320.

Your participation is completely voluntary. If you decide not to participate or to withdraw from the study it will have no effect on your grade in this course or any future courses.

Your signature indicates that you have read this consent form, had an opportunity to ask any questions about your participation in this research and voluntarily consent to participate. You will receive a copy of this form for your records.

By signing your name below, you agree to participate in the videotaping portion of this study.

Name of Participant (please print):_____

_____ _____

Signature Date

UNIVERSITY OF WISCONSIN-MADISON
Research Participant Consent to a Group Interview

Title of the Study: Pair work in the foreign language classroom
Principal Investigator: Prof. Monika Chavez (phone: 608-262-8783) (email: mmchavez@facstaff.wisc.edu)
Student Researcher: Jana Martin (phone: 608-262-3489)
Study Description: The purpose of the study is to explore teachers' and students' perspectives on the nature of the pair work in a foreign language classroom, including but not limited to its social, organizational, and affective aspect. You have been asked to participate because you are enrolled in a second-semester German course.

WHAT WILL MY PARTICIPATION INVOLVE?
If you decide to participate in the group interview part of the study, you will be asked to give researcher your permission to audio tape you for the duration of the interview (about 20-30 minutes). Only the principal investigator and the researcher will hear the audio recordings. The tapes will be used only for the purpose of transcription and retained for one year before they are destroyed.

The interview will take place in one of the conference rooms in Van Hise. Date and time will be announced by the researcher. Compensation for the participation in the group interview is $7.

WHOM SHOULD I CONTACT IF I HAVE QUESTIONS?
You may ask any questions about the research at any time. If you have questions about the research after you leave today you should contact the Principal Investigator Prof. Monika Chavez at 608-262-8783. You may also call the student researcher, Jana Martin at 608-262-3489.

If you are not satisfied with response of research team, have more questions, or want to talk with someone about your rights as a research participant, you should contact the Education Research and Social & Behavioral Science IRB Office at 608-263-2320.

Your participation is completely voluntary. If you decide not to participate or to withdraw from the study it will have no effect on your grade in this class. While there will probably be publications as a result of this study, your name will not be used. Any sensitive, highly personal or identifiable information will be deleted, and not included in any publications.

Because this is a group interview, a risk of confidentiality breach cannot be excluded as participants will hear each other's responses. The researcher plans to mitigate this risk by asking participants not to use any names or any personal or identifiable information related to themselves or other students in their responses but rather reflect on their classroom experience in general.

Only the researcher and the Principal Investigator will have access to the study data. Data related to this study kept on researcher's personal computer will be protected by a personal password. Material data such as interview audio tapes will be kept in a locked campus office of the Principal Investigator.

Your signature indicates that you have read this consent form, had an opportunity to ask any questions about your participation in this research and voluntarily consent to participate. You will receive a copy of this form for your records.

By signing your name below, you agree to participate in the group interview portion of this study.

Name of Participant (please print):_____

_____ _____

Signature Date

Appendix I1

Levene's tests of homogeneity of variances performed on each of the 13 attributes, *Situated Disposition Questionnaire 1*, items 1-13, Week 2

Attribute	Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
Confident	2.266	3	46	.093
Hardworking	.184	3	46	.907
Proficient	.770	3	45	.517
Prepared	.553	3	46	.649
Funny	1.331	3	46	.276
Easygoing	1.180	3	46	.328
Focused	.184	3	46	.907
Patient	.271	3	46	.846
Kind	.531	3	46	.663
Helpful	.978	3	46	.411
Tolerant	.279	3	46	.840
Creative	.825	3	46	.487
Likeable	.415	3	46	.743

Appendix I2

Levene's tests of homogeneity of variances performed on each of the three personality constituents

Situated Disposition Questionnaire 1, items 1-13, Week 2

Personality Constituent (Week 2)	Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
Accommodator	.476	3	46	.700
Expert	.692	3	45	.562
Entertainer	.090	3	46	.965

Levene's tests of homogeneity of variances performed on each of the three personality constituents,

Situated Disposition Questionnaire 2, items 1-13, Week 13

Personality Constituent (Week 13)	Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
Accommodator	1.973	3	41	.133
Expert	1.235	3	41	.309
Entertainer	1.010	3	41	.398

Appendix I3

Levene's tests of homogeneity of variances performed on each of the three personality constituents

Situated Disposition Questionnaire 1, items 57-69, Week 2

Personality Constituent (Week 2)	Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
Accommodator	.734	3	46	.537
Expert	.366	3	46	.778
Entertainer	1.469	3	46	.235

Levene's tests of homogeneity of variances performed on each of the three personality constituents

Situated Disposition Questionnaire 2, items 57-69, Week 13

Personality Constituent (Week 13)	Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
Accommodator	.572	3	41	.636
Expert	.288	3	41	.834
Entertainer	.019	3	41	.996

Appendix I4

Levene's tests of homogeneity of variances performed on each of the three personality constituents

Situated Disposition Questionnaire 1, items 14-26, Week 2

Personality Constituent (Week 2)	Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
Accommodator	1.029	3	46	.389
Expert	.791	3	46	.505
Entertainer	.226	3	46	.878

Levene's tests of homogeneity of variances performed on each of the three personality constituents

Situated Disposition Questionnaire 2, items 14-26, Week 13

Personality Constituent (Week 13)	Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
Accommodator	.686	3	41	.566
Expert	2.890	3	41	.047
Entertainer	.520	3	41	.671

Appendix I5

Levene's tests of homogeneity of variances performed on each of the three personality constituents

Situated Disposition Questionnaire 1, items 89-113 (odd items), Week 2

Personality Constituent (Week 2)	Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
Accommodator	1.948	3	46	.135
Expert	.521	3	46	.670
Entertainer	.634	3	46	.597

Levene's tests of homogeneity of variances performed on each of the three personality constituents

Situated Disposition Questionnaire 2, items 89-113 (odd items), Week 13

Personality Constituent (Week 13)	Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
Accommodator	3.000	3	41	.041
Expert	.409	3	41	.748
Entertainer	.182	3	41	.908

Appendix J1

ANOVAs performed on each of the three personality constituents
Situated Disposition Questionnaire 1, items 1-13, Week 2

Personality Constituent (Week 2)		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Accommodator	Between Groups	6.107	3	2.036	1.458	.238
	Within Groups	64.220	46	1.396		
	Total	70.327	49			
Expert	Between Groups	2.522	3	.841	.564	.642
	Within Groups	68.606	46	1.491		
	Total	71.128	49			
Entertainer	Between Groups	10.291	3	3.430	1.867	.148
	Within Groups	84.529	46	1.838		
	Total	94.820	49			

ANOVA performed on each of the three personality constituents
Situated Disposition Questionnaire 2, items 1-13, Week 13

Personality Constituent (Week 13)		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Accommodator	Between Groups	2.125	3	.708	.625	.603
	Within Groups	46.447	41	1.133		
	Total	48.572	44			
Expert	Between Groups	1.707	3	.569	.383	.766
	Within Groups	60.968	41	1.487		
	Total	62.675	44			
Entertainer	Between Groups	5.835	3	1.945	1.122	.351
	Within Groups	71.109	41	1.734		
	Total	76.944	44			

Appendix J2

Repeated measure ANOVA – General Linear Model
Significance of difference between the three personality constituents
Situated Disposition Questionnaire 1, items 1-13, Week 2

Effect		Value	F	Hypothesis df	Error df	Sig.
	Pillai's Trace	.483	22.447[b]	2.000	48.000	.000
	Wilks' Lambda	.517	22.447[b]	2.000	48.000	.000
	Hotelling's Trace	.935	22.447[b]	2.000	48.000	.000
	Roy's Largest Root	.935	22.447[b]	2.000	48.000	.000

a. Design: Intercept
Within Subjects Design: Theme 1 – Week 2; 3 levels
b. Exact statistic

Appendix J3

Repeated measure ANOVA – General Linear Model
Significance of difference between the three personality constituents
Situated Disposition Questionnaire 2, items 1-13, Week 13

Effect		Value	F	Hypothesis df	Error df	Sig.
	Pillai's Trace	.524	23.627 [b]	2.000	43.000	.000
	Wilks' Lambda	.476	23.627 [b]	2.000	43.000	.000
	Hotelling's Trace	1.099	23.627 [b]	2.000	43.000	.000
	Roy's Largest Root	1.099	23.627 [b]	2.000	43.000	.000

a. Design: Intercept
Within Subjects Design: Theme 1 – Week 13; 3 levels
b. Exact statistic

Appendix J4

ANOVA performed on each of the three personality constituents

Situated Disposition Questionnaire 1, items 57-69, Week 2

Personality Constituent (Week 2)		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Accommodator	Between Groups	4.103	3	1.368	1.000	.401
	Within Groups	62.877	46	1.367		
	Total	66.979	49			
Expert	Between Groups	4.741	3	1.580	1.064	.374
	Within Groups	68.346	46	1.486		
	Total	73.086	49			
Entertainer	Between Groups	20.046	3	6.682	3.054	.038
	Within Groups	100.640	46	2.188		
	Total	120.686	49			

ANOVA performed on each of the three personality constituents

Situated Disposition Questionnaire 2, items 57-69, Week 13

Personality Constituent (Week 13)		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Accommodator	Between Groups	1.470	3	.490	.195	.899
	Within Groups	102.927	41	2.510		
	Total	104.396	44			
Expert	Between Groups	17.397	3	5.799	2.224	.100
	Within Groups	106.914	41	2.608		
	Total	124.311	44			
Entertainer	Between Groups	2.005	3	.668	.228	.877
	Within Groups	120.441	41	2.938		
	Total	122.447	44			

Appendix J5

Repeated measure ANOVA – General Linear Model

Significance of difference between the three personality constituents

Situated Disposition Questionnaire 1, items 57-69, Week 2

Effect		Value	F	Hypothesis df	Error df	Sig.
	Pillai's Trace	.435	18.442[b]	2.000	48.000	.000
	Wilks' Lambda	.565	18.442[b]	2.000	48.000	.000
	Hotelling's Trace	.768	18.442[b]	2.000	48.000	.000
	Roy's Largest Root	.768	18.442[b]	2.000	48.000	.000

a. Design: Intercept

Within Subjects Design: Theme 2 – Week 2; 3 levels

b. Exact statistic

Appendix J6

Repeated measure ANOVA – General Linear Model

Significance of difference between the three personality constituents

Situated Disposition Questionnaire 2, items 57-69, Week 13

Effect		Value	F	Hypothesis df	Error df	Sig.
	Pillai's Trace	.322	10.215 [b]	2.000	43.000	.000
	Wilks' Lambda	.678	10.215 [b]	2.000	43.000	.000
	Hotelling's Trace	.475	10.215 [b]	2.000	43.000	.000
	Roy's Largest Root	.475	10.215 [b]	2.000	43.000	.000

a. Design: Intercept

Within Subjects Design: Theme 2 – Week 13; 3 levels

b. Exact statistic

Appendix J7

ANOVA performed on each of the three personality constituents

Situated Disposition Questionnaire 1, items 14-26, Week 2

Personality Constituent (Week 2)		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Accommodator	Between Groups	248.756	3	82.919	.451	.718
	Within Groups	8466.089	46	184.045		
	Total	8714.845	49			
Expert	Between Groups	592.893	3	197.631	.970	.415
	Within Groups	9374.732	46	184.045		
	Total	9967.625	49			
Entertainer	Between Groups	142.926	3	47.642	.259	.855
	Within Groups	8464.074	46	184.002		
	Total	8607.00	49			

ANOVA performed on each of the three personality constituents

Situated Disposition Questionnaire 2, items 14-26, Week 13

Personality Constituent (Week 13)		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Accommodator	Between Groups	1102.903	3	367.634	2.300	.092
	Within Groups	6553.097	41	159.832		
	Total	7656.000	44			
Expert	Between Groups	1496.268	3	498.756	2.709	.058
	Within Groups	7549.319	41	184.130		
	Total	9045.586	44			
Entertainer	Between Groups	857.877	3	285.959	1.530	.221
	Within Groups	7662.123	41	186.881		
	Total	8520.000	44			

Appendix J8

Repeated measure ANOVA – General Linear Model
Significance of difference between the three personality constituents
Situated Disposition Questionnaire 1, items 14-26, Week 2

Effect		Value	F	Hypothesis df	Error df	Sig.
	Pillai's Trace	.324	11.480[b]	2.000	48.000	.000
	Wilks' Lambda	.676	11.480[b]	2.000	48.000	.000
	Hotelling's Trace	.478	11.480[b]	2.000	48.000	.000
	Roy's Largest Root	.478	11.480[b]	2.000	48.000	.000

a. Design: Intercept
Within Subjects Design: Theme 3 – Week 2; 3 levels
b. Exact statistic

Appendix J9

Repeated measure ANOVA – General Linear Model
Significance of difference between the three personality constituents
Situated Disposition Questionnaire 2, items 14-26, Week 13

Effect		Value	F	Hypothesis df	Error df	Sig.
	Pillai's Trace	.325	10.369 [b]	2.000	43.000	.000
	Wilks' Lambda	.675	10.369 [b]	2.000	43.000	.000
	Hotelling's Trace	.482	10.369 [b]	2.000	43.000	.000
	Roy's Largest Root	.482	10.369 [b]	2.000	43.000	.000

a. Design: Intercept
Within Subjects Design: Theme 3 – Week 13; 3 levels
b. Exact statistic

Appendix J10

ANOVA performed on each of the three personality constituents
Situated Disposition Questionnaire 1, items 89-113 (odd), Week 2

Personality Constituent (Week 2)		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Accommodator	Between Groups	961.016	3	320.339	1.134	.345
	Within Groups	12992.664	46	282.449		
	Total	13953.680	49			
Expert	Between Groups	1108.348	3	369.449	1.457	.239
	Within Groups	11666.652	46	253.623		
	Total	1275.000	49			
Entertainer	Between Groups	816.158	3	272.053	.735	.536
	Within Groups	17016.842	46	369.931		
	Total	17833.000	49			

ANOVA performed on each of the three personality constituents
Situated Disposition Questionnaire 2, items 89-113 (odd), Week 13

Personality Constituent (Week 13)		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Accommodator	Between Groups	737.400	3	245.800	1.063	.375
	Within Groups	9481.800	41	231.263		
	Total	10219.200	44			
Expert	Between Groups	1096.464	3	365.488	1.249	.304
	Within Groups	11997.147	41	292.613		
	Total	13093.611	44			
Entertainer	Between Groups	271.424	3	90.475	.403	.752
	Within Groups	9207.188	41	224.566		
	Total	9478.611	44			

Appendix J11

Repeated measure ANOVA – General Linear Model

Significance of difference between the three personality constituents

Situated Disposition Questionnaire 1, items 89-113 (odd), Week 2

Effect		Value	F	Hypothesis df	Error df	Sig.
	Pillai's Trace	.575	32.418[b]	2.000	48.000	.000
	Wilks' Lambda	.425	32.418[b]	2.000	48.000	.000
	Hotelling's Trace	1.351	32.418[b]	2.000	48.000	.000
	Roy's Largest Root	1.351	32.418[b]	2.000	48.000	.000

a. Design: Intercept

Within Subjects Design: Theme 4 – Week 2; 3 levels

b. Exact statistic

Appendix J12

Repeated measure ANOVA – General Linear Model

Significance of difference between the three personality constituents

Situated Disposition Questionnaire 2, items 89-113, Week 13

Effect		Value	F	Hypothesis df	Error df	Sig.
	Pillai's Trace	.328	10.514 [b]	2.000	43.000	.000
	Wilks' Lambda	.672	10.514 [b]	2.000	43.000	.000
	Hotelling's Trace	.489	10.514 [b]	2.000	43.000	.000
	Roy's Largest Root	.489	10.514 [b]	2.000	43.000	.000

a. Design: Intercept

Within Subjects Design: Theme 4 – Week 13; 3 levels

b. Exact statistic

Appendix K

Pairwise comparisons (General Linear Model)

Important-in-a-hypothetical-ideal-pair-work-partner ratings

Significance of difference between the three personality constituents
General Disposition Questionnaire, items 45-57, Week 2

Differences in composite means of important-in-a-hypothetical-ideal-pair-work-partner ratings between pairs derived from the three personality constituents [1] given in Week 2; n=50

Pairs of personality constituents		Differences in composite means between attributes comprised under pairs of personality constituents in Week 2 (A – B)	Sig. *p* - value
(A) constituent	(B) constituent		
Accommodator	*Expert*	.255	.190
	Entertainer	.791	**.000**
Expert	*Accommodator*	-.255	.190
	Entertainer	.536	**.027**
Entertainer	*Accommodator*	-.791	**.000**
	Expert	-.536	**.027**

Significance: * $p < .05$, ** $p \leq .01$, and *** $p \leq .001$
[1]Composite means scores in Week 2: *Accommodator* (8.10); *Expert* (7.84); and *Entertainer* (7.30)

Appendix L

Descriptive statistics for self-ratings of 13 individual attributes

Situated Disposition Questionnaire 1, items 57-69, Week 2

Attribute	Mean	Minimum score	Maximum score	*SD*
Tolerant	8.00	3	10	1.784
Kind	7.86	3	10	1.552
Hardworking	7.82	5	10	1.304
Focused	7.76	3	10	1.709
Likeable	7.58	4	10	1.691
Prepared	7.50	4	10	1.374
Patient	7.48	3	10	1.729
Helpful	7.42	3	10	1.617
Easygoing	7.34	3	10	1.673
Creative*	6.12	2	10	2.088
Confident	6.12	0	10	1.934
Funny	6.06	0	10	2.142
Proficient	5.74	2	10	1.936

N = 50; *For the attribute *creative* only 49 ratings were recorded.