Psychological Safety in the EFL Classroom: Teaming up with WTC, Language Anxiety, Learning Experience, Motivation and Teacher Leadership

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ABSTRACT

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This thesis set out to explore the concept of psychological safety, originating from organisational studies, as a potentially useful new concept in (foreign) second language acquisition. First the concept is explored in relation to other, established concepts in the field: Willingness to Communicate (WTC), Foreign Language Anxiety (FLA), Motivation and Learning Experience as well as the three Teacher Leadership-factors of Responsiveness, Demandingness and Coercive Control.

The concepts are then formulated into teacher and student questionnaires. 333 students and 7 teachers participated in the study in spring 2019. The different concepts and their relations were examined quantitatively through means, correlations and multiple regression analysis and the few open questions were content analysed to find themes from the student perspective.

The results of the theoretical explorations showed that psycholocigal safety is partly present in the current concepts and could be a viable factor for consideration expecially for WTC and Learning Experience. Psychological safety could, furthermore, help conceptualise the relevant parts of context, a rising theme in SLA. The quantitative results showed a linear connection between psychological safety and WTC and significant correlations to other factors. Qualitative results showed that students value familiarity, acceptance and equal participation-all issues that are not presented well in the current concepts but are at the core of psychological safety.

It is concluded that psychological safety could be a viable new concept for foreign language learning studies and that further exploration in relation to especially the concepts of WTC and learning experience could be fruitful.

Psychological safety, motivation, language learning experience, willingness to communicate, language anxiety, language enjoyment, context, group dynamics, group cohesion, group norms, teacher leadership

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List of Abbreviations

AFS	Activity Feeling States
AMTB	AttitudeMotivation Test Battery
ANOVA	Analysis of Variance
EFL	English as a Foreign Language
ELT	English language Teaching
ESL	English as a Second Language
FL	Foreign Language
FLA/LA	Foreign Language Anxiety/ Language Anxiety
FLCAS	Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale
FLE/ LE	Foreign Language Enjoyment/ Language Engjoyment
FRL	Full Range Leadership
MLQ	Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire
PS	Psychological Safety
SLA	Second Language Acquisition
T1…T7	Teacher 1…Teacher 7
TCC	Teacher Coercive Control
TCLS	Teacher Classroom Leadership Scale
TD	Teacher Demandingness
TLSI	Teacher Leadership Style Inventory
TR	Teacher Responsiveness
TSI	Teaching Style Inventory
WTC	Willingness to Communicate

1 INTRODUCTION

In the past decades, studying foreign languages in a classroom setting has undergone a massive change. The position of a student has slowly evolved from a teacher-activated receiver of knowledge into a self-determined team member whose autonomy should be supported. From the student's point of view, the greatest change is in the interpersonal context: co-operative learning, group and pair work, project type teamwork and peer feedback, which change the main collaborator from the teacher into the peer group. However, this social context has not seen an equivalent surge in research (Ushioda 2016). The interpersonal context is often found more decisive than factors under study in research where it is accounted for, yet it often is not. (Dörnyei 2019). This paper aims to target this understudied area by introducing a new term originating from the field of organisational studies: psychological safety. The term describes the feeling of how safe interpersonal risk-taking and participation is and it has been shown to be an integral part of effective teams and organisational learning in adult workplaces. It manifests in asking questions, putting forward novel ideas and asking for help (Edmondson 2003).

In this paper psychological safety will be explored in two ways; first by investigating the concepts already in use in SLA to describe similar phenomena: language anxiety, willingness to communicate (WTC), motivation and teacher leadership at some depth and others by mention to show they are conceptually separate from psychological safety. Secondly these concepts and psychological safety are studied in the field in the form of a questionnaire. The above-mentioned concepts of anxiety, WTC and learning experience in motivation all come conceptually close to psychological safety and the similarity and differences of these concepts are examined in relation to psychological safety as is its viability as a new and useful concept to the field of SLA (second language acquisition). Language anxiety is the personal feeling of worry and unease about learning and using a foreign language; I set to see whether it is merely a polar opposite of the same ideas that are encompassed in psychological safety. Willingness to communicate is about the willingness to put forward at least verbal communication, I set out to explore whether this is similar enough to psychological safety's conceptualization of putting forward ideas to make it reduntant. Learning experience is the subjective context of the language learner being reframed as engagement by Dörnyei (2019), I set out to find whether psychological safety is present in it or perhaps the missing piece in conceptualising learning context. These amount to examining the first and second research questions: 1) How is psychological safety relevant to learning

foreign languages in the classroom: is psychological safety salient in relation to current and established concepts? 2) How is psychological safety linked to motivation in foreign language classrooms?

Teacher leadership, on the other hand, is how the creation of group-level phenomena similar to psychological safety, such as atmosphere, cohesiveness and the like have been studied in the classroom. Nevertheless, while recognised as important, the element of teacher practices are mostly missing from the above mentioned concepts in SLA. At the same time leadership is one of the main antecedents of psychological safety, with a wide base of research in organizational studies (Edmondson and Lei, 2014). The third aim of this study, then, is to explore the relationship of psychological safety and teacher leadership in the classroom. After all, the teacher in a modern classroom is more a facilitator for learning than a distributor of knowledge and skills. (POPS 2014). Indeed, the larger paradigm shift in education and understanding knowledge as constructed *in* the learning context by the participants demand a new understanding of the mechanics of that process from its leader. Psychological safety, I will argue, could have potential in making some of the core elements of this invisible process tangible. This is formulated in the third and last research question: How does the teacher's leadership style relate to psychological safety and current concepts?

The empirical part of the study examines language anxiety, motivation, learning experience, WTC and teacher leadership variables together with psychological safety in a questionnaire. The study was executed in six schools in Southwest Finland and gathered data from 347 student and 7 teacher participants. The students were mostly from 7^{th}-9^{th} grade (13-16 years old) but two groups from high school (mostly16-19 year olds) also participated. The teachers administered the online-questionnaires to their students according to given instructions. The teachers also filled a questionnaire querying background information as well as the same teacher leadership questionnaire items the students filled. The data was then cleaned and analysed in several ways including calculating means and correlations for individuals, groups and years, the results of which inspired a further analysis of variance (ANOVA) and multiple regression analysis for some of the variables.

I will first introduce psychological safety in chapter 2 and then move on to examine the concepts of willingness to communicate, language anxiety and other close concepts in 3. In chapters 4 and 5 I will introduce and examine psychological safety in relation to motivation and teacher leadership respectively. Finally, I will move on to introduce the study, results and a discussion.

2 PSYCHOLOGICAL SAFETY

In this chapter I will first introduce psychological safety as it is understood in organizational studies and then give general reasoning for why the concept could be of value in language learning research. The role of leadership as an antecedent of psychological safety is then examined as a precursor of the later examination of teacher leadership as a potential factor of psychological safety in the classroom. The ideas here are returned to in depth in the subsequent chapters where psychological safety is looked at in relation to each SLA concept.

2.1 The organisational origins and use of psychological safety

Psychological safety originates from the 1960s where it was first introduced by MIT professors Warren Bennis and Edgar Schein as an essential component facilitating organisational change (Schein 1993). It gained new momentum in the 1990s due to William Kahn's seminal paper and the work of Amy Edmondson, the latter which has expanded widely in the study of organisational learning (Edmondson 2014). The current line of research in organisational studies was initiated by William Kahn, who studied summer camp leaders and architects in his influential paper in 1990. He attributed the personal engagement and disengagement of the camp staff and architects (n=32) to three categories of psychological factors: meaningfulness, psychological safety and personal availability. Psychological safety played a strong facilitating role in engagement and a weaker but significant role in disengagement. He also found that psychological safety in his data was affected by four factors: the interpersonal relationships, group and intergroup dynamics, management style and process and organisational norms. (Kahn 1990,708). Kahn's study was qualitative and notably thorough with observation prior to extensive interviews and data-driven categorisation with an independent rater to yield (high) intra-rater validity. Relating his findings which rose bottom-up from the data to both existing constructs in fields of sociology, psychology and organisational studies he opened a new base for research.

The most recent and in-depth work into the construct has been done by Amy Edmondson, whose interests lie specifically in psychological safety as the facilitator of organisational change and learning. Her research into psychological safety over the past two decades encompasses varied organisations, such as hospitals (eg. Edmondson 2004 and Swendiman, Edmondson and Mahmoud 2019), and lately schools (Edmondson et al. 2016). Organisational learning refers to the learning

processes that happen within an organisation, such as hospital staff in the face of new methods and equipment, or optimising customer service paths in a company. These kind of learning processes are deeply dependent on communication and well functioning teams. For clarity, I will refer to this type of learning by its full name “organisational learning” and the type usually connected to learning languages in classrooms as either learning or language learning.

Edmondson bases her theory on the premise that people are essentially “impression managers- reluctant to engage in behaviors that could threaten the image others hold of them” (Edmondson 2003, 255). Upholding this image engages people into personal risk management, evaluating each unfolding situation. If the situation is assessed high risk, engagement in the situation is inhibited whereas if the situation is deemed low risk, participation and personal risk-taking and engagement are increased. Edmondson's concept *personal risk-taking* means those actions where people put themselves at the evaluative mercy of others, such as asking for feedback or questions (the risk of seeming incompetent) or putting forward new untested ideas (the risk of seeming ignorant). As Edmondson points out, these are the kind of actions that facilitate organisational learning and innovation and so losing them can be harmful. In her article *Psychological Safety: The History, Renaissance, and Future of an Interpersonal Construct* (2014) drawing together research from the past two decades she notes that studies show

> considerable support for the idea that a climate of psychological safety can mitigate the interpersonal risks inherent in learning in hierarchies. People are more likely to offer ideas, admit mistakes, ask for help, or provide feedback if they believe it is safe to do so. (Edmondson and Lei 2014, 36)

The model developed by Edmondson (1999, 2002, 2003) situates psychological safety as a mediator of team learning, which in turn affects team performance. These effects on performance and organisational learning do not translate into learning and group work in schools in any straightforward way. A closer look into what organisational learning is, is not and how it might be similar to and different from learning in language classrooms is in order.

Organisational learning is defined as “creating, retaining and transferring knowledge” (Argote et al., 2011). These three processes involve human interaction between individuals and teams in the workplace in such a way that the flow of information enables learning from gained experience and knowledge. This is an obvious difference between learning in the classroom vs. an organisation; the creation, retaining and transferring of knowledge in schools is the main purpose of textbooks and other

materials as well as often explicit and well-planned processes of teaching and studying. Conceptualised like this, there seems to be little in common with learning in the classroom. Diving a little deeper, however, we are reminded that learning in schools and especially in the language class is not the transfer of knowledge but the learning of a *skill*, where new knowledge is indeed created by each individual mind and retained there by practice, and in good language classes created communicatively between peers as well. Edmondson (1999, 353) specifies the processes of organizational learning as ”An ongoing process of reflection and action, characterized by asking questions, seeking feedback, experimenting, reflecting on results, and discussing errors or unexpected outcomes of actions.” A description like this is easy to relate to the language classroom, in fact, it could equally well be a description of the effective processes of language learning. Engagement by asking questions, seeking feedback, experimenting, reflection and discussion are key components of effective language learning, so much so that they are among central study skills included in the Finnish national core curriculum (POPS 2014, 17).

The perspective in the curriculum and teaching in general is, however, exactly that; learning behaviours are skills to be taught and learned. Examining psychological safety provides another perspective, examining how these learning behaviours are enabled and encouraged rather than taught or required. This brings us to one of the key differences that one must keep in mind; teams in adult workplaces are expected to know how to formulate questions, ask for feedback, experiment and reflect whereas these skills are still developing in the younger populace. However, the aspect of enabling (rather than explicitly teaching) could be a fruitful change of mindset at schools as well; even small children are capable of the self-expression so sought after in language classes- when they feel safe to do so.

Another difference, beyond capabilities, are the responsibilities and position or role that students have compared to adults in the workplace. Independent of a workplace, employees are expected to do work for monetary compensation. They are responsible for their engagement and outcomes. This is not true for students and not many students, especially in elementary education, would characterize themselves as the most responsible for their education. Students have traditionally had a more receiving role where they are expected to comply and do set tasks with the teacher being more responsible for their learning outcome. The role of students has been shifting toward greater autonomy and responsibility as well as more pair and group-work. A shift in which the main interaction in the class is also shifting from between the teacher and

students to between peers. (Wheeler 2013). Based on this shift it is of growing importance to dissect individual engagement *within* the group. The difference in roles and responsibilities between working adults and learning children is important to keep in mind, and yet, the narrowing gap between the two is grounds to check perspectives on engagement in the classroom.

While these differences in the role of information flow, student position and ability are important to keep in mind, the learning behaviours have some similarities that I argue might make the classroom as or even more salient for the effects of psychological safety as the adult workplace. While the performance of adult teams in a workplace setting has very different physical activities, the underlying tacit intergroup mechanisms and dynamics exemplified in psychological safety are likely to have even a more central role in less mature environments. Even when good autonomy is reached in the classroom it is not comparable to the kind of self-determination adults have. Maturity gives cognitive advantages in terms of handling interpersonal risk; there are experience and perspective one can turn to whereas students have a framework where they are somewhat at the mercy of the school system. Young people, then, could be even more susceptible to the mostly subconscious evaluations of how safe it is to participate.

The processes involved in organisational learning (speaking up, discussing mistakes, sharing unfinished ideas etc.) are all present in some way in the classroom. Where organisational learning depends on information passing between employees, within teams and with the leader, language learning in the today's classrooms depends on engagement; hypothesis testing, drills and practice between student dyads, groups as well as the teacher. To be effective these actions require the flow of more than the studied information; there is information about how much you can understand and especially what you cannot, information on which tasks should be performed and how, information on what is the point and purpose of those tasks and reflection on how well or poorly one's actions are working in relation to those goals. Teachers cannot teach effectively without information flowing on what the students can understand and students cannot learn effectively without understanding, asking and especially practising. Even when the flow of information is artificial for example in drills or translating given conversations, engaging in them poses a very personal and interpersonal risk of making mistakes leading to embarrassment and feelings of incompetence. This is an important but potentially invisible part of the context of language learning, an issue gaining growing attention in studying foreign language acquisition in the classroom (Ushioda 2009, 2011b, Dörnyei 2019).

2.2 Leadership in psychological safety

While many antecedents for psychological safety have been proposed and examined (see overview in Edmondson end Lei 2014 and Aranzamendez, James and Toms 2015), I will introduce only leadership here as I consider it especially salient for the classroom and examine it closer later in the study. Other issues, however, could also be interesting from a teacher-point of view, such as the proposed contextual antecedents of goal clarity (Edmondson and Mogelof, 2005) and team characteristics and structure (see Edmondson and Lei 2014, 32-33 for an overview). While these are beyond the scope of this study, they could prove to be a fruitful ground for future studies.

Leadership, according to Edmondson (2002,3), is the most effective way of managing psychological safety. On the one hand, the mere “presence of others with more power or status makes the threat of evaluation especially salient” (ibid.) putting team and company leaders at the position where their actions can both facilitate and deter team engagement. Edmondson continues: “but [the threat of evaluation] by no means disappears in the presence of peers and subordinates”(ibid.). The leaders, therefore, have double responsibility in managing psychological safety; one as the manager of their own image as a trend-setter, other as the manager of psychologically safe peer relations of their team. Because of its salience, leadership is the main focus of multiple studies of psychological safety (see for example Walumbwa and Schaubroeck 2009, Detert and Burris 2007, Hirak et al. 2012.)

Leadership is also no stranger in educational research. Leadership studies have already lent themselves to conceptualisations of teacher leadership in the classroom (for example studies on transformational leadership concerning student achievement by Bolkan and Goodboy 2009, to student effort by Walumbwa et al. 2004, and student perceptions of their teachers by Pounder 2008). Again, we have to note that teacher leadership in the classroom is not straightforwardly similar to leadership in adult organisations. For this reason, I chose not to use a ready concept such as transformational leadership for this study but utilise a parental style based classification, an issue I will return to in 5.2.2. To be true to the aim of illuminating psychological safety as it is in organization studies, I will introduce the main conditions of leadership considered to further or precede psychological safety here.

Aranzamendez, James and Toms (2015) drew together 18 studies on psychological safety in an effort to find antecedents. They found that leadership qualities were one of the two main themes found to promote psychological safety. The other theme was covered with the term “network ties” specified as “a positive relationship between the leader and the team member(s)” (p.173). Leader behaviour was examined further and the exact qualities of inclusiveness, trustworthiness, change orientedness and ethical leadership emerged. Inclusiveness means the willingness and actions of a leader to include and positively acknowledge their subordinates contributions in their processes. Trustworthiness is specifically the perceived trustworthiness of the leader as seen by the subordinates. Change orientedness signifies the leader commitment to improvement and communicating it frequently and positively to subordinates as well as valuing their improvement-oriented input. Ethical leadership is based on leadership behaviours that “value honest and truthful relations with their subordinates” (p.175), in other words, leaders who are true to their values also in conflicting circumstances. The study, unfortunately, leaves out some important contributions that offer counter findings; Edmondson and Mogelof (2005), for example, examined 26 innovation teams to find antecedents of psychological. They found that psychological safety varied considerably between teams even within the same organisation, but found no consistent relationship between psychological safety and leadership, suggesting and calling for some unidentified boundary conditions.

In a few year’s newer research, Frazier, Fainshmidt, Klinger, Pezeshkan and Vracheva (2017) performed a similar but wider meta-analysis of 117 studies (136 samples, over 5000 individuals) on psychological safety to compile information of its antecedents and outcomes at both individual and group-level. Antecedents included learning orientation (estimated corrected correlation p^r=.40), positive leader relations (p^r =.39), work design characteristics (p^r =.35) and supportive work context (p^r =.51). Leadership is in some ways present also in the supportive work context as the design of the work and issues such as role clarity are often organised by the leader. Frazier et al. note that understanding positive leader relations call for studies from multiple perspectives as self-reports and reports from subordinates tend to be significantly different. They additionally call, like Edmondson and Mogelof, for more research on the boundary conditions of leadership effects as well as the effects of psychological safety in general (Frazier et al. 2017,147).

Before moving on to examining psychological safety in more SLA related research and terms, it should be noted here that the term “psychological safety” has been

researched in the field of education and pedagogy in a slightly different meaning. The work of Baeva (2002), Baeva and Bordovskaia (2015) and Kulikova (2016) exemplifies a recent strand of research where psychological safety is treated as an environmental and institutional quality relating to the general safety of schools. The concept is defined as “as the protection of participants from threats to positive development and mental health in the process of the pedagogical interaction”(Baeva 2015, 89). This direction of research, while closer to the field of education is farther from the participation and motivation enhancing construct this paper is set out to explore. This research is not therefore utilised here.

3 PSYCHOLOGICAL SAFETY AND SLA

In this part, I will first position the role of contextual factors in SLA and then look at the major concepts of Willingness to Communicate (WTC) and Language anxiety (LA) and how they potentially position in relation to psychological safety. Context in SLA can refer to multiple levels from the micro context of an individual learner to the macro context of the surrounding society and world. The viewpoint also differs according to which field the theories originate from: social theories discuss these issues from individual and societal viewpoints, psychology is more interested in mental processes involving groups, such as identity. SLA has drawn from the social sciences in both research and theory. In the current research, context has changed position from being considered a single factor outside the learner into an interactively constructed circumstance of learning. (Dörnyei and Ryan 2015). Context is seen as both affecting the learner and being affected by them. Furthermore, the effect a learner has on context is two-fold; the learner affects other learners and as such is a part of creating their context but also interprets the surroundings and actions of others through their own meaning-making process. Thus the very same context is different for each learner. For example, the social-political position of a language is far more relevant to a learner that both recognises this position and relates to it positively or negatively than to one who does not. Group processes are more impressive on neurotic personalities and those low in a hierarchy than their more stable and better-positioned peers. (Dewaele 2013; Edmondson and Lei 2014) The factors contributing to a particular situation, then, are both internal and external and actively constructed, fortified and ignored by all participants. The rising viewpoint in research is “individual *in* their context” abandoning the old individual *and* context-view. (Ushioda 2009, 220; Dörnyei and Ryan 2015, 89)

3.1 Willingness to Communicate

The idea of psychological safety introduced in this paper has its perhaps closest relative in WTC or *willingness to communicate*. Originating from the study of communication the term was coined to depict a person’s trait-like (un)willingness to speak. In SLA the trait-WTC concept stirred a good amount of research starting from the late 1980s. The concept was soon realised to have heavily situational factors and the differentiation of *trait* and *state* WTC were introduced by MacIntyre, Clément,

Dörnyei and Noels in 1998 (see their prevalent pyramid model below). State WTC was further developed by Kang (2005), who defines situational WTC in the following way:

> Willingness to communicate (WTC) is *an individual's volitional inclination towards actively engaging in the act of communication in a specific situation*, which can vary according to interlocutor(s), topic, and conversational context, among other potential situational variables. (Kang 2005, 291).

While the trait WTC has had a great impact on the state WTC perspective, I will not examine it closer here due to likely unrelatedness with PS as Psychological safety is a group phenomenon and not an individual trait. Trait and state WTC are so different that some research even suggests that the two have no correlation, but are two different phenomena altogether (Cao and Philp 2006). Reflecting this notable difference, it is the situated or *state* variety of WTC defined above that I will now turn to.

While the state variety WTC might be psychological safety's closest relative in SLA, it is not an identical twin- the two concepts have similarities and differences, of which I will look at the latter first. I argue the separateness of the concepts through three points:

1. WTC is blind to the type of communication
2. WTC encompasses only verbal communication
3. WTC, also the state-type, is understood as an individual rather than a group-level phenomenon.

First, WTC does not discriminate the quality of communication. If psychological safety is considered the willingness to take risks in the line of learning behaviours, such as asking questions, putting forward ideas and sharing disappointments, WTC does not look so much at the quality but the quantity of communication. WTC is often measured as the willingness to speak, or on some occasions, write. This implicit resting on quantity can be especially prominent when state WTC is measured through self-reporting such as in Pawlak, Mystkowska-Wiertelak and Bielak (2016), where state WTC was measured in a self-report scale of -10 - +10, an instrument previously used in a 2015 study by Pawlak and Mystkowska-Wiertelak. The prompt given to the participants in the study ("On hearing a beep, please indicate how willing or unwilling you feel to speak") indicates that willingness to communicate was largely operationalised as willingness to speak. Similar unrecognised or at least unannounced operationalisation as quantity is present in many of the oft-quoted studies of WTC (see for instance MacIntyre 1999, Kang 2005, Khatib and Nourzadeh 2015, Cao and Philp 2006, Macintyre et al. 2001 and Joe, Hiver and Alhoorie 2017)

To balance, there are studies where WTC has been operationalised in quality discriminant ways, such as MacIntyre, Babin and Clément 1999, where one criterion variable was the “ideas presented” in dyadic interaction (yet here too another was the length of time communicated). These were analysed against state WTC, perceived competence and anxiety. Either ideas or time was not found to correlate with state WTC, but with perceived competence in an easy speaking task and with anxiety in a difficult one. On the other hand MacIntyre, Baker, Clement and Conrod (2001) operationalised WTC with questions that specify situations, such as “Speaking in a group about your summer vacation”; “ Read an article in a paper”; “Read letters from a pen pal written in native French” and “ Write the answers to a “fun” quiz from a magazine” (Appendix A) but never utilized the given contexts any further and interpreted the data only by skill, not considering the quality of communication or context.

Furthermore, in WTC high individual quantities of speech are considered desirable. In psychological safety, the amount of communication is subordinate to the quality of it and it is for example the presence of ideas, admitting mistakes or seeking feedback that weigh more than the quantity of them. Where the quantity of communication has been measured in relation to PS, the results indicate that equal amounts of speech between participants are observed in teams of high PS (Edmondson and Lei 2014). Equal amounts of communication between the participants could, therefore, be preferred over high amounts of individual communication.

A second difference between WTC and PS is that PS encompasses the complete willingness to “put oneself out there” by all means feasible in interaction, whereas WTC is used to depict only communication, usually reduced to speech or writing and, relating to SLA, specifically to verbal communication. In this sense, WTC is specific to language and therefore relates well to language learning, especially that of second and foreign language learning where linguistic output is vital. However, nonverbal communication and interaction work to enable (or inhibit) the explicit verbal communication sought after in any language classroom through conveying PS. Psychological safety, therefore, covers partially different and wider ground than WTC. PS encompasses actions, such as seeking feedback (Pearsall and Ellis 2011) expressing ideas and concerns as well as questions of status within a group (hierarchies) (Nembhard and Edmondson 2006). Yashima, MacIntyre and Ikeda (2018) explored this matter in 21 EFL students at a Japanese university to clarify the relationship between trait and state WTC. The study consisted of interventions where discussions encouraging participation were created,

observed, recorded and then analysed to reveal objective measures of amounts of speech, turns and their context. These objective measures were enhanced by interviewing four participants about their reasons and willingness to initiate talk and take turns. These "revealed how differences in the frequency of self-initiated turns emerged through the interplay of enduring characteristics, including personality and proficiency, and contextual influences such as other students' reactions and group-level talk-silence patterns." (Yashima, MacIntyre and Ikeda 2018, 115). Furthermore, they note at the end of their discussion that

> As demonstrated in the analyses, situated WTC is understood as more than the sum of the various enduring variables shown in the lower three layers of the [pyramid] model. Context, including topic, group-level affective state, ambience, other students' reactions, and exquisitely contingent processes interact to trigger fleeting, momentary psychological reactions that include feeling self-confidence and a desire to communicate at a particular moment with a particular person (or persons) - this is the definition of WTC and the final psychological step prior to L2 use. (Yashima et al. 2018, 132)

These results exemplify well the point that psychological safety, or at least something very similar, emerges from dissecting the factors influencing WTC. While this study also rests on the quantity of talk, the closer look at talk-silence patterns link them specifically to quality; students, from their individual viewpoints, talk and are silent for interpersonal reasons as well as to communicate a something they want to communicate rather than wishing to just communicate.

Finally, even state WTC has its roots in the trait WTC, which has guided research from the beginning (Yashima 2012). MacIntyre, Clément, Dörnyei and Noels (1998) created the predominant Pyramid model of WTC (see below) in which both situated and trait factors are combined as a comprehensive outline of WTC. The pyramid consists of six layers. The layers are further divided into altogether 12 parts. At the top is "L2 use**"** at layer 1, preceded by "WTC**"** at layer 2. Layer 3 in the pyramid comprises of "desire to communicate with a specific person" and "state communicative self-confidence". The desire to speak with a person and feeling confident at that moment could both be thought have connecting points with feeling psychologically safe, but rather indirectly. Deeper connections between this model and PS can be seen in layers 5 and 6. In layer 5, there are slots called "intergroup attitudes" and "social situation", apprising the social situation for the aspect of safety as well as sensing attitudes within the group are bot integral in the concept of psychological safety. Yet, there are other aspects to attitudes and situations than safety; there is a connecting point but no equivalent of PS. The slot "intergroup climate" in layer 6 again touches the area of psychological safety. However, what is seen as self-confidence in WTC and therefore relating more to the self and

traits, is conceptualised as forming in the group in PS, specific to both group and situation. It is perhaps a good place to note that while PS could be a part of many of the notions in the model, the concept of psychological safety is specific and does not refer to *all* positive group phenomena and atmosphere. Psychological safety is not the same as self-efficacy or confidence, as efficacy is about perceived and predicted ability to succeed and PS is about feeling safe (to fail), regardless of the ability to succeed. Psychological safety is not the same as trust, as following Edmondson's wording, trust is about giving *your peers* the benefit of the doubt where PS is about believing your peers will give *you* the benefit of the doubt. Psychological safety is not the same as willingness to communicate, as WTC is about wanting to communicate and PS is about feeling safe to do so.

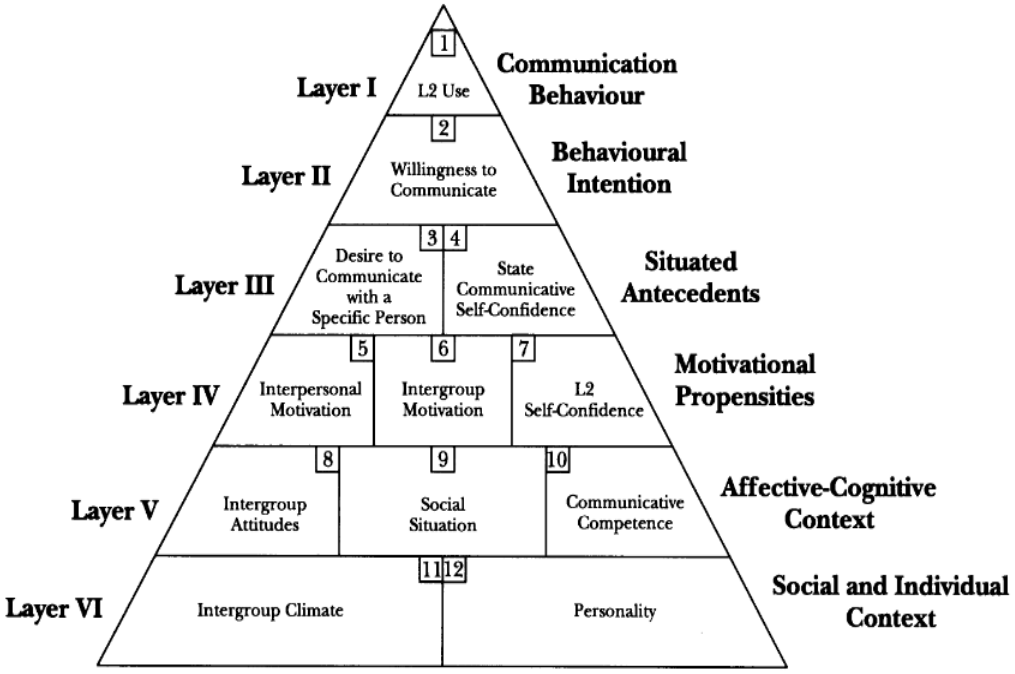


Figure 1 The pyramid model of WTC (MacIntyre, Clément, Dörnyei, and Noels, 1998, 547)

Recent work in WTC has underlined the situated contextual factors and "subtle differences in interaction" (Macintyre et al. 2011, 93) that I postulate might be explained by the participants actively evaluating psychological safety and choosing action (communication) according to their evaluations.

MacIntyre and Legatto (2011) studied WTC from a dynamic systems point of view focusing on the moment to moment fluctuations of WTC as rated by the six participants in a situation resembling an oral examination. The examined points of self-perceived WTC were then further explored by interviews and an assistant's perception of anxiety

in the situation. The fluctuations in WTC were substantial in the short time span examined, an issue not revealed by static self-reports. The reasons for fluctuation as delivered by the participants were situation-specific; dynamically changing according to the changing affect, self-efficacy and ability to retrieve vocabulary among other things. (MacIntyre and Legatto 2011). MacIntyre, Jessome and Burns (2011) similarly found that personal needs guide WTC and language choice when studying 12-14year old French immersion students(N=100) through qualitative self-reports. The most relevant findings relating to the argument here are what they report as "subtle changes in context that affect the authenticity of communication and needs for autonomy, competence, and relatedness" (MacIntyre, Jessome and Burns 2011, 81). The use of language and indeed the willingness to use it emerges as a fleeting, internally evaluated process deeply affected by the interlocutors. MacIntyre et al. arrive at this consideration at the end of their discussion: "Emerging from this discussion of willingness and unwillingness to communicate is a larger theoretical and research question. To what extent can we view WTC as a socially constructed, dialogic process?" (MacIntyre, Jessome and Burns 2011, 93) and go on to note that while individual differences is a useful approach it is "perhaps time to widen the scope" (ibid.) and introduce the social aspects that seem to play key roles. These studies touch on the dynamic quality of WTC that I argue both binds WTC to as well as separates it from psychological safety. While the studies concentrated on individual-level phenomena, the constant evaluation of context and situation are central. In a group, the ongoing group processes can be assumed to play a significant role in this constant evaluation, or even dominate it. Evaluating psychological safety could, then, be hypothesised to be one of the antecedents of WTC and worth examining together with WTC. In this way, psychological safety can be seen to link with WTC. On the other hand, the dynamic fluctuations of volition to speak (WTC) are not the same as the assessment of threat and other's perceptions of self (PS). WTC is, at least for now, individual where PS is unavoidably in the group.

Zhang, Beckmann and Beckmann (2018) examined the situational antecedents of WTC by reviewing 35 studies. Figure 2 below conceptualises a framework emergent from the results. In the image, a four-level classification of situational variants is dealt into objective "situational cues" and individually perceived "situation characteristics" at the bottom two of the levels. The situational characteristics are classified into three areas; support (defined as perceptions of teachers attitude and immediacy") cooperation ("perceptions of peer's participation & contribution") and objectives ("perceptions of task interest usefulness & difficulty"). Notably, two out of three students

perceived situational antecedents as interpersonal evaluations of teacher or student behaviour. Any concept like PS is not used to describe the antecedents, however. Considering how strongly linked these interpersonal contextual variables are, it can be argued that psychological safety could be a valuable addition in conceptualising WTC.

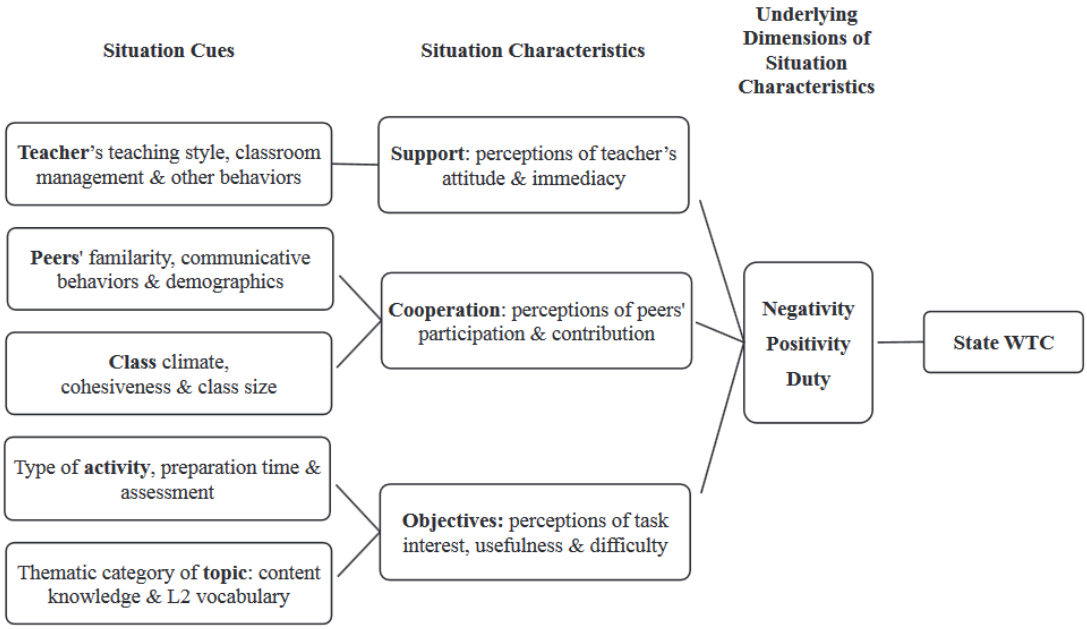


Fig. 1. The proposed framework of situational antecedents of state WTC.

Figure 2 The framework of situational antecedents of state WTC proposed by Zhang, Beckmann and Beckmann (2018, 233).

3.2 Foreign language anxiety and enjoyment

Foreign language anxiety (FLA or LA) can be defined as "the worry and negative emotional reaction aroused when learning or using a second language" (MacIntyre 1999, 27). In this paper the terms foreign language anxiety and language anxiety are used interchangeably. The construct is the most widely studied of all affect factors in SLA and it is considered to have a significant effect on language learning (Horwitz 2010, Ellis 2008). There is some controversy on the direction of the effect with the majority of studies siding a derogative effect of FLA to language learning and use, yet some evidence points to a facilitative quality of FLA (Hewitt and Stephenson 2012, Phillips 1992). The facilitative effect is usually explained with firstly only low accounts of anxiousness and secondly the motivating effect where the initial anxiety and failure cause trying harder to make up for the poor performance. (Ellis 2008, MacIntyre and Mercer 2014). The detrimental effect is based on anxiousness standing in the way of risk-taking behaviour needed in the language classroom, decreasing self-confidence

and efficacy as well as distracting the cognitive process with fight-or-flight response and associated feelings of nervousness, confused thoughts and physical distress.

At a glance, psychological safety seems like the other side of anxiety; a positive wording of the same phenomenon. However, I argue there are two important, base-level differences causing a myriad of implications; firstly the level of the constructs is different and secondly, so is their polarity. The difference in level is perhaps the more profound of the two. Psychological safety is a distinctly group-level phenomenon, whereas FLA is considered an individual attribute. Where psychological safety is both constructed and felt in, and only in, relation to each group and situation, language anxiety has long been studied as a reasonably stable characteristic that an individual carries from one foreign language situation to the next.

The general wave of understanding the language learner as a dynamic entity in SLA has naturally spread into the research of anxiety as well, but even with the goal of measuring and understanding the changes in anxiety, the individual learner can be found at the heart of it. Anxiety has repeatedly been shown to be linked to heavily interpersonal factors, such as competitive mindset and class interactions (Bailey 1983, Gregersen and MacIntyre 2014); fear of negative evaluation or losing face (Horwitz, Horwitz and Cope 1986) and speaking in front of the rest of the class (Woodrow 2006, Kruk 2017), yet the construct is interested in the individual's perception, the fear and anxiety in these situations as a personal, individual phenomenon. The focus is on the fear of the individual, not for example, in the evaluation of the unnamed evaluators.

I will delve a little deeper into this by examining the already mentioned Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale (FLCAS) by Horwitz, Horwitz and Cope, created and validated in their 1986 paper. The scale has been widely used since and is well established with not only the original validation but later reviews and foreign language translations providing further evidence to both the scale and the construct (e.g.Panayides and Walker 2013), with recent work on its cultural as well as language skill-specific reliability in different groups (Horwitz 2016, Park 2014). The scale, at the base of the majority of questionnaire-based FLA studies, is a good example of how interpersonal yet individually concentrated the construct is. The scale is based on the constructs of communication apprehension, testing anxiety and fear of evaluation (Horwitz, Horwitz and Cope, 1986). Out of the 33 questions, 16 name either a native speaker, a teacher or fellow students (“class”) as participants in the described situation, yet the anxiety is considered personal. Items such as “I am afraid that the other

students will laugh at me when I speak the foreign language. "; "I always feel that the other students speak the foreign language better than I do." and "I am afraid that my language teacher is ready to correct every mistake I make." do not claim to measure whether the subject is factually laughed at in the language class, or whether they are in fact of poorer skill or even whether their teacher really is prone to correcting mistakes, but instead the words "feel and afraid" are the ones measured and sum up to the anxiousness that the scales are measuring. In other words, the questions query very situation-specific issues that are likely to draw from real-life experience but attribute these to personal feelings of anxiousness. This irrelative approach to surrounding reality is what separates FLA from psychological safety. FLA is interested in the individual's absolute anxiety and the causes and effects of it whereas PS is interested in the causes of the surrounding interpersonal reality and its effects on the individual.

The second difference between the concepts of FLA and psychological safety is polarity or negative vs. positive stance in terms of goals. Psychological safety describes a positive construct, of what should be aimed at and built to facilitate learning behaviours. In contrast, FLA is, for the most part, to be avoided, a phenomenon to build safeguards against where one hopes to enable effective learning. This is more than a matter of preference or point of view; the absence of fear is not the presence of security. Separating these is a feeling of "no feeling", probably the most common feeling of all, one that is present when nothing very exciting or novel is going on. One does not, then, necessarily actively feel safe when one does not feel threatened. To create a feeling of psychological safety, it is not enough to remove the feeling of anxiousness. A recent overview-study by MacIntyre and Vincze (2017, 61) where they found that "positive emotions are consistently and strongly correlated with motivation-related variables. Correlations involving negative emotions are weaker and less consistently implicated in motivation." is a case in point. A slightly different but equally relevant point was made by Dewaele and MacIntyre (2014), who studied the enjoyment and anxiety in the classroom as the "two faces of Janus" in a large sample of 1746 mostly highly educated 20-30-year olds and concluded their study's "statistical evidence to support the hypothesis that FLE [foreign language enjoyment] and FLCA are different dimensions and not two sides of the same coin" (Dewaele and MacIntyre 2014, 265). They, however, did not emphasise the positive over negative but found that "the ratio of positive to negative emotion might be more important than the presence or absence of either type of emotion." (ibid.).

The abovementioned concept of Foreign language enjoyment (FLE or LE) has risen from the need of positive concepts that depict the facilitative emotions aiding language learning. FLE is defined as “good feelings coming from breaking through homeostatic limits and stretching beyond oneself to accomplish something new or even unexpected, especially in face of some difficult tasks.” (Li, Jiang and Dewaele 2018, 184) In other words, enjoyment is about facing risky situations and having a positive outcome. FLE is much in the direction of what I have argued Psychological Safety might do for SLA, yet I argue they are not identical and there is room for both. The feeling of psychological safety might enable enjoyment, much like I will argue it could enable engagement later in part 4; engagement is needed for the positive experiences producing enjoyment to happen, but engagement can only happen when it is safe. Following this logic, the relationship could well be circular; students must feel safe to participate, and when they do engage and enjoy the experience, they are likely to feel safe to do so again. Inherent in both concepts of FLE and PS is risk. A “sense of novelty and of accomplishment” (Csickzentmihalyi 2008, 46) that marks FLE is tied to situations where failure is possible and maybe feared. Psychological safety is precisely the concept to measure the evaluations of whether others will treat failures well, leading to the willingness to take these risks. Enjoyment comes after, once that decision to engage is made and one succeeds.

Furthermore, the question of this stance is one of growing importance due to the general movement toward facilitative thinking or positive psychology that is also gaining momentum in SLA research. Indeed, the overwhelming concentration on anxiety in SLA affect has been heavily criticized of late and positive terms, including the further research of language enjoyment, are called for (Dewaele et al. 2018, 2019; MacIntyre and Gregersen 2012). In the introduction of a special issue on positive psychology in Studies in Language Learning and Teaching, MacIntyre and Mercer note that “rather than taking a palliative approach to reducing pain or coping with distressing experience, positive psychology seeks to develop tools to build positive emotions, greater engagement, and an appreciation of meaning in life and its activities “ (Macintyre and Mercer 2014, 154). In the same direction, Dewaele and Li encourage to look beyond foreign language enjoyment and to other disciplines for inspiration in their paper “Emotions in Second Language Acquisition: A critical review and research agenda” published earlier this year. Examining the salience of psychological safety is well in line with this agenda and rather than competing with or replacing the construct of language anxiety or enjoyment, it could approach language learning affect from a dynamic, interpersonal and facilitative point of view.

3.3 Peer interaction and group related research on language learning

There have been many conceptualisations around group interaction in language learning. Here I will distinct and briefly explore concepts that touch the area of psychological safety: group dynamics, cohesion and norms. These will not, however, be utilised in the empirical part of the paper as it beyond the scope of the study. They are examined shortly here as one response to the first research question examining close concepts and the salience of psychological safety.

Group dynamics is an umbrella term covering the whole of the continually changing interaction between group members. Research under this term can be about any of the various factors affecting these dynamics such as patterns of collaboration (Sato and Viveros 2016), social sources of motivation and group work as a tool for language practise (Dörnyei and Malderez 1997), or group cohesiveness and norms (Chang, 2010) to mention but a few. While the different factors, as well as terms for group level phenomena, are found in abundance, the terms are often not well established and concepts overlap. In addition to the more established (even still relatively lightly studied) terms of norms and cohesion looked at below, there are some interesting budding conceptualisations of phenomena close to psychological safety. For example, Sato and Viveros examined the collaborative discourse patterns and "interactional moves" (corrective feedback and modified output) of 10th graders (N=53 with focus groups of N=10) in Chile. While their main attention was in proficiency levels they end up concluding that "while proficiency does have an impact on learners' interactional behaviours, *a collaborative mindset-a learner's psychological approach towards the partner and/or task*- may be a stronger mediating factor for L2 development" (Sato and Viveros 2016, 91, emphasis added). A similar idea emerged in a study by Storch (2002), who studied the quality of interaction in 10 adult ESL students for a period of one semester. A category called "collaboration" found in this study is very close to psychological safety. Four categories were drawn based on the two most salient features found in the data: equality and mutuality.

> Equality describes more than merely an equal distribution of turns or equal contributions but an equal degree of control over the direction of a task .[…] Mutuality refers to the level of engagement with each other's contribution. High mutuality describes interactions that are rich in reciprocal feedback and a sharing of ideas. (Storch 2002,127)

Combining the high and low ends of both factors, the four categories included the one that is high in both equality and mutuality, labelled as "collaborative". This category is

described as a “pair working together on all parts of the task” and where learners are “willing to offer and engage with each other’s ideas” (Storch 2002, 128). While psychological safety does not touch on how much the group works together, the engagement and especially presentation of ideas is central. Moreover, the concept of equality presented here is similar to that of Edmondson and Lei’s (2014) notice of equal turn-taking and -giving present in psychologically safe spaces. The idea of mutuality does not distinguish between the type of feedback (unlike cohesion) and the allowance of negative feedback is encompassed as part of the interaction, as it is in PS. Yet it would not be accurate to say that the category of collaboration or the concepts of mutuality and equality are the same as psychological safety. The terms overlap and touch in that PS is of more importance where there are hierarchical relationships and it is manifested in equality and some aspects of mutuality. However, the centrality of risk-taking is missing in these conceptualisations, which, in addition, also only concern dyads. There are more of these kinds of close but meaningfully different conceptualisations than is possible to explore here.

The term group dynamics covers a myriad of phenomena with tentative conceptualisations such as the above, but there are two concepts: *Group cohesion* and *group norms* which are of more established nature. Sometimes also labelled group processes, they seem the most researched of all intragroup phenomena in SLA and they are shortly introduced next.

Group cohesion refers to the feelings of connection, closeness and liking between group members. As with other group-level phenomena, group cohesion is a rather neglected area in the field of SLA, even if language learning does often take place in groups. (Ehrman and Dörnyei 1998, Hinger 2005, Ushioda 2009). The essential difference between cohesion and psychological safety is that where cohesion is based on positive feeling towards others, psychological safety is about the tolerance of negative feelings, or as Edmondson (2004, 243) puts it, giving others “the benefit of the doubt”. Connections or closeness, such as extracurricular relations or friendship, central in cohesion, are also not considered important in psychological safety. More important than positive feelings toward one another is perhaps the absence or handling of negative feelings and a trusting stance. In psychological safety the term ‘safety’ refers to a space where personally risky behaviours are, in fact, not very risky: it is safe to disagree, safe to be frustrated and fail. Cohesion describes the positive feelings, which are then hypothesised to carry over the negative, yet this effect has not been studied. Edmondson purports that it is precisely the ability to tolerate disagreement,

negative feelings and failure that are at the core of psychological safety. However, the concept of group cohesion is not uniform across studies and some conceptualisations come closer to PS than others. At times it is defined as the overarching ability of a group to build and maintain good spirits and engagement (Ehrman and Dörnyei 1998, 251) and at others, it is seen or operationalised as something more specific, such as the level of bonding (Clement, Dörnyei and Noels 1994) or group building utterances (Hinger 2005).

Group norms refer to the often tacit rules of engagement and behaviour in a given group (Dörnyei and Malderez 1997). In one group being late is acceptable whereas in another it is frowned upon; some groups view active engagement in discussion positively whereas in another passiveness seems to be the norm. The formation and maintaining of these norms in a foreign language classroom has been scarcely studied on its own but the concept is used to describe group behaviour in other research on group dynamics. Dörnyei and Malderez (1997, 70) note in their instructional paper that "we should not under evaluate the power of the group: it may bring significant pressures to bear and it can sanction directly or indirectly those who fail to conform to what is considered acceptable" and encourage teachers to make use of this state of affairs. Psychological safety is not a group norm as such, it is not about an agreement of how to function as it is a feeling or condition. We could hypothesize that PS could have links to group norms. Psychological safety could impact the forming of group norms, which in turn might affect the development of PS. For example, if the students do not feel safe in their participation, a norm of passiveness has ideal ground to grow, which in turn impedes the formation of PS. On the other hand, group norms are a concept that could have potential in answering to the above-mentioned calls for boundary conditions for the impact of psychological safety. Take a class that has norms detrimental to learning, say not engaging in written tasks, being absent and not doing homework. These kinds of norms would undoubtedly affect learning even if the group had a decent level of PS.

4 MOTIVATION AND LEARNING EXPERIENCE

Studying motivation in language learning has started before the field of SLA otherwise existed (Ushioda 2011a) and motivation is considered to be one of the most important factors influencing the success of second language acquisition beyond infancy (Richards and Schmidt 2002, 344). While the term seems clear, the scientific definitions are not. Gardner, one of the pioneers of the field, suggests that " [a] simple definition is […] not possible" (Gardner 2010, 8). The definitions available are truly in line, from MacIntyre, McMaster and Baker's (2001, 463) "an attribute of the individual describing the psychological qualities underlying behavior with respect to a particular task" to Dörnyei and Ottó's

> the dynamically changing cumulative arousal in a person that initiates, directs, coordinates, amplifies, terminates, and evaluates the cognitive and motor processes whereby initial wishes and desires are selected, prioritised, operationalised and (successfully or unsuccessfully) acted out (Dörnyei and Ottó 1998, 65).

The definitions are not only abstract, but also lack the terminology used in the later taxonomies created by their authors. There are remarkably few definitions available considering the depth of the field. The quest for a definition will take one to theories and taxonomies of motivation in language learning, of which I introduce the most current below. To give the reader one of the clearer definitions, we need to go back to 1985 where Gardner posits that motivation is "the extent to which the individual works or strives to learn the language because of a desire to do so and the satisfaction experienced in this activity" (Gardner 1985, 10).

Motivation is most often measured as "intended effort", a concept coming from educational psychology and operationalised as "motivational intensity" in the influential Attitude Motivation Test Battery AMTB devised by Gardner (1985). The picture of motivation as intended effort is well described by the name; the questionnaire items, which are widely the same or very similar across studies, address time one hopes to spend studying, the desire to undertake learning tasks and courses and willingness to spend one's free time to study.
In the models below intended effort is a criterion measure against which the motivational components are measured.

4.1. Motivational self-system and the person-in-context models

Motivation in SLA has always been one of the most popular subjects of study, but in the past two decades interest in this area has exploded. Publications have increased manyfold and the field is undergoing a larger paradigm shift. Zoltan Dörnyei, one of the most prolific names in the field, writes in his revision of an anthology from only a decade earlier together with Stephen Ryan: “[I]t is perhaps testimony to the vitality of our field that a book that seemed somewhat provocative in some of its conclusions in 2005 now appears somewhat conservative” (Dörnyei and Ryan 2015, xii). For this reason, I will not aim to comprehensively explore the field, but to introduce two relevant and current models and see how interpersonal context (as related to psychological safety) is conceptualised in them.

Context has been one of the main components in SLA motivation research, yet a curiously neglected one (Dörnyei, 2019) In this part I will shortly introduce Dörnyei’s Self-system, a central motivational theory of SLA, as well as Ushioda’s person-in-context model of motivation. I will also examine how these link to psychological safety through three main points: First how Psychological safety could in part, respond to the increasing need to understand the student in their context as pointed out by Ushioda. Second, how psychological safety might already be present in how learning experience is reconstructed by Dörnyei. Third, how PS could potentially rise to the task of combining motivation and engagement- relevant parts of group dynamics better than the current concepts.

Ema Ushioda (2009, 2011b, 2016) is one of the proponents of the movement toward a more situated understanding of motivation surging in the past decades. She proposes a person-in-context view of motivation that is based on encountering “real persons, rather than - - learners as theoretical abstractions” (Ushioda 2009, 220). The main points of her person-in-context relational view are in the name; motivational research should focus on persons over theorized individuals, as parts of their context rather than only affected by it, thus seeking a relational approach over linear cause-effect systems. While this view can be applied, at least in part, to many research designs since, it is not as much a framework as it is a change of perspective, and as such could even be seen as emergent from the change of the tide in motivational research as well as contributing to it. Ushioda’s conceptualization has been influential (h-index of 23 after 10 years, Web of Science, March 2020) but offers no operationalisable framework as such. Psychological safety could be seen as one operational, person-in-their-context factor worth further examination in this rising tide.

Zoltán Dörnyei has constructed a popular model of motivation called the motivational self-system (Dörnyei 2009). The self-system theory was constructed in 2005, but the ideas are based on the self-discrepancy theory by Higgins (1987) and the possible selves part of the self-theory by Markus and Nurius (1986) from the field of general psychology. The possible selves of the self-theory are conceptualisations of how a person understands their identity. They are of three types: the feared- the ought to and ideal selves (Markus and Nurius 1986). Higgins' self-discrepancy theory states that motivation is drawn from a person's need to strive toward an "ought to self" and the greater the discrepancy between the current self and the envisioned ought to self, the greater the motivation. (Higgins 1987). In the *motivational self-system*- model constructed by Dörnyei motivation is constructed of three main components:

(1) Ideal L2 Self, which is the L2-specific facet of one's 'ideal self': if the person we would like to become speaks an L2, the 'ideal L2 self' is a powerful motivator to learn the L2 because of the desire to reduce the discrepancy between our actual and ideal selves. Traditional integrative and internalised instrumental motives would typically belong to this component.

(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. This dimension corresponds to Higgins's ought self and thus to the more extrinsic (i.e. less internalised) types of instrumental motives.

(3) L2 Learning Experience, which concerns situated, 'executive' motives related to the immediate learning environment and experience (e.g. the impact of the teacher, the curriculum, the peer group, the experience of success). This component is conceptualised at a different level from the two self-guides and future research will hopefully elaborate on the self aspects of this bottom-up process.
(Dörnyei 2009, 29)

In his latest appraisal of the theory, Dörnyei sees the framework as the established base of current L2 motivation research with a substantial amount of research backing it. He also points out that the system has largely replaced integrativeness as a research focus. (Dörnyei and Ryan 2015). However, the research on the self-system, while prolific, has concentrated mostly on the two first ingredients; the ideal and ought-to selves (Dörnyei and Ryan 2015, Dörnyei 2019). Learning experience has received far less and less systematic attention, which is especially interesting in the light of the field moving toward more situated and dynamic models: most research is of language learning situated in a group, yet the research focus has been overwhelmingly on the individual aspects of motivation. This calls for appropriate theorizing and framework, as

well as operational terminology, the kind PS could perhaps offer. For this reason, the third component “learning experience” is returned to in depth below.

4.2. Learning experience, engagement and psychological safety

Considering the idea of psychological safety in relation to motivation, the relationship could be manifold: it could be postulated to be an outcome of motivated learning behaviours, or a characteristic of highly motivated groups, or possibly a fortunate booster of motivation available in cohesive groups. I argue, looking at the (albeit scarce) research on the learning experience (LE) that psychological safety could be an antecedent of motivation and learning behaviours. A condition that must be met before well-motivated, learning oriented behaviours can take place in a classroom. PS could prove to be a group factor that not only frees (as the lack of negative worry) but also encourages and directs the learner's mind to the task of learning. In his report 2019, Dörnyei opens the discussion and research directions for the neglected L2 learning experience, “the Cinderella of the L2 motivational self-system” (Dörnyei 2019, 20), and notes on how many a study examining the self-system finds it is “not only a strong predictor of various criterion measures but is often the most powerful predictor of motivated behavior” (ibid.).

Indeed, there is a good amount of studies with this outcome. Most notable is perhaps the large scale Chinese study of over 10,000 students, where the learning experience was studied under the term “Attitudes towards L2 Learning” and it was found to be the strongest predictor of intended effort, ie. motivation (You and Dörnyei 2016). This result was repeated in all the subsamples drawn from the same dataset (Dörnyei 2019). Another study was done by Csizér and Kormos (2009) in Hungary, where they studied 432 secondary school and university students. The study found that learning experience was the most important antecedent of motivational behaviour in both groups with a strong correlation (.49 for university and .58 for secondary school students, P-values unavailable). However, this study should be mentioned to have a somewhat biased setting where causal relationships were only examined one way to provide foundations for a proposed model. The model suggests simplified one-way relationships between such complex phenomena as parental encouragement to learning experience and suggests a similar one-way connection between ideal L2 self and learning experience that are unlikely to stand closer scrutiny. The finding of LE and motivated behaviour, it should be pointed out, remains even counting for these caveats.

Currently, learning experience as a concept is situational, emergent and psychological and as such rather invisible without a framework. Aiming to shift motivation research focus to LE, Dörnyei (2019) suggests that student engagement, a hot topic in educational psychology, could be a fruitful way to conceptualise and operationalise learning experience in more detail. He goes so far as to propose that “the L2 Learning Experience can be **defined as** the perceived quality of the learners’ engagement with various aspects of the language learning process.” (Dörnyei 2019, 25, emphasis added).

There are some studies in the field of educational psychology that have already queried engagement in specifically EFL contexts. For example, Dincer, Yeşilyurt and Noels (2019) studied 412 university students EFL engagement in Turkey. They follow the basic tenets of self-determination theory (SDT) which posits that motivation is based on basic human needs consisting of three core components: perceived autonomy, perceived relatedness and perceived competence (Deci and Ryan, 1985). Motivation, according to the model, is a given when these needs are met. Testing the links between these (dubbed basic psychological needs in their study), perceived teacher autonomy support and engagement, they found that the basic psychological needs (0.67) ($p = <0.001$ throughout) were the most important predictors of engagement (Dincer, Yesilyurt and Noels 2019, 1139). When broken up further, relatedness (.64) was the weakest out of the three individual psychological needs, surpassed by both competence (.91) and autonomy (.85).

While relatedness would intuitively feel the closest concept to psychological safety, taking a closer look into the operationalisation of these concepts proves otherwise. To measure psychological needs, the study employed a short, 12-item questionnaire called AFS-scales by Reeve and Sickenius (1994). The scales give statements in the format of “Activity X makes me feel…” and then asks the participant to rate each claim in a 7-point Likert scale. There are three items for each concept and three filler items. The claims for relatedness are “I belong and the people here care about me”; “Involved with close friends”;” Emotionally close to the people around me” measuring perhaps something closer to group cohesion. In contrast, the items measuring competence (“Capable”; “Competent”; "My skills are improving”) and autonomy (“Free”; “I’m doing what I want to be doing”; “Free to decide for myself what to do”) are both closer to psychological safety than those of relatedness. Thinking of the risk-taking and feeling able to put one's ideas forward aspects of PS it is measured by the questions for autonomy than relatedness in this questionnaire. When looking at psychological

safety's definition of 'believing that others will give you the benefit of the doubt', the questions for competence can similarly be seen to reflect psychological safety as they indeed query what the activity makes you feel like, and feeling psychologically safe is feeling both "competent" and "capable" quite separately from the more objective evaluations of being so. While only postulating, if psychological safety does manifest itself in these items of the questionnaire, the high correlations above (.91 and .85) are truly promising. Psychological safety could be a key concept in explicating student engagement.

Psychological safety, overall, can be seen to be a part of the many concepts describing group dynamics and behaviour that are already inherent in learning experience and motivation studies even before the concept of LE (see for example cohesion and group norms introduced in 3.3.). Examining group cohesion (the strength of relationships between students) among other things, Clement, Dörnyei and Noels (1994) came across a phenomenon very similar to PS:

> Factor analysis of the attitude, anxiety, and motivation scales - - revealed the presence of a relatively independent classroom based subprocess, characterized by classroom cohesion and evaluation. Correlational analyses of these clusters further revealed that, while all subprocesses were associated with achievement, self-confidence and anxiety showed no relationship to classroom atmosphere. (Clement, Dörnyei and Noels 1994, 418).

This is a case in point: while the concept of group cohesion can explain some classroom issues, it can be irrelevant in targeting the exact aspects needed to explain group dynamics that enable learning. Cohesion here lacks the aspect of evaluation present in psychological safety. Psychological safety could prove to target this and other salient aspects with more relevance to motivation than trust, cohesion or group norms.

5 TEACHER LEADERSHIP IN THE MODERN CLASSROOM

Carrying on from learning experience we turn teacher leadership. Here I will first position teacher leadership as an educational concept and then move on to introduce teacher leadership from the viewpoint of class management by introducing transformative leadership, a concept that has already crossed over from the world of business to the classroom. I will then introduce the leadership model based on parenting styles used in the empirical part of the paper.

5.1 Teacher leadership in the modern classroom

A lot has changed in how teachers and students act in the classroom. Teachers were once the single authority in the classroom, obeyed under the fear of punishments such as shaming, extra work, detention or even physical violence like slapping. While recognising this might still be the reality in some places, the general development of pedagogy and understanding of learning has steadily shifted the focus from teaching to learning, from the teacher to the student. The general trend has brought such concepts as ‘student autonomy’, democratic classrooms and cooperative learning, shifting the position of the teacher toward a facilitator of learning. Many of the most crucial learning behaviours of foreign language classrooms today are face-threatening and require psychological safety. Asking questions, asking to repeat and other meaning negotiation (clarification requests etc.), admitting that one does not understand, putting ideas forward, testing language hypotheses are all crucial language learning behaviours (Macaro, Woore and Graham 2016,16) and potentially interpersonally risky things to do in a group. It might not be enough for a teacher in the modern classroom to set tasks or ask for these behaviours, he or she must also manage the interpersonal risk involved in them to achieve student engagement. I will first look at the role of teacher leadership in psychological safety and then move on to short introductions of the current leadership theories in classroom environments and taxonomies in 5.2.

One of the most impactful factors in psychological safety at team-level in Edmondson’s research is leadership as introduced above in 2.2. Leadership has such a strong role because it is the trendsetter for many a group phenomena; the attitudes of leaders toward failure and other risks are often not only understood but also adopted by team members (Edmondson 2002). In addition to tacitly setting attitudes, leaders are in a key position in choosing whether to seek ideas, opinions and cooperation of the team members. These in turn are all actions contributing to the formation of hierarchy and the depth of it. The more hierarchical the system, the more personal risk of losing face

is involved. Fearing risk, in turn, is what inhibits productive engagement. (Edmondson 1999, 2014). In other words, leadership lays both the foundations of psychological safety as much as the need for it through creating hierarchy and other risky norms. While the work of Edmondson referenced above concerns adults in their places of work, the concepts of leadership, hierarchy and group management are not strangers to the discussion of language classrooms.

Zeroing into language classrooms we can see concepts of leadership appear frequently. In their instructional paper Dörnyei and Malderez (1997, 75) explore the best practises and effect of group dynamics in language teaching identifying the role of the leader as the most important. They further postulate that "the teacher embodies group conscience; we can say with some exaggeration that the group's disposition and commitment to the group goals and norms will follow that of the teacher" (ibid.). The parallel between a team leader and teacher position in the language classroom looks straight forward enough, but as the purpose is to see whether the concept of psychological safety would have practical value in the language classroom, it must be looked at a practical rather than at a metaphorical level.

Adults in the workplace are different in their motivations, resources, cognitive abilities, social position and autonomy in comparison to the average language classroom. Unfortunately, any worthwhile examination of these differences at the practical level is beyond the scope of this thesis. Instead of concentrating on these differences the idea of leadership will be translated into the classroom in the form of already existing research that draws from the field of education. The possible caveats of this approach lie in that the application of the concept is practical whereas the translation is metaphorical; we take the name leadership from organisational studies but apply it as the practical concept created in classroom-based studies. On the other hand, this approach avoids the simplistic implementation of concepts resting on research on adults and draws from the long tradition of classroom management research stemming from the study of teachers and their students. Following this, I will now look into leadership as translated to classrooms in order to explore its potential relation to psychological safety.

5.2 Classroom management and teacher leadership styles

Teacher leadership can denote two concepts: a way of organising school leadership by allocating teachers with leadership responsibilities over other teachers and the way a teacher manages or leads their students. In this paper, teacher leadership refers to

the leadership teachers perform in classrooms, with their students as separate from the teacher leadership concerning colleagues and school management.

Teacher leadership, while often recognised as important in SLA, has been very little studied (Greenier and Whitehead 2016, MacGee et al. 2015). Moreover, when it has been studied, the viewpoint has been that of teachers rather than learners (Whitehead and Greenier 2019). In this paper, I aim to include the student perspective. Teacher leadership within the classroom can be approached through many different points of view and their chosen concepts; we can dive into classroom management, such as democratic classroom practices stemming from education, or go over the long line of leadership research from other areas, such as transformational, authentic and distributed leadership originating from business and political leadership studies or turn toward leadership classification adopted from the study of parenting styles. As it is not in the scope of this paper to explore the whole of this diverse field, I will introduce transformative leadership and the more recent concepts that have come to be often mentioned in the same studies; authentic and servant leadership. They are the most popular conceptualisations found in the (albeit scarce) papers about teacher leadership in the SLA context. I will then move on to briefly introduce the parenting style-based leadership model which is also at the base of the questionnaire used in the study. To understand why I have chosen the parenting style model instead of the more established conceptualisations, one must first understand the approach behind those concepts.

5.2.1Transformational leadership

The connotational roots of Transformational leadership lie in the diverse and multidisciplinary field of leadership studies (Connelly and Gooty 2015) and the work of Avolio and Bass from the 1980s onward. There is not one, clear definition of transformational leadership, but ideas of (a shared) vision, inspirational motivation and charisma and morals are present in most. The concept has been transferred to studies in classrooms mostly without psychometrically sound adaptation (Khany and Khasemi, 2019), using the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ) developed by Bass et al. (1985, revised last 2015) or at least the basic tenets of the Full Range Leadership (FRL) model it explores. Pounder (2004) has created an adapted version of the MLQ for (university) classrooms; the Classroom Leadership instrument or CLI but it has not been validated. The questionnaires query three leadership styles: transformational, transactional and laizzes-faire. If *transformational leadership* behaviour includes motivating, charisma and vision, *transactional leadership* relies on monitoring

subordinates and rewarding or punishing their behaviour whereas *laissez-faire* avoids leading all together, leaving the decision making for subordinates. With this kind of division, it is obvious that the three are not considered equal; transformational leadership is the one to strive for and the one studied with classroom issues such as student achievement (Bolkan and Goodboy 2009), student effort (Walumbwa et al. 2004) and favourable student perceptions of their teachers (Pounder 2008).

Transformational leadership has more recently been joined by similar concepts of *ethical* and *authentic* leadership that include a moral component. The separateness of these from transformational leadership has been questioned (Hoch et al. 2016). An interesting newcomer in leadership studies is s*ervant leadership*, a construct of facilitative, goal-oriented and positive leadership (echoing many of the values impressed on teachers in the new Finnish curriculum (POPS 2014)). Most of the studies on teacher servant leadership, however, have been done at the school management level and not in classrooms (Stewart 2012).

An interesting qualitative study by Whitehead and Greenier (2019) explored student perceptions of teacher leadership in an ELT context in South Korea. The 20 South Korean undergraduate (20-26 years old) participants were interviewed to find out 1) How the students saw their teachers as leaders and 2) What they saw as the characteristics of good teacher leadership. The study brings forward the different leadership models that are usually used with teacher leadership: authentic, transformational, servant and distributed leadership (Whitehead and Greenier 2019, 963). However, drawing together their results they note that " The findings also indicate that learners' ideas about leadership in the language classroom […] are distinct from traditional views of leadership" (Whitehead and Greenier 2019, 960). and that

" What students see as good language teacher leadership seems to have less to do with a teacher's capacity to complete predetermined learning objectives or reach specific learning targets, and more to do with fostering students' interpersonal and intellectual development through positive relationships with their teachers." (Whitehead and Greenier 2019, 977).

While the authors vouch for authentic leadership as the solution, the results can also be read with a less specific indication: Leadership in classrooms relates strongly to interaction and positive interaction at that.

The somewhat established position of transformational leadership and the lack of a valid instrument for classrooms led another pair of researchers, Khany and Khasemi

(2019) to create one, the Teacher Classroom Leadership Scale (TCLS), specifically for the EFL context. In the process of developing the instrument, they drew from the diverse and well-researched base of positive interaction: good interaction is needed, among other things, to motivate students; to create an effective environment for learning; to curtail aggressiveness, to aid social and academic development and to influence classrooms (Khany and Khasemi 2019, 4). The instrument, however, draws fairly directly from the MLQ and the leadership theories behind it (ibid.) and while the process of creation was done thoroughly with observation, peer revision of pool items as well as piloting, the items have their roots in a very different type of leadership and do not respond to the need of positive interaction as it was posited in the very same paper. Furthermore, the TCLS is directed at teachers and has no part to measure the viewpoint of the students.

Thus, while transformative leadership is more established, I argue it is a somewhat poor fit to SLA contexts where the led are the "customer" rather than the employee and they are the true stakeholders in their education, very unlike the premises underlying the full range leadership model and the MLQ questionnaire and its subsequent offspring. I have similar reservations about authentic leadership. The concept is not that far from transformative leadership, but even further from the reality of a classroom. To illustrate I cite two recent papers. One characterization of an authentic leader from Avolio and Gardner (2005) is:

"Those who are deeply aware of how they think and behave and are perceived by others as being aware of their own and others' values/moral perspectives, knowledge, and strengths; aware of the context in which they operate; and who are confident, hopeful, optimistic, resilient, and of high moral character." (Avolio and Gardner 2005, 321)

Another is by Saeed and Ali (2019) where they posit that:

"Authentic leaders are self-aware, transparent in relations, balanced in communication and morally strong (Walumbwa, Avolio, Gardner, Wernsing, & Peterson, 2008). They are knowledgeable (Avolio & Gardner, 2005), true to self (Ridley, 2012), flawless (Spillane, 2005) and are more follower-centered in comparison to most of the recognized leadership models which are more leader- centered" (Saeed and Ali 2019, 172).

While these characterizations are understandable (if still somewhat aloof) in the context of corruption, politics and the general philosophy of leadership across disciplines, they are not the practical and specific conceptual tools needed for EFL classroom research where the study of leadership is only beginning. It is for these reasons I have turned to another theoretical background; one adopting teacher leadership from parenting styles.

5.2.2 Teacher leadership based on parenting styles

In this part, I will shortly examine the prevalent model of teacher leadership based on Baumrind's (1967) parenting style classification and how it has been utilized in classroom research. The most prevalent classification of parenting styles is one based on examining the levels of *responsiveness* (warmth and emotional support) and *demandingness* (high expectations, discipline) originally posited by Baumrind in 1967 and further developed by Maccoby and Martin (1983). The model derives four parenting styles from the two factors of Demandingness and Responsiveness. High responsiveness and high demandingness equal the desired "authoritative" style, separate from the similarly named "authoritarian" style which is high in demandingness but low in responsiveness. Low on both is classified as "indifferent" (also 'negligent'), a category missing from Baumrind's original conceptualisation. High on responsiveness but low on demandingness is considered a "permissive" style (see Figure 3 below for clarification).

The preferred *authoritative* style is characterised by responding to the child's needs and listening to their concerns while also setting age-appropriate demands and following through by control. In a teacher, this might show as giving tasks and controlling their return while also asking for student feedback, or setting difficult homework but offering encouragement and extra support when a student voices a concern. *Authoritarian* style, in contrast, is characterized by similar control but is not responsive to the needs and ideas of the child. In the classroom, this could be setting the difficult homework and not responding to the voiced concerns or even threatening anyone who does not complete it with detention thus leaving the needs of the students unaddressed. *Permissive* style does not ask the child to complete tasks or follow rules, the demands are very low concerning the child's developmental readiness but responsiveness is high too, so the child is listened to and possibly indulgently served rather than responding to exact needs. A teacher following this style would not set a difficult homework, perhaps no homework at all, but would, on the other hand, listen to the students and their ideas of appropriate homework, perhaps letting those opinions rule the class. *Indifferent* is a category added by Maccoby and Martin (1983), originally a part of Baumrind's conceptualisation of the permissive parent. An indifferent style does not concern with the child much at all; it both ignores the needs of the child as well as does not bother to set demands or follow through with them. An indifferent teacher would not set many tasks or follow whether they are completed, but in contrast to the permissive style, they would also not be interested in student concerns about it. In both parenting as well as teaching contexts the authoritative style has been linked to

desired outcomes, such as academic performance, well-being and engagement (Torff and Kimmons 2020, Baumrind 2012). The permissive style can be connected to easiness in academic contexts which can make some students value it over authoritative (Basset and Snyder 2013). The authoritarian style and especially the indifferent style have been linked to negative repercussions, such as aggressive and impulsive behaviour, less independence and poor self-esteem (eg. Baumrind, Larzele and Owens 2010, Walker 2009, Baumrind 2012).

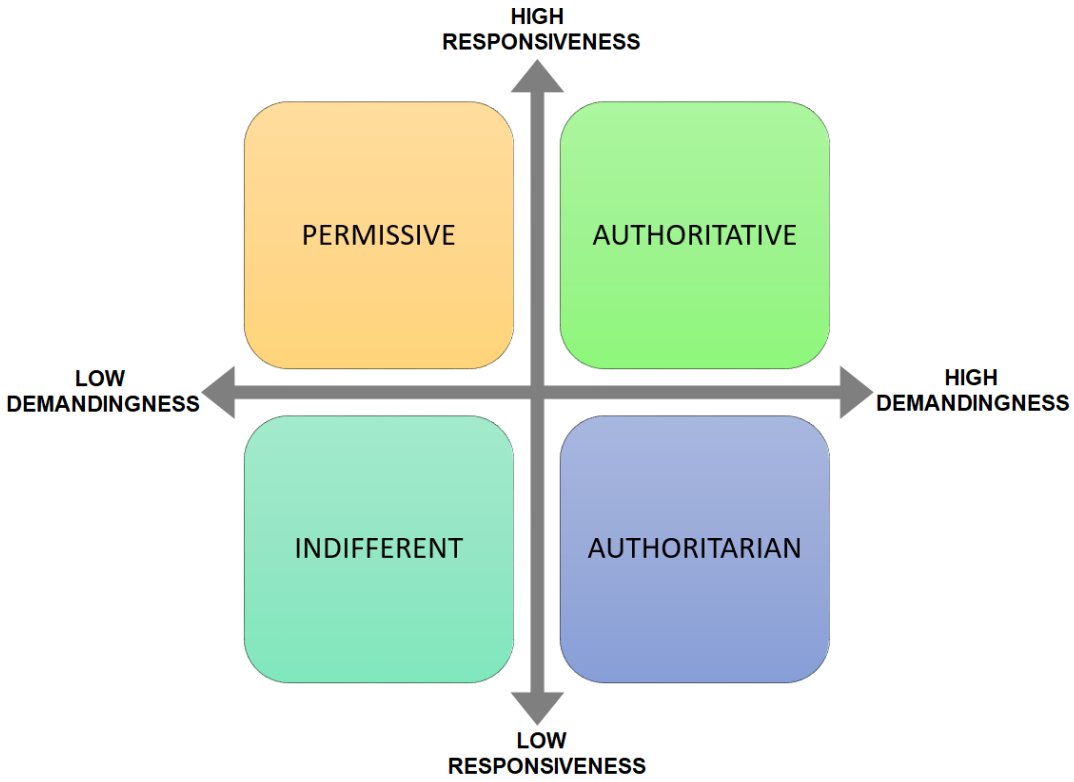


Figure 3 The basic division of parental styles derived from the dimensions of responsiveness and demandingness.

The parental styles-model has been adapted widely to research in general education but not as much specifically in language classrooms. Below I will briefly introduce some studies utilising this approach.

Basset, Snyder, Rogers and Collins (2013) reported the results of two studies utilising student reports (n=191 and 588) of perceived teaching style in two universities. The students were asked about their instructor's style and expected grade. Unfortunately, the execution of the study kept the instructors anonymous which does not allow examining whether students perceive the same instructor differently according to grade expectations. The studies did reveal, however, a significant ($p<0.001$) result in that

students expecting a lower grade perceived their teachers more authoritarian (high demandingness, low responsiveness) whereas those expecting higher grades found their instructors more authoritative or permissive. The studies also measured the matching of the given typologies (permissive, authoritarian, authoritative) to student descriptions of their instructor's teaching styles and found that the descriptions fit the typologies well. The authors conclude that "Baumrind's (1966, 1971) scheme for classifying parenting styles can be meaningfully applied to individual difference in the teaching styles of university instructors" (Basset et al. 2013, 9). Similar findings were encountered by two of the authors in another study in the same year, Basset and Snyder (2013) examined the connection between perceived parenting and teaching styles in 310 university students. They found that the majority (82%) preferred an authoritative instructor, followed by the permissive and that this was not linked to the parenting styles the students had reported.

In a recent study, Torff and Kimmons (2020a) examined how teacher's (n= 272) age, experience, education and gender relates to instructional style. They found that younger, experienced and female teachers were more responsive but that the level of education, surprisingly, did not influence interactive style. Furthermore, the other measured variables "control" and "demand" determining instructive style were not affected by any of the factors indicating that "[f]or the most part, the interactional-style preferences with
which teachers begin their careers align with the preferences they espouse decades on".

Before moving on to the makings of the study at hand and in the spirit of mapping teacher leadership in the classroom, it is worth mentioning that there are other understandings of teacher leadership in the classroom beyond parental styles or business-studies derived models introduced here. One interesting example is Grasha's (1996) model of teaching styles and the associated TSI-questionnaire employed by some recent SLA and English as a foreign language studies (eg. Heidari et al. 2012, Kassaian and Ayatollahi 2010, Hosseini et al. 2014, Faruji 2012, Aliasin et al. 2019). In the model, teachers are classified into five roles: expert, formal authority, personal model, facilitator, and delegator according to how they direct the students and position themselves to the taught information (Grasha 2002). The scale, however, is more concerned with the tasks and taught content than group processes and thus lends itself poorly to the conceptualisation of psychological safety in SLA and was not utilised here.

In conclusion, there are many conceptualisations of leadership in classrooms ranging from the transformational leadership to the offspring of Baumrind's parental styles, yet they seem to not have found their way to SLA. This is curious, as the teacher's essential role is recognised in the formation of language enjoyment, creating effective group processes and enhancing situational willingness to communicate. On the other hand, exploring leadership as such is perhaps straying too far from the very centre of language acquisition. Understanding the importance of keeping focus while appreciating the role of the teacher, a concept such as psychological safety could be a useful tool in combining the relevant parts of leadership to willingness to communicate, enjoyment and engagement. The conceptualisation of leadership requires careful translation from the adult milieus and general education to the specific surroundings of language classrooms. Categories such as inclusiveness, trustworthiness or ethical leadership introduced above in 2.2 could have valuable input to examining teaching styles that facilitate WTC and engagement. Grasha's ideas about task and content related teaching styles and the recent studies could give a base to understanding hierarchy and "work design" (Frazier et al. 2017, introduced in 2.2.). While these are mere speculations and delving into them is beyond the scope of this paper, this scrape at the surface of how leadership could be encompassed by psychological safety in the classroom gives promise of a lost piece in constructing engagement, WTC and enjoyment in SLA.

6 THE PRESENT STUDY

Having discussed the theoretical foundations I will now introduce the research questions and design in 6.1 and 6.2. The selection and use of questionnaire items are delved into in the subchapters of 6.2. variable by variable. In 6.3. the procedures involved in analyzing the data both quantitatively and qualitatively are introduced.

6.1 Research questions

The research questions reflect both the interest toward psychological safety as a potential concept to broach interpersonal context in SLA as well as the seeming myriad of such potential concepts already in SLA. Motivation came to be part of the research questions in slightly different role; instead of looking at the similarities and differences like with the other concepts, motivation was looked at as an indication that psychological safety could be meaningful in SLA through possibly affecting motivation. Encountering the concept of learning experience introduced above, the query of motivation became twofold, exploring the connection of psychological safety to intended effort on one hand and canvassing the potential of learning experience on the other.The following research questions were formulated:

1. How is psychological safety relevant to learning foreign languages in the classroom: is psychological safety salient in relation to current and established concepts?
2. How is psychological safety linked to motivation in foreign language classrooms?
3. How does the teacher's leadership style relate to psychological safety and current concepts?

Question number one was explored through theory and empirically. A wide literature review was performed to find current concepts that might relate to Psychological Safety. More specifically the aim was to see whether the concept of psychological safety was already present in SLA, possibly under another term or as parts of multiple concepts. Once close concepts, such as foreign language anxiety, willingness to communicate, group norms, cohesion, language enjoyment, language experience and teacher leadership, were identified a further examination of the possible similarities and differences ensued. This was taken a step further and the selected concepts of WTC, language anxiety, learning experience and teacher leadership were examined together with psychological safety in both the quantitative and qualitative parts of the questionnaire. The first aimed to reveal correlations and enable regression analysis

between the concepts, the latter to illuminate student understandings of the antecedents of classroom engagement.

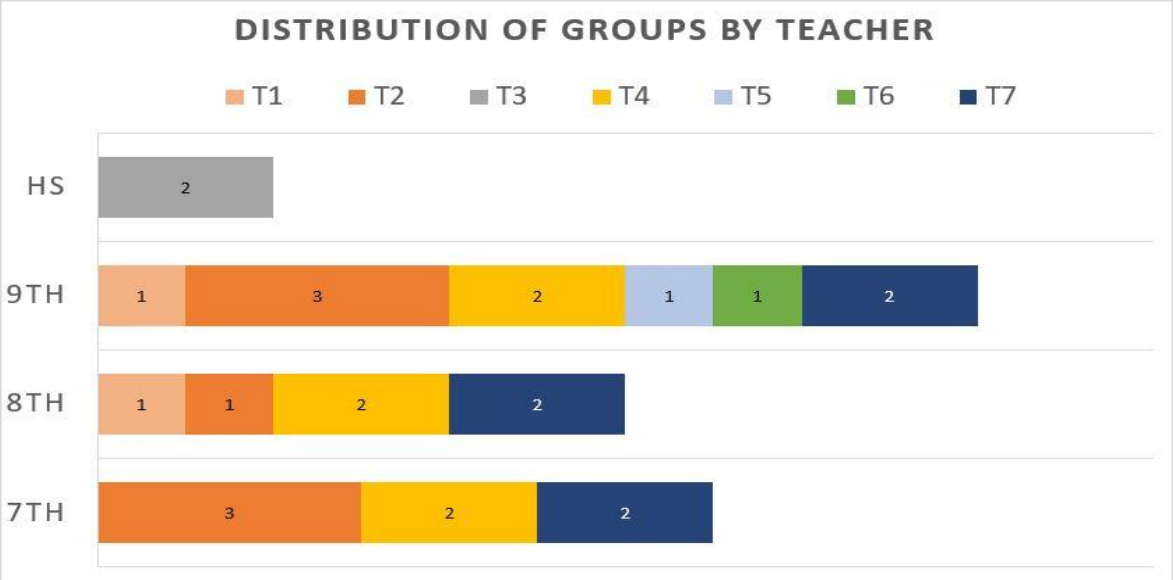
Question two was explored by comparing psychological safety to the prominent model of motivation by Zoltan Dörnyei (2009) called the “motivational self-system” and the general context-related directions of motivation research. This led to querying the relation of psychological safety to learning experience as well as intended effort (later mentioned as “motivation”) quantitatively in the student questionnaire.

Question three was rooted in the central role leadership was attributed in psychological safety research in organizational learning studies. It was investigated first by examining the concepts of teacher leadership in the classroom and FL contexts. A suitable conceptualization based on parental styles was then selected and utilized to examine teacher leadership in the student and teacher questionnaires. The quantitative part of the student questionnaire examined the relationship of the teacher leadership style components (teacher responsiveness, teacher coercive control and teacher demandingness) with the other variables (language anxiety, WTC, learning experience and motivation) emerging from questions one and two as well as with psychological safety.

6.2 Subjects and methods

The subjects of this study were the students (n=333) and teachers (n=7) of six high schools and elementary schools in Finland. The original number of participants was larger (347) but some answers were disqualified because their validity was questionable (for example only choosing the first option across the whole questionnaire) and the above numbers depict the final participants used in analysing the data. The selection process was twofold: first participants were selected randomly by choosing every 40th municipality from a complete, randomised list of Finnish municipalities and emailing their largest schools’ language teachers or principals. A total of 10 schools were contacted in spring 2019 and of these 3 teachers participated. To increase the number of participants an advertisement was placed to a Finnish Facebook group for English teachers from which a further 4 teachers responded. Most student participants were studying in 7th grade (n=88), 8th grade(n=85) or 9th grade (n=122) but two groups of high schoolers (n=38) also participated. The 333 student participants came from 25 classes. The average size of a class was 13 students, the

largest class consisting of 22 and the smallest of 5 students. Figure 4 below shows the distribution of groups according to year and teacher.



HS= high school T= teacher
The number in each colour box indicates the number of groups at that level.

Figure 4 Distribution of groups by year and teacher

6.2.1 Questionnaires and piloting

The study involved two questionnaires, one administered to students and the other to teachers (see appendix A and B). Instructions were sent to the teachers who executed and supervised the questionnaire in their classes. The teachers were instructed in detail to ensure the situation would be unbiased. The questionnaire was online and students used either laptops, computers or their smartphones to fill it. The questionnaire used Google Forms platform which, for some students, turned out to have poor readability on their phone and some answers had to be discarded because of this.

The student questionnaire consisted of three parts and four open questions as well as background questions. The three parts measured 1) psychological safety (eight questions) 2) motivation (six questions), anxiety (four questions), willingness to communicate (four questions) and 3) teacher leadership style (five questions for each; demandingness, coercive control and responsiveness). The questions were taken from questionnaires used in other studies and the most representative questions were used where information of item validity and reliability was available. Some questions were altered and all questions were translated into Finnish which was the language of the questionnaire. Alterations of any kind were made with great care so as not to change

the meaning of the question,as even “minor differences in how a question is formulated and framed can produce radically different levels of agreement” (Dörnyei and Csizer 2012, 76). Because of the fallibility of any one item, the minimum of four (ibid.) was selected per variable. The original questions and their translations are available in appendix C.

The study was piloted in a group of 19 high school students. Feedback from the students led to the reformulation of two questions which the students found unclear. Otherwise, the feedback from the pilot was positive or neutral from both the teacher and the students. The results of the quantitative analysis were in the right direction; for example, the answers to language anxiety correlated negatively with psychological safety, WTC and motivation as expected. The number of participants did not allow for statistical reliability but nevertheless indicated that the questionnaire was suitable for exploring the research questions.

6.2.1.1. Operationalising psychological safety

The first part of the questionnaire querying Psychological safety was altered the heaviest because the questions in the original questionnaire (Edmondson 1999) were written for adults in a workplace setting. Great consideration was used to keep the original meaning of the question intact. A comparison of the original questions and items used in this study are visible in Table 1 below. It should be noted that while the question “Members of this team are able to bring up problems and tough issues” was not utilized in this part of the questionnaire, it was a part of the open questions at the end of the questionnaire. The items were modified to clarify the meaning of the rather abstract terms, such as “risk” or “held against you” used in Edmondson’s questionnaire because while they are clear enough for the adult population they might not be for the younger participants of this study. Instead of using these broad concepts, I have used an example behaviour in an aim clarify and specify the questions but at the possible expense of representing the concept narrowly; instead of the full idea of “risk-taking”, the students were only asked to evaluate how safe it is to “disagree with others”. The described behaviours do, however, represent the key concept of risk in psychological safety and are familiar and understandable for the students. The a and b formulations in questions 4 and 5 were both included in the questionnaire.

Table 1 The translation and transformation of the psychological safety questionnaire

Translations used in this study	Original questions (Edmondson 1999, appendix)
1. Virheitäni arvostellaan ikävään sävyyn toisten kuullen	1. If you make a mistake on this team, it is often held against you.
2. (not translated)	2. Members of this team are able to bring up problems and tough issues.
3. Erilaisuutta ei katsota hyvällä	3. People on this team sometimes reject. others for being different.
4. a) On helppoa sanoa jos ei ole samaa mieltä toisen oppilaan kanssa b) On turvallista sanoa jos ei ole samaa mieltä opettajan kanssa	4. It is safe to take a risk in this team.
5. a) On helppo pyytää apua opettajalta b) On helppoa pyytää apua toisilta oppilailta	5. It is difficult to ask other members of this team for help.
6. Kukaan ei tahallaan vaikeuttaisi työskentelyäni tunnilla tai ryhmätöissä	6. No one on this team would deliberately act in a way that undermines my efforts.
7. Osaamistani ja taitojani arvostetaan	7. Working with members of this team, my unique skills and talents are valued and utilized.

6.2.1.2 Anxiety, Willingness to communicate and Motivation

Language anxiety, willingness to communicate, motivation and learning experience were all queried by four questions each. For *language anxiety* four items were taken from the FLCAS (Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale) by Horwitz, Horwitz and Cope (1986). The FLCAS is an established and widely used, well-validated questionnaire for measuring foreign language anxiety (eg. overview in Horwitz 2010). Questions with the least connection to Psychological safety were used, in other words, questions where peers or the teacher was mentioned were not selected. An example item would be “I never feel quite sure of myself when I am speaking in my foreign language class”.

The four questions for *willingness to communicate* were formulated after MacIntyre et

al. 2001 and Van Batenburg et al. 2019. There are multiple scales for willingness to communicate, including those separating the different modes of speaking, listening, writing and reading. Questions for this part were chosen to reflect situations within the classroom (many of the questions are situated outside the classroom) and only in the mode of speaking. An example item would be “If my teacher asks me a question in English, I am happy to answer”.

Motivation had a two-fold role in the study.; it was examined as an independent as well as a dependent variable. In other words, I was interested to see 1) how motivation as *intended effort* would correlate with psychological safety in comparison with other more established variables as well as 2) see how the *learning experience*-part of motivation would correlate with psychological safety. Intended effort was measured by four questions and Learning experience by another four. The intended effort items were taken from Moskovsky et al. (2016, appendix), an example item would be “I am working hard at learning English.”. The Learning Experience items were from Papi (2010, appendix), and an example item would be “Do you really enjoy learning English?”

6.2.1.3 Teacher leadership

Batista, Weber and Toni (2016) developed the Teacher Leadership Style Inventory or TLSI based on the factors of *responsiveness*, *demandingness* and *coercive control*, a concept denoting aversively controlling teacher behaviour based on the Maccoby and Martin’s 1983-model introduced above in Figure 3. The scale was created for the elementary level. However, the fitness of the model has been explored at higher levels and found filling many of the gaps left by other leadership conceptualisations (eg. Pellerin 2005; Wentzel 2012). The items from the TLSI were used for both teacher and student questionnaires. The items were claims on teacher behaviour eg. “My teacher likes the students” which the student then rates as happening on a three-point scale of “never/rarely”, “sometimes” or “often/ nearly always”. These questions were transformed into another questionnaire filled out by the teachers. The questions were simply changed from “my teacher…” into “I” eg. “I explain that it is important to follow the rules”. The full teacher questionnaire is available in appendix B and the questions used are presented in Table 2 below.

Table 2 Teacher leadership items in the questionnaire

Leadership items	
Translation	**Original question** (Batista et al. 2016, 861-863)
Opettajani pitää oppilaista	My teacher likes the students
Opettajani yrittää auttaa oppilaita kun heillä on ongelmia]	My teacher tries to help when a student says he/she is having problems with the content
Opettajani tulee hyvin toimeen oppilaiden kanssa]	My teacher gets along very well with the students
Kaikki oppilaat ovat opettajalleni tärkeitä]	All the students are important to my teacher
Opettajani on tyytyväinen kun oppilaita kiinnostaa uusi asia]	My teacher likes it when students are interested in new content
Opettajani sanoo oppilaille rumasti tai asioita jotka tuntuvat pahalta *	My teacher says things to the students that they do not like
[Kun oppilaat tekevät jonkin harjoituksen väärin, opettaja saa heidät tuntemaan ikävältä]	When students do an exercise wrong, my teacher makes them feel bad
Opettajani on vihainen oppilaille]	My teacher seems angry with the students
[Opettajani syyttää oppilaita vaikka ei tiedä mitä oikeasti on tapahtunut]	My teacher blame (sic) a student without knowing what really happened
Opettajani huutaa]	My teacher shouts
Opettajani kertoo mitkä ovat luokan säännöt]	My teacher says what the rules are in the classroom
Opettajani sanoo että on tärkeää noudattaa sääntöjä]	My teacher explains that it is important to follow the rules
Opettajani kehottaa oppilaita käyttäytymään hyvin]	My teacher tells the students to be good mannered
Opettajani pyytää oppilaita olemaan järjestelmällisiä tavaroidensa kanssa]	My teacher asks the students to be organized with their materials
Opettajani painostaa oppilaita noudattamaan luokan sääntöjä]	My Teacher pressures the students to comply with the rules

6.3 Data analysis

Of the 346 total responses, 13 were removed leaving 333 usable entries. The data was cleaned by removing severely incomplete entries, identifying mockery answers (such as only choosing answers from the same column) and statistically identifying outliers. Outliers (32) were then looked at more closely, and further 2 responses removed. Some responses were lost to ambiguous group codes although most of these were identifiable with timestamps. Timestamps were also used to identify glitches where identical responses were probably due to going back and resending the response, in these cases, the number of entries exceeded the group size given by the teacher.

The 5 point Likert scales that PS, LE, Motivation, WTC and LA were queried with, were transformed into a number scale of -2 to 2. Here -2 represented “strongly disagree”, -1 “somewhat disagree” 0 “neither disagree nor agree” 1 “somewhat agree” 2 “strongly agree” and “I don’t know” given no value. While this is not a straightforward operation as Likert type items are considered ordinal instead of interval data (Dörnyei 2010, 92), the results are treated as interval data with the obvious note that no psychometric scale will ever reach the exact intervals implied. Teacher style was measured with a three-point scale, also converted to numerical data with “rarely or never” equaling 1, “sometimes” 2 and “often or always” 3. Personal means of the questionnaire items were calculated for all studied variables. These means were then used to calculate descriptive data (means, medians and range) as well as Spearman’s rho correlations between variables across the sample as well as to compare groups, years and teachers. The more advanced statistical testing was given out to be done by statisticians (data was thoroughly coded and anonymised for this). Student responses for three teachers were further examined with one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA), which resulted in a significant difference between the teachers. ANOVA, however, cannot reveal the nature of the relationship (Larson-Hall 2012, 254). To examine the nature of this difference multiple regression analysis was performed on selected variables and models to examine covariance. The other four teachers had too few students to allow for meaningful tests.

Qualitative results from the open questions were analysed in the spirit of content analysis (see Friedman 2012, 191) and responses were themed if a similar idea was mentioned by more than 10 participants. The open questions were not used to compare the qualitative data as that proved to be beyond the scope of this study. The answers contained valuable student views of what is salient in the classroom decisions to engage or not to engage and enriched the quantitative data

7 PSYCHOLOGICAL SAFETY IN THE CLASSROOM

Before looking at the results in detail, I will briefly present a general description of the data and then move on to the quantitative results first according to teacher and group, and then variable by variable until, finally, examining the responses given in the open-ended questionnaire items.

Table 3 Averages, medians and correlations of the core variables

NAME	PSYCHOLOGICAL SAFETY	LEARNING EXPERIENCE	MOTIVATION	WILLINGNESS TO COMMMUNICATE	LANGUAGE ANXIETY
AVERAGE	1,1	0,6	0,6	0,5	-0,6
MEDIAN	1,2	0,7	0,7	0,5	-0,8
CORRELATION PS	1	.37	.34	.48	-.37
CORRELATION MOTIVATION	.34	.88	1	.46	.02
CORRELATION WTC	.48	.53	.46	1	-.56
CORRELATION LA	-.37	-.13	.02	-.56	1
p<0.001 in all significant correlations					
Colour codes:	insignificant	>30	>40	>50	>60

Looking at the overall averages of psychological safety (PS), language experience (LE), motivation, willingness to communicate (WTC) and language anxiety LA (possible range from -2 to 2 for all), students were positive about study in that all averages were in the positive with the median higher than average. Psychological safety had the highest average of 1.1 while WTC had the lowest at 0.5. Language anxiety was low with a mean of -0.6 and median being even lower.

Psychological safety had significant links to all studied concepts ($p<0.001$) in the order of WTC (.48), anxiety (.37), LE (.37) and motivation (intended effort) (.34). While the links are significant, they are not strong enough to suggest a conceptual similarity between the concepts. Overall the correlations between the studied variables of PS, LE, Motivation, WTC and LA were all significantly linked to each other save the curious lack of correlation between anxiety and motivation. Comparing with other concepts, PS had mostly lower correlations than the established concepts of WTC, LA and LE (see

Table 3 above). Moving on to a more detailed account of the results, I will first discuss the data grouped according to teacher.

7.1 Differences by teachers

Seven teachers participated in the study and were coded as T1-T7. To clarify, when reporting results according to teacher, the analysed data is the responses from the students grouped according to teacher, not responses from teachers themselves (which, with 7 participants, would not make for meaning quantitative analysis). Out of the seven teachers, three (T2, T4 and T7) had enough students to perform further statistical tests. I will first look at the overall results across factors, then factor by factor and then delve into each of three teachers' results a little deeper.

Comparing all teachers, we can see that the vast majority of students are positive about their teacher as well as the other factors measured. Averages were positive (or negative/low for the factors of anxiety and coercive control) with all teachers. Below we can see Figure 5 demonstrating this point for the single factor of PS.

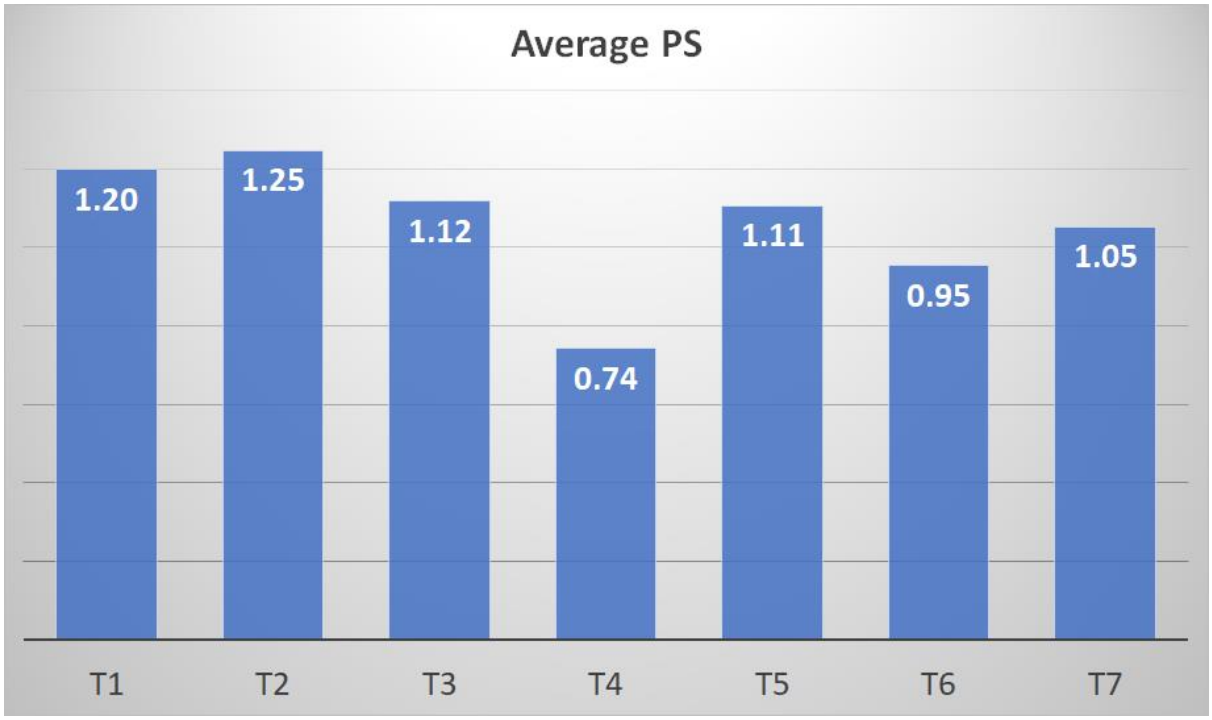


Figure 5 Psychological safety averages according to teacher

Looking at Psychological Safety the teacher averages neared 1 (the possible scale being -2 to 2) with T4 having the lowest average of 0.74 (but with a median of 1) whereas the rest of the teachers had averages ranging from T6's 0.95 to T2's 1.25. As for correlations (see Figure 6) Psychological safety correlated the most with WTC and

LA. All correlations discussed are significant with the p-value below 0.05 unless otherwise stated. T2 had the strongest correlation of .64 between PS and WTC, followed by anxiety (.56). T4 on the other hand had a different pattern in that both LE WTC correlated at .47 but anxiety did not have a significant correlation with only a .21 (p= 0.052). T7 had a correlation of .44 between PS and WTC, .34 with LA and an insignificant (p=0.130) with LE. The patterns between teachers 2 and 7 were similar where T4 was different, this led to an ANOVA test.

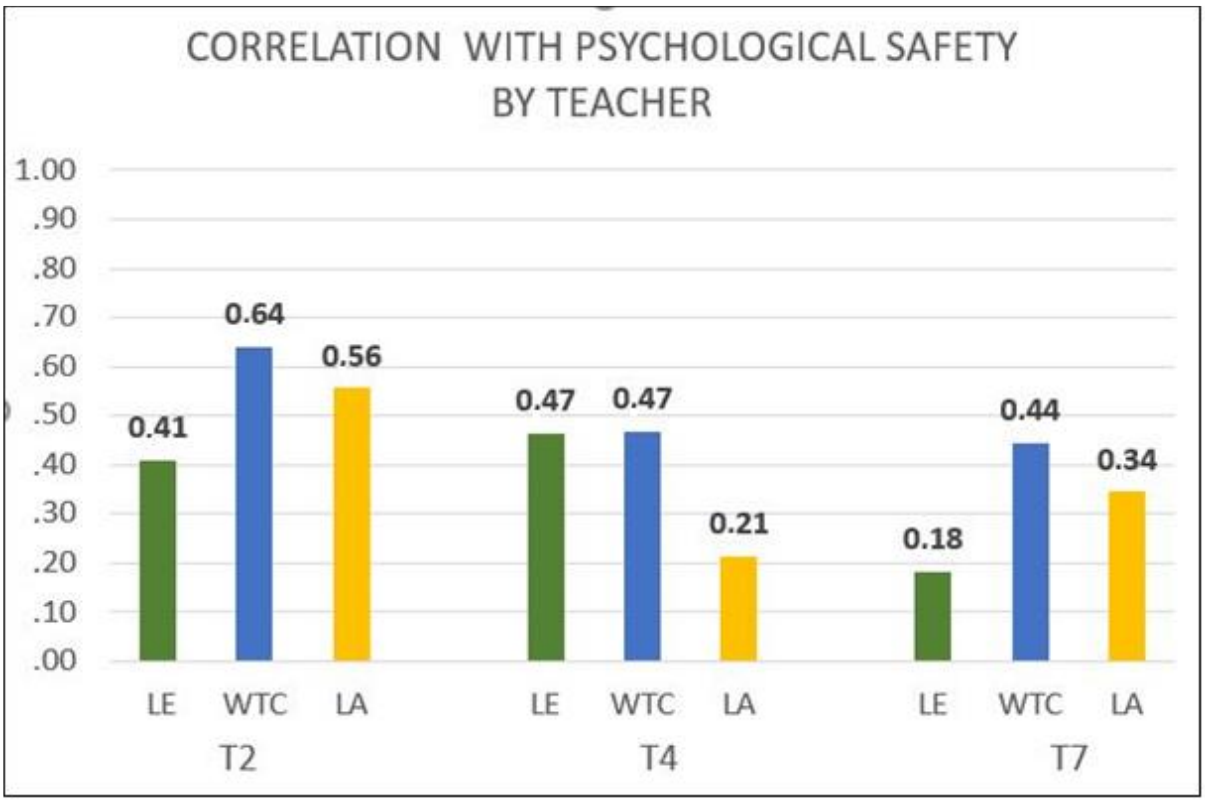


Figure 6 Correlation or WTC, language experience and anxiety with psychological safety by teacher

One way ANOVA was run on the three teachers and psychological safety and it rendered a significant (p<0.001) variation between the teachers. To explore this deeper, multiple regression analysis was performed with the teachers and PS. The analysis showed an R-squared of .07 and an Adjusted R- squared of .06 (p< 0.001) meaning that the explanatory power of teachers of the PS variable is minimal at around 6%. Noteworthy here is that only one teacher, T4, had a statistically significant relation to PS and is practically behind the 6% alone. T4, as stated above, is the teacher with the lowest mean in PS, teacher responsiveness and coercive control and a below average mean in all the rest of the factors. This finding is a counter to the idea posited earlier that psychological safety is more meaningful in its positive form. Then again, the

very low predictive power indicates that overall psychological safety is predicted mostly by other factors.

Further regression analysis was done on the four factors of learning experience, motivation, WTC and anxiety as well as the three leadership components of teacher responsiveness, teacher coercive control and teacher demandingness. The teachers varied in how strong and which factors predicted PS. Table 4 below illustrates how all teachers (meaning the whole dataset) had the factors of WTC and anxiety as significant predictors and LE as well as motivation, all together they explained 28% of PS variation. T2 followed this pattern but with a stronger predictive power of 47%. T7 had WTC as the only meaningful factor with an adjusted R-squared of 0.18. Teacher 4 was again different in that neither anxiety, WTC nor motivation were meaningful and learning environment was the only factor predicting approximately 30% of PS.

Table 4 Multiple regression analysis of PS to WTC, anxiety and motivation by teacher

Teacher	R^2	AR^2	Factors with p<0.05* or p<0.001**
ALL	0.29	0.28	WTC**, ANXIETY**
T2	0.50	0.47	WTC**, ANXIETY**
T4	0.33	0.30	LE*
T7	0.23	0.18	WTC*

Teacher leadership style was also run through multiple regression analysis with the three components of teacher responsiveness (TR), teacher coercive control (TCC) and teacher demandingness (TD) against PS. The only significant (p<0.001) factor here was TR with a strength of R^2 =0.23 and $AR^{2=}$0.20.

7.2 Differences between groups

While grouping the data according to teacher roved to be fruitful ground as described above, the same cannot be said for the individual classes (groups).
The final group sizes of the cleaned data were between 9 and 21 (average 13) not allowing for meaningful statistical analysis of variance and yielding few other interesting results.

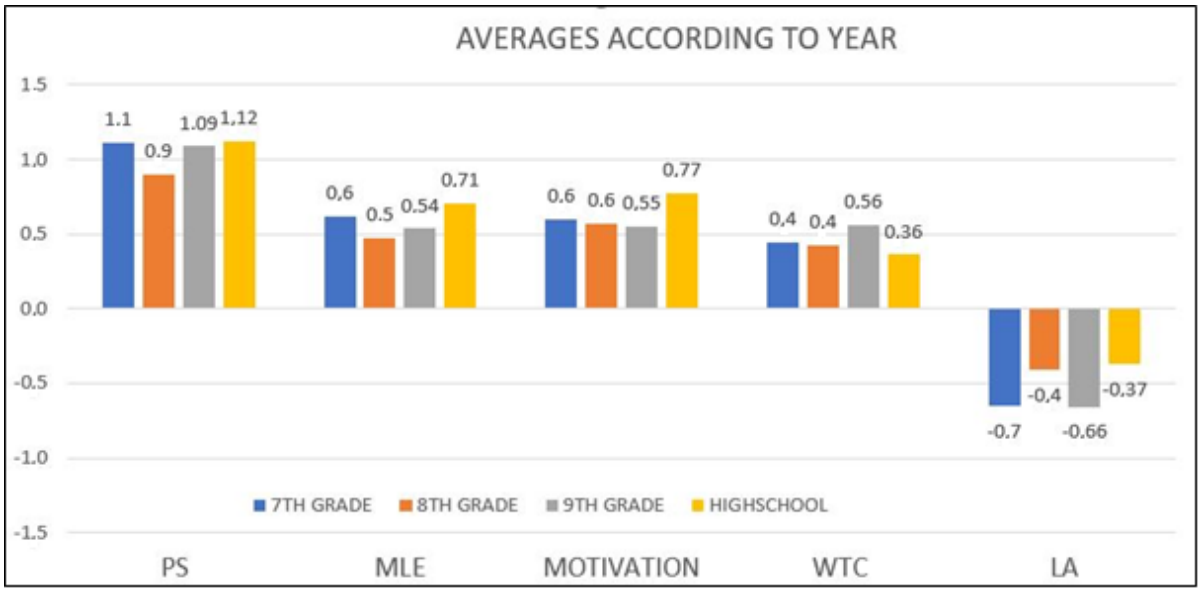


Figure 7 Averages according to year**.**

The averages between years (presented in Figure 7 above) were similar in that the averages differed only by 0.20-0.28. Psychological safety had the highest averages ranging from 0.9 at the eighth grade to 1.12 in high school. The 8th grade 0.9 average differed the most, as 7th grade, 9th grade and highschool all had very similar averages of 1.1; 1.09 and 1.12 respectively. The low PS average of the 8th grade is not very reflective of the year and is due to a split between averages of 1.1 to 1.2 in 4 groups and very low averages of 0.4 and 0.5 in 2 groups. Learning experience ranged from the 8th grade 0.54 to the high school 0.71 with 7th grade (0.6) and 9th grade (0.54) sitting in between.

Motivation followed with similar averages ranging from 9th grade 0.55 to highschool 0.77, now the 7th and 8th grade both averaging at 0.6. Willingness to communicate had the lowest averages with the range from the high school 0.36 to the 9th grade 0.56 and both 7th and 8th grades having an average of 0.4. Anxiety was low overall with a -0.37 high in high school, 8th grade following suit with a -0.4 and 9th and 7th grades forming a notably lower end with averages of -0.66 and -0.7 low respectively.

Looking at the data from a year point of view, the 8th grade had the lowest averages in PS (0.9) and LE (0.5) and low averages in motivation 0.6, WTC 0.4 and LA -0.4. The 8th grade had, however, very uneven groups with the two aforementioned groups pushing down the average of the whole. Nothing of particular interest emerged from correlations and they followed largely the patterns of the whole.

7.3 Differences by variables

Considering the scope of the study choices were made which factors were explored deeper. The data turned attention more toward the four established factors of learning experience, motivation, WTC and language anxiety and less toward the teacher leadership variables which had weak correlations and small differences across the data. The teacher leadership variables are examined at but in less depth than others. I will begin with psychological safety and explore the other variables in relation to it, before briefly presenting some interesting findings between the other variables beginning with motivation and moving on to WTC, learning environment and anxiety.

7.3.1 Psychological safety

Psychological safety was high with an average of 1.05 and a median of 1.2 on a possible scale of -2 to 2. Teachers (student responses grouped according to the teacher) had a range of averages from T4's 0.74 to T2's 1.25. At the level of the whole sample (excluding the leadership factors) PS correlated the most with WTC (.48), language anxiety LA (-.37) and learning environment LE (.37). Motivation correlated with a strength of .34. It should be noted that PS was not the strongest correlation for any of these factors. Language Anxiety, however, correlated weakly($r<+/-.20$) with all other factors except PS and WTC (-.56).

In the regression analysis (see Table 5 below) PS was predicted significantly only by WTC and anxiety (both $p<0.001$) which explained 28% of the variation. For the multiple regression models of the other factors (see Table 5 below) PS predicted significantly($p<0.05$) only WTC which was also predicted by LE and Anxiety with the model predicting 47% of WTC variation.

Table 5 Multiple regression of PS with LE, motivation, WTC and anxiety according to teacher

MULTIPLE REGRESSION OF PS WITH LE, MOTIVATION, WTC AND ANXIETY			
Teacher	R^2	AR^2	Factors with $p<0.05$* or $p<0.001$**
ALL	0.29	0.28	WTC**, ANXIETY**
T2	0.50	0.47	WTC**, ANXIETY**
T4	0.33	0.30	LE*
T7	0.23	0.18	WTC*

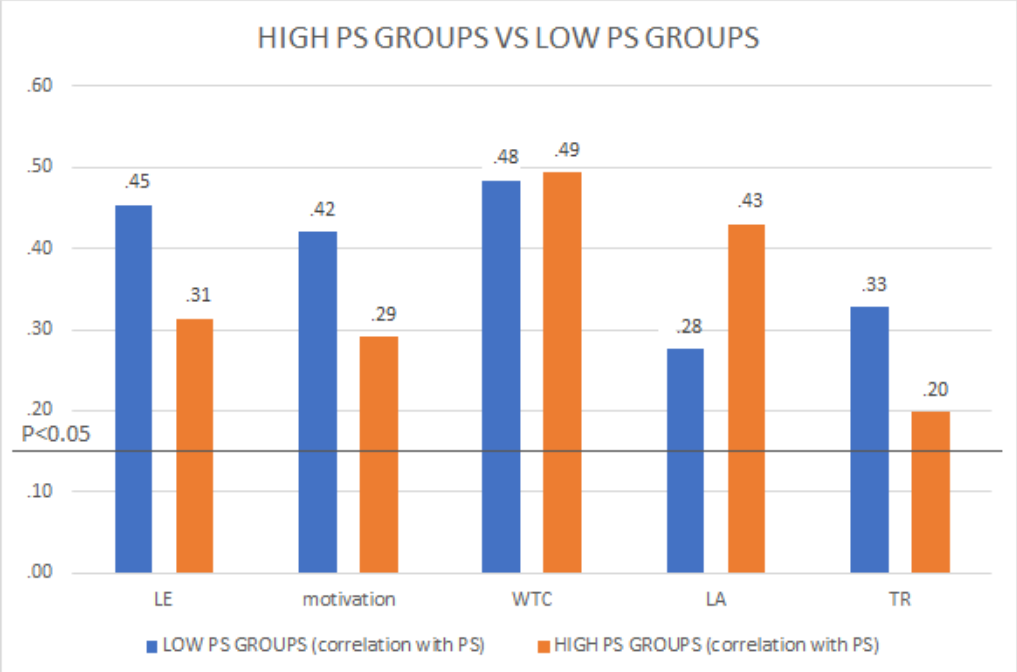
Contrary to the other factors, PS was the strongest correlate for two of the three teacher leadership factors. The Teacher leadership factors correlated weakly overall and the correlation of PS to Teacher Responsiveness (.57) and Teacher Coercive Control (-.45) was with a gap of 0.14-0.21 to the next correlate. Exploring the relationship with regression only TR predicted PS significantly ($p<0.001$) explaining 20% of the variation.

Table 6 Multiple Regression Analysis of Each Factor in Relation to Others

MULTIPLE REGRESSION OF EACH FACTOR IN RELATION TO OTHERS			
VARIABLE	Factors with p<0.05* or p<0.001**	R^2	AR^2
PS	WTC**, ANXIETY**	0.29	0.28
LE	Motivation** WTC*	0.50	0.47
Motivation	LE**, ANXIETY**	0.52	0.49
WTC	PS*, LE* ANXIETY**	0.50	0.47
LA	Motivation** WTC**	0.44	0.40

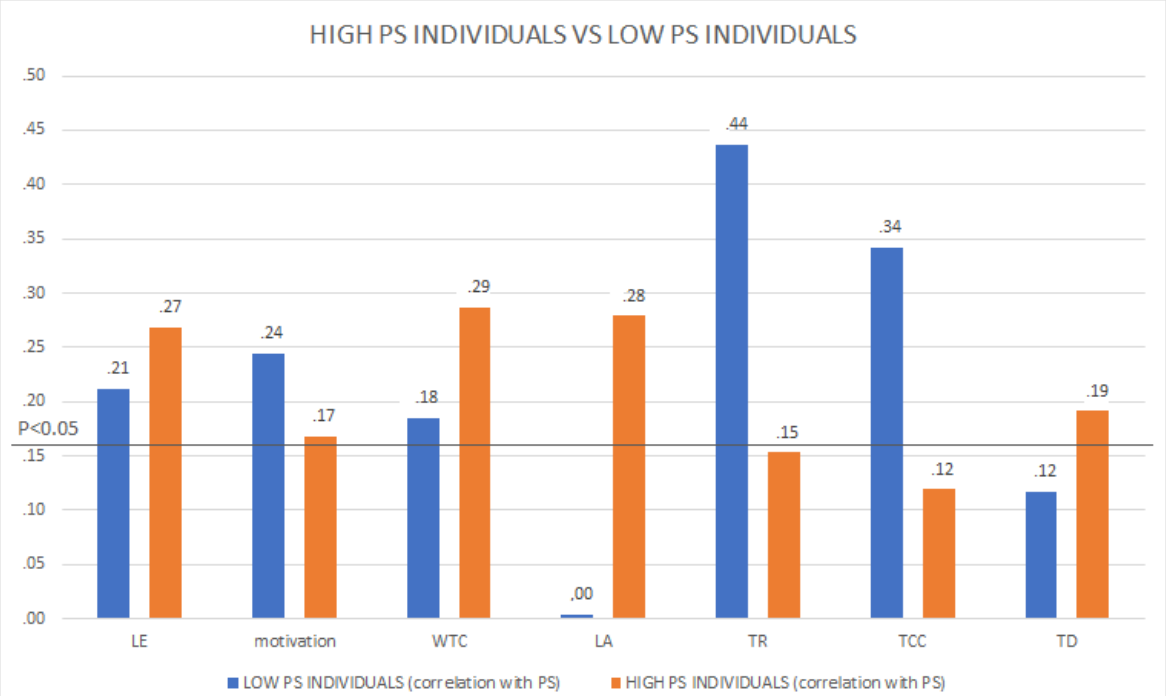
PS averages were used to divide the sample to high (above average) and low (below average) in two ways, by group PS averages and by individual PS score. The group sizes were so small it was impossible to meaningfully correlate groups by the individuals in each. Instead the “high group PS” are the students whose groups had above average PS scores and the “low group PS” are those belonging to groups with below average PS values. High individual PS, on the hand, are those students of the whole sample whose individual PS score was above average and “low individual PS” those with below average means. The “group” combination of individuals can therefore be expected to have more diversity as average PS between the students varies more. On the other hand, those included in the “individual” division can be expected to show stronger correlations (more unity can be expected).

When PS is high (mean above average), it correlates most with WTC, anxiety and learning experience in both groups as well as individuals (also in the same order) but individuals had a very small but significant correlation of 0.19 to teacher demandingness, whereas groups did not (.11 p above 0.05). High PS groups correlated notably stronger with WTC (.49), LA (-.43) and motivation (. 29) than the high PS individuals (WTC .29; LA -.28 and motivation .17) meaning that these factors are linked stronger to PS when PS is high in a group than when PS is high in the individual, counter to expectations. The difference between high and low PS groups did not follow the same pattern: in the low PS groups the strongest and very similar correlation was to WTC with .48 but LE correlated much stronger at .45 (vs .31 in the high PS groups) as did motivation at .42 (vs .29 in the high PS groups). Anxiety did not correlate with psychological safety in the low PS individuals but a -.28 in the high PS individuals; this finding would suggest that anxiety and psychological safety are only linked when PS is above average. See Figures 8 and 9 below for the high and low PS groups and individuals' correlations with the other variables.



LE=language experience, WTC= willingness to communicate, LA= language anxiety, TR= teacher responsiveness, TCC= teacher coercive control and TD= teacher demandingness. TCC and TD had no significant correlations.

Figure 8 High and low PS groups correlations to other variables



LE=language experience, WTC= willingness to communicate, LA= language anxiety, TR= teacher responsiveness, TCC= teacher coercive control and TD= teacher demandingness.

Figure 9 High and low PS individual's correlations to other variables

When PS is low (mean below average) it correlates most with learning experience (LE), motivation and teacher responsiveness (TR) at both individual and group levels but in a different order. In the low PS groups it correlates strongest with WTC (.48); then LE (.45); then motivation (.42) and TR (.33) whereas individuals have the strongest connection to TR (.44), then a negative -.34 link to TCC, then to motivation at .24 and then LE with .21 and no significant connection to WTC (.15 p>0.05). The differences between correlations in the high and low PS individuals are most notably in that the strongest correlations are to completely different factors. The strongest correlation in the low PS individuals was to TR (.44) then to TCC (-.34), then Motivation (.24) and to LE (.21) whereas the high PS individuals had WTC, LA and LE at very similar strength of .29; -.28 and.27 respectively and a weak .19 to TD, hence only sharing one significant factor, LE, with the low PS individuals. This means that low PS individuals and groups go hand in hand with teacher responsiveness where high ones have a much weaker connection to teacher leadership style overall.

The idea presented above that the presence of PS is more meaningful than the lack of it is not supported by these correlations. The claim was not about anxiety or any of these factors as such, as much as learning behaviours not separately measured in the data. However, WTC and motivation can both be thought to include an aspect of these

behaviours and should, then, be more strongly correlated in the high PS than low PS populations, which is not the case. Motivation correlated strongest in the low PS populations with a strength of .42 for groups and .24 for individuals (vs. the .29 and .17 respectively for the high groups and individuals). WTC correlated about the same in the high and low PS groups (.49 and .48 respectively) but somewhat stronger in the high PS individuals at .29 than low (.18).

Differences in the average between high and low populations were larger between the individual high and low than group high and low except for teacher leadership where the differences were, on the contrary, larger or approximately the same size between the group and the individual's populations.

7.3.2 Learning experience, WTC and language anxiety

Learning experience was positive across the sample with an average of 0.56 (median 0.7, scale -2 to 2). The averages had considerable variation between teachers, ranging from 0.15 for T7 to 0.86 for T2. Groups had even more variation with the average ranging from -0.64 to 1.1. Learning experience correlated the strongest out of all factors with motivation with a very strong .88. This was by far the strongest correlation of the whole dataset with a gap of .31 to the other correlations. Other significant correlations were to WTC (.53) and PS (.37). LE was in the top 3 correlations for all in the high/low PS groups and individuals. It had the highest correlation to PS (.45) in the low group PS-sample and the weakest (.21), contrarily, in the low PS individuals. In the regression analysis, 47% of LE variation was significantly predicted by motivation and WTC while the other factors had no significant role.

Willingness to communicate or WTC had a positive average of 0.47 (median 0.71) in the scale of -2 to 2. Teacher averages ranged from 0.11 for T7 to 0.86 for T1 with the lowest and highest group having a -0.23 and 1.06 mean respectively. WTC was relatively strongly correlated with all the factors measured, in the order of anxiety with a negative -.56, LE (.53), PS (.48) and Motivation (.46). In the high and low PS groups and individuals, WTC and PS correlated the strongest out of all factors and approximately the same between the high and low group PS (.49 and .48 respectively) but had a small difference in the high and low individual PS (.29 and .18 respectively). The regression analysis between WTC and other variables showed that 47% of WTC was predicted by three significant factors: PS, LE and LA (negative relation).

Language anxiety (LA) was low across the data set with a negative average of -0.56 (median -0.8) in the scale of -2 to 2. Averages according to the teacher were also low

and in the negative ranging from -0.23 for T6 to -1.23 for T5. Anxiety in the groups followed this trend and stayed in the negative with a high of -0.11 and low -1.37. LA correlated relatively weakly compared to other factors. The strongest relation was to WTC (-.56), then to PS(-.37) and no significant correlation to LE or Motivation (-.13; .02 respectively p>0.05). In the high and low PS individuals and groups, LA had a clear difference between the high and low samples for both. LA correlated at a -.43 strength with PS in the high group PS - .28 in the high individual PS but did not correlate (.00) to PS in the low individual PS and a notably weaker (.28) in the low group PS sample. This indicates that PS and Anxiety are linked when PS is high but not otherwise. Regression analysis between LA and the other variables showed that it was significantly predicted by motivation (positive relation) and WTC (negative relation), the model explaining 40% of the variation.

7.3.3 Motivation and Teacher Leadership Factors

Student motivation had a somewhat positive average of 0.59 (median 0.7) in the possible scale of -2 to 2. Unlike the other factors, the averages were fairly similar across teachers ranging from 0.28 for T7 to 0.90 for T1. Motivation had a very strong .88 positive correlation to LE with a large gap to the .46 with WTC and .34 with PS and no correlation to LA (.02 p>0.05). In the high and low individual and group PS samples, motivation correlated slightly stronger in the low than high samples (.45 /.29 for low/high PS groups and .24 /.17 low/high individual PS respectively). This suggests the relationship between PS and motivation is stronger when PS is low, unlike expected. Regression analysis for motivation showed that 49% of its variation was significantly explained by only two of the factors; LE and anxiety and not by the others. It is notable here that the relationship to anxiety was also positive and it became visible only through the regression analysis; the two factors did not correlate.

Teacher leadership included three variables: responsiveness (TR), coercive control (TCC) and demandingness (TD). The same questions mapping these factors were asked from both the students and teachers from their respective points of view. The teachers and students were very unanimous and their answers correlated between .89 and perfect 1.

The scale was different for these factors and ranges from 1 to 3. Looking at the averages the students found their teachers to be very responsive with a TR average of 2.70 and median of 3, not very coercive with a low 1,28 mean and median of 1 in TCC and moderately demanding with a TD average of 2,24 and median of 2,2. Averages according to teacher varied very little from T4 2.44 to T2 2.77 for responsiveness, from

T4 1,05 to T3 1.05 for coercive control and T3 1.84 to T1 2.39 for demandingness. The pattern for group averages was very similar.

The factors correlated fairly differently with other factors. TR had the strongest correlations overall in the order of negative -.61 with TCC, then .57 with PS, .36 with LE, .33 with motivation and .29 to WTC. Teacher coercive control had also a fair -.45 correlation to PS and a slight -.31 and -.27 to LE and motivation respectively. Teacher demandingness correlated weakly overall. The strongest relationship was between TD and TR at .30 and then WTC at .22. In the high and low individual and group PS sample, the other two variables correlated similarly and weakly with PS but TR correlated relatively strongly (.44) with PS in the low individual PS group and slightly (.33) in the low group PS group but insignificantly (.15 $p>0.05$) or very weakly (.20) in their respective high counterparts. Regression analysis was not done for each of these factors but they were run in a model with PS. The results showed that TR was the only significant leadership factor, explaining 20% of PS variation (R^2 =.23 and Adjusted R^2 =.20).

7.4 Student views of engagement in the classroom

Next I will move on to discuss the responses to the open ended questionnaire items of both student and teacher questionnaires. I will begin with the student responses and then proceed on to teachers.

7.4.1 Students

The four questions in the open section asked the students to

1) Describe in what kind of group would it be easy for you to speak English.
2) Describe in what kind of group it would be easy for you to present your own ideas.
3) Describe in what kind of group would it be easy for you to bring up uneasy issues and problems and
4) What could the teacher do or not do so that you would use more English in class?

The replies to questions 1-3 were very similar by any one person and so they were analysed as a whole, whereas question number 4 was analysed separately. The main themes (over 10 mentions per question) emerging from questions 1-3 were familiarity and friends (188 mentions), acceptance and not judging mistakes (38), good atmosphere/friendly/relaxed (31), level (33): similar level (21) proficient level (12), a group where others speak too (24), in any group (21) and group size (14): small group (11) large group (3).

In asking “What could the teacher do or not do so that you would use more English in class, most left it blank or said they do not know. Of those who did reply, 16 replied that

the teacher was doing all they can and further 30 replied ”nothing” but did not specify a reason. 17 suggested more small group or pair-work and/or speaking exercises. 18 hoped that the teacher would encourage speaking and 10 more wanted to stop pressuring and error correction in front of others. 23 said the teacher could directly tell or even force the students to use more English and 25 more said the teacher should speak only English with some suggesting no other languages should be allowed during class.

There was no clear connection between the teacher informed level differences and open question themes. Some teachers reported their groups to have students ranging from A1 to C2, yet the ideas of a good group, including answers about level, did not differ from other groups where the reported difference was smaller, only ranging from for example A1 to A2. Teacher perceived class atmosphere did not show in the averages of any of the quantitatively measured variables.

7.4.2 Teachers

As only seven teachers participated the answers will not be analyzed according to the teacher to avoid identification. Only 5 out of the 7 teachers replied to the question “What do you think are the most important factors in building good interaction?” No clear themes emerged as each teacher had different ideas. The teachers mentioned allowing everyone to work and learn at their level, discussing issues, spending time together, paying attention to body language and wording, fun activities such as themed days and projects that were planned together and a good sense of humour that responds the humour coming from the students. Those teachers who mentioned body language and monitoring the word choices of their students had students giving direct feedback on this in their open responses; some students felt pressured or uneasy under the watchful eye, hoping the teacher would scrutinize their language less, especially their pronunciation. These teachers also had a clear majority of the groups with below average scores in all of the quantitatively measured variables.

7.5 Limitations

The theoretical undertaking of this paper somewhat exceeds its scope resulting in some noteworthy limitations. Measuring Intended effort, learning experience, WTC and language anxiety as well as the teacher leadership variables by the bare minimum of questions (4-5 questions for each variable) can at best give us an indication of connection. Furthermore, combining so many of the variables in the same questionnaire might have disorientated the students as to what is being asked. The questionnaire as a

whole, while piloted, has not been tested for validity or reliability by any statistical measure. Because of the width of the exploration, the depth per variable is limited, there could, therefore, be research countering some of the findings that has not been considered here.

The execution of the study lied in the hands of the teachers with whom I have not had personal contact (save the ones who wished for anonymised results from their classes and gave their email address for this); any bias in the event of filling and instructing the questionnaire would therefore go unnoticed here. However, contact details in case of any questions or problems were handed together with the detailed instructions and no questions were asked by any of the participants. Any conclusions drawn are not generalisable outside of this sample.

8 DISCUSSION

I will begin this part by restating the research questions, which will then quide us through the central findings of the study. In other words, the results are discussed through and in the order of the research questions:

1. How is psychological safety relevant to learning foreign languages in the classroom: is psychological safety salient in relation to current and established concepts?
2. How is psychological safety linked to motivation in foreign language classrooms?
3. How does the teacher's leadership style relate to psychological safety and current concepts?

The first research question was partly answered by the mapping of possible overlapping concepts in the literature review and the subsequent selection of WTC, learning experience and language anxiety as closer subjects of study. Exploring similarities between the variables also clarified their essential differences. This was important for the validity of the operationalisation of the concepts, as many of the items in the questionnaires overlapped in a problematic way that would have not measured the concepts accurately in this context. This is a finding in itself; elements of psychological safety are embedded in the questionnaires of language experience, foreign language anxiety and WTC but they are attributed to the variable in question or simply ignored as having an effect. For example the foreign language anxiety scale item “I am afraid that the other students will laugh at me when I speak the foreign language.” (Horwitz, Horwitz and Cope 1986) is counted toward anxiety simply ignoring the element of peer interaction and PS inherent in the fact that the answer is bound to be different according to whether sneering at others actually is an issue in the group. Similar items were in all the questionnaires: “Do you like the atmosphere of your English classes?” (learning experience by Papi 2010); “You are confused about a task you must complete, how willing are you to ask for instructions/clarification?” (WTC by MacIntyre et al. 2001); “If my teacher would give the class an optional assignment, I would certainly volunteer to do it.” (intended effort as in Moskovsky et al. 2016). At the minimum psychological safety and the surrounding reality of the group should be seen as an extraneous variable that should be accounted for in such questionnaire items. The literature review, also revealed that interpersonal context is of rising interest in language learning motivation research, as demonstrated by the oft-quoted work of Ema Ushioda (2009) and the reframing of learning experience as engagement by Zoltan Dörnyei (2019).

The quantitative comparisons between the variables of WTC, anxiety, learning experience, motivation and teacher leadership suggest that psychological safety has potential salience in that it correlated significantly with the established factors of WTC (.48), anxiety (-.37) and learning experience (.37). Furthermore, PS was a significant predictor of WTC (together with LE and LA) in the multiple regression analysis and, turning the model around, PS was significantly predicted by WTC and language anxiety. In addition to statistical significance, the finding that psychological safety correlates stronger with WTC, language anxiety and motivation in the high PS groups than in the high PS individuals is toward one of the most frequently made points; psychological safety is a group level phenomenon, where WTC, anxiety, motivation and even learning experience are concentrated in the individual (see in 3.1; 3.2 and 4.2 above).

Psychological safety proved to have the strongest connection with WTC of all the factors, as WTC was the only factor that PS explained in the regression models and WTC and teacher responsiveness were the only significant explainers in the regression models. Here I would like to take the reader back to Yashima, MacIntyre and Ikeda's 2018-study where something very similar to psychological safety emerged from the results and inspired the authors to conclude that dynamic psychological and foremost interpersonal phenomena are the true facilitators of WTC (Yashima, MacIntyre and Ikeda 2018, 132, see paraphrase on page 12 of this paper).

The open questions about a group where it would be easy to participate produced some important themes, such as acceptance by peers and tolerance for mistakes as well as everyone participating that are not directly represented or even accounted for in WTC, anxiety or motivation but are at the very core of psychological safety. The replies show a gap between what is measured and what is hoped for in the classroom; high WTC and motivation, low anxiety and how that is markedly tied to the reality of the peer group and teacher, neither of which are recognised as agents in any of these concepts. These concepts, therefore, lend themselves poorly to addressing the issues they might reveal. PS could help incorporate a wider take of the classroom.

Exploring research question two, the relationship motivation might have with psychological safety, the research led down two roads: one to find a weak but significant link to intended effort (labelled "motivation" in the study) and another exploring the relationship with learning experience, a concept already infused in

motivation research. The correlation link with intended effort did not stand the scrutiny of regression analysis and PS was not amongst the variables that explained its variance. Overall about half of its variance was explained by any of the factors present in this study. However, in splitting the dataset into two halves according to above average PS and below average PS for both individuals and groups, an interesting finding was that the average motivation was ever so slightly higher in the low PS groups than in the high PS groups, whereas the difference was notably larger and polar opposite for high PS and low PS individuals. An image of a demotivated individual might easily encompass the idea that the individual also has low PS, WTC and possibly higher anxiety. The idea that low PS groups have higher motivation and motivation is linked stronger to PS is harder to understand. One explanation could be that in low PS groups motivation plays a stronger part; feeling psychologically safe in these groups might link with a particularly strong motivation therefore turning the tables.

The concept of learning experience, recognized as the most important variable linked to motivation (Dörnyei 2019, see above in 4.2) proved to be that also in this study with a very high correlation of .88. Noteworthy here was that learning experience correlated about at the same strength (.34-.37) with psychological safety as it did with anxiety and WTC. LE was not explained by PS or the other way around in the regression analysis and there the only link travels via WTC, which is explained by both and explains both. Anyone undertaking Dörnyei's suggestion to expand the concept of learning experience and reframe it as engagement could benefit exploring these links to WTC and teacher leadership provided by psychological safety.

Turning to research question three, how psychological safety might link to teacher leadership, the results showed a significant relationship and not merely statistically speaking. Not only did psychological safety correlate significantly with the teacher leadership factors, but it also did so stronger than any other concept. In 5.2. I joined Whitehead and Greenier (2019) in calling to include the student point of view in teacher leadership studies. The results from this study somewhat counter this, as they were very homogenous in their responses with correlations up to perfect 1. Based on this it would be interesting to see similar studies, where the same scale is given to both teacher and students.

As suggested above in 5.2.2, psychological safety could bring together aspects of leadership that are especially important for learning a language in the classroom and which are not well represented in other concepts; the other measured factors had weak

or no link to teacher leadership while PS had significant correlations to both, teacher leadership and the current concepts (WTC, anxiety, motivation and learning experience). Teacher leadership is one of the core elements in any classroom, yet it is not well integrated into the current concepts, which are focused solely on the learner. After all, any research reaches students only through changed teacher practises.

In the above I have explored the salience and possible presence of psychological safety in language learning research and found it has both; it is salient as it could help the current concepts of WTC, learning experience and anxiety encompass context, teacher leadership and engagement and it is already present even if not recognised; as noticed in dissecting the questionnaires that measure the aforementioned concepts. Given the opportunity, psychological safety could perhaps make the abstract and complex interpersonal processes in the language classroom visible and tangible for teachers and students alike, possibly turning a practical leaf in the book of positive psychology in language learning.

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APPENDIX A Student Questionnaire

Please note that the printed form below has the English language instructions absent from the questionnaire given to the students.

Kysely englannin opiskelusta

Hei! Alla on kysymyksiä liittyen englannin opiskeluusi koulussa, omassa ryhmässäsi. Ajattele itseäsi ja omaa englannin ryhmääsi ja opettajaasi.

Opettajasi tai kukaan muukaan koulustasi ei näe juuri sinun vastauksiasi. Opettaja saa koko luokan vastauksista nimettömän yhteenvedon. Vastauksesi siis pysyvät nimettöminä eikä sinun ole pakko vastata. Vastauksia käytetään vain tähän tutkimukseen ja sitten ne hävitetään. Mikäli haluat lisätietoa, voit ottaa yhteyttä tuula.kaila@utu.fi tai 0440879385 (myös WhatsApp)
Kiitos avusta!

* Required

1. Ryhmätunnus (kysy opettajaltasi)

2. Luokka-aste *

Mark only one oval.

- 7. luokka
- 8. luokka
- 9. luokka
- Lukio 1. vuosi
- Lukio 2. tai 3. vuosi

3 Kuvittele, että englanninluokkaasi tulee uusi oppilas tänään juuri kun olette aloittamassa ryhmätyötä. Hän tulee sinun ryhmääsi. Hänen on todennäköisesti (rastita kaikki kohdat jotka ovat mielestäsi totta)

Check all that apply.

- [ ] Helppo sanoa mielipiteensä ja ehdottaa uusia ideoita
- [ ] Helppo osallistua koska muut hymyilevät ja ovat ystävällisiä
- [ ] Helppo osallistua koska muut kysyvät hänen mielipidettään
- [ ] Vaikeaa osallistua koska muutkaan eivät osallistu tai sano juuri mitään
- [ ] Vaikeaa osallistua koska kaikki puhuvat niin paljon
- [ ] Vaikeaa osallistua koska luultavasti joku pilkkaa hänen ideoitaan tai englannintaitoaan

Other: [ ] _____

4 Englannin tunnilla yleensä

Check all that apply.

	Olen aivan eri mieltä	Olen jokseenkin eri mieltä	En ole samaa enkä eri mieltä	Olen jokseenkin samaa mieltä	Olen aivan samaa mieltä	En tiedä
On turvallista sanoa jos ei ole samaa mieltä opettajan kanssa	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
On helppoa sanoa jos ei ole samaa mieltä toisen oppilaan kanssa	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
On helppoa pyytää apua toisilta oppilailta	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
On helppoa pyytää apua opettajalta	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Erilaisuutta ei katsota hyvällä	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Osaamistani ja taitojani arvostetaan	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Kukaan ei tahallaan vaikeuttaisi työskentelyäni tunnilla tai ryhmätöissä	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Virheitäni arvostellaan ikävään sävyyn tai toisten kuullen	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

5 Englannin opiskeluni

Mark only one oval per row.

	Olen aivan eri mieltä	Olen jokseenkin eri mieltä	En ole samaa enkä eri mieltä	Olen jokseenkin samaa mieltä	Olen aivan samaa mieltä	En osaa sanoa
Puhun englantia luokassa mielelläni	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
Mielestäni teen parhaani oppiakseni englantia.	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
Englannin opiskelu on hyvin mielenkiintoista	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
Minua jännittää ja menen helposti sekaisin kun puhun englantia luokassa	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
Vastaan opettajan kysymyksiin mielelläni englanniksi	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
Minua hermostuttaa puhua englantia	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
Minua hävettää vastata kysymyksiin luokassa	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
Teen paljon töitä oppiakseni englantia.	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
Aika kuluu nopeasti kun	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯

. a

opiskelen englantia						
Minulla on hyvin epävarma olo aina kun puhun englantia luokassa						
Haluaisin käyttää paljon aikaa oppiakseni englantia.						
Puhun mielelläni englantia pari- ja ryhmätehtävissä						
Minulle on erittäin tärkeää oppia englantia.						
Voisin kysyä neuvoa luokassa englanniksi						
Nautin englannin opiskelusta						

. a

6. Englannin opettajani

Mark only one oval per row.

	Harvoin tai ei koskaan	Joskus	Usein tai lähes aina
Opettajani kertoo mitkä ovat luokan säännöt			
Opettajani pitää oppilaista			
Opettajani sanoo oppilaille rumasti tai asioita jotka tuntuvat pahalta			
Opettajani sanoo että on tärkeää noudattaa sääntöjä			
Opettajani yrittää auttaa oppilaita kun heillä on ongelmia			
Kun oppilaat tekevät jonkin harjoituksen väärin, opettaja saa heidät tuntemaan ikävältä			
Opettajani painostaa oppilaita noudattamaan luokan sääntöjä			
Opettajani on vihainen oppilaille			
Opettajani kehottaa oppilaita käyttäytymään hyvin			
Opettajani on tyytyväinen kun oppilaita kiinnostaa uusi asia			
Opettajani tulee hyvin toimeen oppilaiden kanssa			
Opettajani pyytää oppilaita olemaan järjestelmällisiä tavaroidensa kanssa			
Opettajani syyttää oppilaita vaikka ei tiedä mitä oikeasti on tapahtunut			
Opettajani huutaa			
Kaikki oppilaat ovat opettajalleni			

tärkeitä

7. Olen tänään

Mark only one oval.

- ◯ Erityisen iloinen
- ◯ Ihan tavallinen
- ◯ Allapäin
- ◯ Ärtynyt

Kuvittele mielessäsi millainen on sinusta hyvä opiskeluryhmä. Vastaa allaoleviin kysymyksiin omin sanoin. Voit myös kirjoittaa palautetta kysymyksestä, jos et esimerkiksi ole varma mitä se tarkoittaa.

8. Kuvaile millaisessa ryhmässä sinun olisi helppo puhua englantia

9. Kuvaile millaisessa ryhmässä sinun olisi helppo esittää omia ideoitasi

. a

10. Kuvaile millaisessa ryhmässä on sinun mielestäsi helppo tuoda esiin vaikeitakin asioita ja ongelmia

11. Mitä opettaja voisi tehdä tai olla tekemättä, että käyttäisit enemmän englantia tunnilla?

. a

12. Osaan englantia mielestäni

Mark only one oval.

- ◯ Huonommin kuin luokkatoverini
- ◯ Yhtä hyvin kuin luokkatoverini
- ◯ Paremmin kuin luokkatoverini

13. Sukupuoleni

14. Oliko kyselyssä jokin kohta mitä et ymmärtänyt tai muuta, mitä haluaisit siitä sanoa?

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APPENDIX B Teacher Questionnaire

Opettajan kysely

Kyselyssä on sekä avoimia että monivalintakysymyksiä. Monivalinnan kysymykset vastaavat sanamuodoiltaan oppilaiden kysymyksiä ja osa niistä koskettaa tabuaiheita, kuten luokassa huutamista tai oppilaiden syyttämistä aiheetta. Kysymysten ei ole tarkoitus olla syyttäviä ja vaikka aiheista ei puhuta, nämä ilmiöt ovat luokissa melko yleisiä. Kysely on täysin anonyymi, enkä näe minkä koulun opettaja tähän vastaa enkä missään vaiheessa edes pystyisi liittämään tutkimusnumeroita nimiin. Saat koosteen oppilaiden kyselystä, jos haluat katsoa omia vastauksiasi suhteessa näihin, voit tallentaa vastauksesi itsellesi esim. printtaamalla tämän lomakkeen. Vastaan mielelläni kysymyksiin sähköpostitse tai puhelimella (myös WhatsApp): tuula.kaila@gmail.com ja 0440879385.
Huomaathan että anonyymiuden takia en pysty vastaamaan lomakkeeseen kirjoitettuihin kysymyksiin tai kommenteihin.

Please note that printed version below has English instructions that were not present in the questionnaire give to the teachers.

1. Tutkimusnumeroni, esim. puhelinnumeroni 5 viimeistä numeroa (kirjoita alle)

2. Jos ajattelet ryhmädynamiikkaa ja henkeä, millaista on opettaa juuri tätä ryhmää verrattuna muihin ryhmiin?

. a

3 1.

Mark only one oval per row.

	En ollenkaan	Melko vähän	Jonkinverran	Melko paljon	Erittäin paljon
Kiinnitän opetuksessani huomiota ryhmän dynamiikkaan	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
Hyvän hengen rakentaminen on osa suunniteltua opetustani	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
Olen saanut vuorovaikutuskoulutusta tai opiskellut taitoja itsenäisesti	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
Row 4	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯

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4 Oppil at luokassa

Mark only one oval per row.

	Harvoin tai ei koskaan	Joskus	Usein tai lähes aina
Pidän oppilaistani			
Kerron mitkä ovat luokan säännöt			
Sanon oppilailleni asioita joista he eivät pidä			
Sanon oppilailleni että on tärkeää noudattaa sääntöjä			
Yritän auttaa oppilaita kun heillä on ongelmia			
Kun oppilaat tekevät jonkin harjoituksen väärin, toimintani saa heidät tuntemaan ikävältä			
Painostan oppilaita noudattamaan luokan sääntöjä			
Olen vihainen oppilaille			
Kehotan oppilaita käyttäytymään hyvin			
Olen tyytyväinen kun oppilaita kiinnostaa uusi asia			
Tulen hyvin toimeen oppilaiden kanssa			
Pyydän oppilaita olemaan järjestelmällisiä tavaroidensa kanssa			
Syytän oppilaita vaikka ei tiedä mitä oikeasti on tapahtunut			
Huudan luokassa			
Kaikki oppilaat ovat minulle tärkeitä			

5 Kuink pitkään tutkimukseen osallistuva ryhmä on ollut koossa (kuukausien tarkkuudella)

6. Onko ryhmän kokoonpanossa tai dynamiikassa jotakin erityistä huomioitavaa mikä saattaisi vaikuttaa tutkimukseen?

7. Millainen kielitaitotasojakauma ryhmässä oman arviosi mukaan on? (esim. A1-B1)

8. Mitä tekijöitä pidät tärkeimpinä hyvän vuorovaikutuksen rakentamiseen? Anna mielellään jokaisesta jokin käytännön esimerkki.

10. Min¨ vuosina olet suorittanut opettajankoulutuksen?

9. Kuinka kauan olet toiminut opettajana yhteensä? (vuosien tarkkuudella)

11. Sukupuolesi

12. Ikäsi

13. Vapaa sana, palautetta (kysely on anonyymi, jos haluat kysyä jotain, lähetäthän sähköpostia tuula.kaila@gmail.com)

APPENDIX C Original and translated questionnaire items

Language Anxiety items	
Translation	Original questions (Horwitz, Horwitz and Cope 1986, 129-130)
Minua jännittää ja menen helposti sekaisin kun puhun englantia luokassa	I get nervous and confused when I am speaking in my language class.
Minua hermostuttaa puhua englantia luokassa	I feel confident when I speak in foreign language class
Minua hävettää vastata kysymyksiin luokassa	It embarrasses me to volunteer answers in my language class
Minulla on hyvin epävarma olo aina kun puhun englantia luokassa	I never feel quite sure of myself when I am speaking in my foreign language class

Willingness to Communicate items	
Translation	Original questions (MacIntyre et al 2001, appendix A)
Puhun englantia luokassa mielelläni	I like to speak English in class.
Vastaan opettajan kysymyksiin mielelläni englanniksi	If my teacher asks me a question in English, I am happy to answer
Puhun mielelläni englantia pari- ja ryhmätehtävissä	I like to speak English when working with a pair or in small groups.
Voisin kysyä neuvoa luokassa englanniksi	You are confused about a task you must complete, how willing are you to ask for instructions/clarification?

Intended effort items	
Translation	Original questions from Moskovsky et al. 2016, appendix

Mielestäni teen parhaani oppiakseni englantia.	I think that I am doing my best to learn English.
Teen paljon töitä oppiakseni englantia	I am working hard at learning English.
Haluaisin käyttää paljon aikaa oppiakseni englantia	I would like to spend lots of time learning English.
Minulle on erittäin tärkeää oppia englantia if end	It is extremely important for me to learn English.
Learning experience items	
Translation	Original questions (Papi 2010, appendix)
Aika kuluu nopeasti kun opiskelen englantia learning experience	Do you think time passes faster while studying English?
Englannin opiskelu on hyvin mielenkiintoista	Do you find learning English really interesting?
Nautin englannin opiskelusta	Do you really enjoy learning English?

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Marraskuu 2020

Psykologinen turvallisuus englannin kieliluokassa: tiimityötä kommunikaatiohalukkuuden, kieliahdistuksen, kielikokemuksen ja opettajan johtajuustyylin kanssa.

Kielen oppiminen luokkaympäristössä on käynyt läpi suuria muutoksia viime vuosikymmeninä. Käsitys opiskelijasta opettettavana tiedon vastaanottajana on muuttunut ajatukseksi itsenäisestä toimijasta, tiiminjäsenestä jonka autonomiaa on edistettävä. Opiskelijan näkökulmasta kenties suurin muutos on kuitenkin vuorovaikutus konteksti: pienryhmä-ja parityöt, projektit ja vertaispalaute ovat vaihtaneet vertaisryhmän kanssakäymisen keskiöön. Muutos ei ole näkynyt vastaavassa mittakaavassa kielen oppimisen tutkimuksessa, vaikka kontekstin merkitys on tullut esille monissa tutkimuksissa alkuperäisiä tutkimuskysymyksiä tärkeämpänä vaikuttimena (Dörnyei 2019). Tämä tutkielma pyrkiikin osaltaan vastaamaan tähän kontekstin tutkimuksen tarpeeseen esittelemällä *psykologisen turvallisuuden* – käsitteen ja tutkimalla sen käytettävyyttä kielen oppimisen alueella.

Opinnäytetyötä ohjaavat seuraavat tutkimuskysymykset:

1. Miten psykologinen turvallisuus liittyy vieraiden kielten opiskeluun luokassa: onko psykologinen turvallisuus relevantti vallitseviin käsitteisiin verrattuna?
2. Miten psykologinen turvallisuus liittyy motivaatioon vieraan kielen luokassa?
3. Miten opettajan pedagoginen johtamistyyli liittyy psykologiseen turvallisuuteen ja vallitseviin käsitteisiin?

Psykologisen turvallisuuden käsitteelliset juuret ovat jo 60-luvulla, Warren Bennisin ja Edgar Scheinin (Schein 1993) organisaatiomuutoksen tutkimuksessa,jossa todettiin että psykologinen turvallisuus on keskeinen muutosta mahdollistava tekijä. Sittemmin käsite on saanut tuulta alleen William Kahnin uraa-uurtavasta tutkimuksesta tiimityön parissa (Kahn 1990), jossa psykologinen turvallisuus niinikään nousi esiin osallistumista mahdollistavana tekijänä. 2010-luvulla psykologinen turvallisuus on jo saanut englanninkielisessä

tutkimuskirjallisuudessa vahvan jalansijan organisaatiotutkimuksen saralla. Tätä työtä on edistänyt etenkin Amy Edmondson, jonka malleihin ja tutkimukseen myös oma tämän työn käsitys psykologisesta turvallisuudesta perustuu. Edmondson on tutkinut psykologista turvallisuutta monipuolisesti, mm. sairaala ja kouluympäristöissä (Edmondson ja Lei 2014, Edmondson 2004, 2016 ja 2019) Edmonsonin työ käsittelee psykologista turvallisuutta organisaatio-oppimisen mahdollistajana. Organisaatio-oppiminen on määritelmältään "tiedon "luomista, ylläpitämistä ja siirtämistä" (Argote ym. 2001, oma käännös) organisaation sisällä, esimerkiksi uusien laitteiden tai työtapojen käyttöönottoa tai vaikkapa asiakaspolkujen hiomista kokemukseen perustuen. Onkin syytä erottaa organisaatio-oppiminen ja kouluoppiminen toisistaan: tässä työssä puhun oppimisesta organisaatioissa nimenomaisesti organisaatio-oppimisena ja kouluissa yksinkertaisemmin oppimisena.

Edmonson määrittelee psykologisen turvallisuuden mm. uskona siihen, että toiset suhtautuvat sinuun hyväksyen ("that others will give you the benefit of the doubt" Edmondson 2004, 243), hän näkeekin ihmiset "vaikutelman hallitsijoina, jotka eivät mielellään tee mitään, mikä uhkaa toisten näkemystä heistä itsestään" (vapaa suomennos, Edmondson 2003, 255). Ihmiset pyrkivätkin hallitsemaan tätä kasvojen menettämisen riskiä; jos ihminen tuntee tilanteessa epävarmuutta siitä, mitä hänestä ajatellaan, hän saattaa jättää ideansa ja huomionsa mainitsematta. Jos taas ihminen kokee olonsa psykologisesti turvalliseksi, hän voi vapaasti ilmaista itseään, kokeilla ajatuksiaan ääneen ja kertoa havaitsemistaan ongelmista. Näin määriteltynä voi helposti kuvitella miten psykologinen turvallisuus on relevantti myös kieliluokassa. Kielenopiskelija joutuu armotta sosiaalisesti riski-alttiisiin tilanteisiin joissa ei ymmärrä, sanoo asioita väärin ja kokee epävarmuutta. Samalla hypoteesien testaaminen ja puhuminen ovat keskeisiä kielen oppimista edistäviä käytöksiä. Kielen oppimisen tutkimuksessa onkin joukko käsitteitä, jotka pitävät sisällään jotakin psykologisen turvallisuuden kaltaista tai ainakin sen osia. Käännyn nyt näiden käsitteiden puoleen ja selvennän hieman kirjallisuuskatsauksen keskeisiä tuloksia siitä, miten käsitteet kenties ovat samankaltaisia, erilaisia tai toisiaan täydentäviä suhteessa psykologiseen tuvallisuuteen. Osa käsitteistä on vakiintuneempia englanninkielisessä kirjallisuudessa ja käytänkin selkeyden vuoksi alkuperäisiä termejä suomennosten rinnalla.

Psykologista turvallisuutta ei käsitteenä tunneta kasvatuksen tai opetuksen, sen paremmin kuin kielen oppimisenkaan tutkimuksessa. Sukellus kirjallisuuteen kuitenkin tuo esille useita määritelmältään läheisiä käsitteitä kuten halukkuuden kommunikoida (Willingness to Communicate tai vakiintuneena lyhenteenä WTC), kielen puhumiseen liittyvän ahdistuksen (Foreign Language Anxiety tai Language Anxiety), motivaation osa-alueita sekä joitakin muita, ryhmädynamiikan (group dynamics) kattotermin alle jäsentyviä käsitteitä, kuten

ryhmän koheesio (group cohesion) ja ryhmän normit (group norms). WTC eli ihmisen jokseenkin pysyvä halukkuus kommunikoida (opittavalla vieraalla kielellä) on alkujaan puheentuottamiseen liittyvä käsite, joka on adaptoitu kielen oppimisen tutkimukseen. Kielen oppimisen alalla käsite sai nopeasti osakseen kritiikkiä siitä, ettei kyseessä ole niinkään pysyvä piirre (trait) kuin tilanteesta toiseen vaihteleva olotila (state) (MacIntyre ym. 1998, Kang 2005) ja mm. Cao ja Philp (2006) pitävät käsitteitä täysin erillisinä ilmiöinä. Psykologisen turvallisuuden kannalta tutkimukseni käsitteleekin WTC:tä olotilana; psykologisen turvallisuuden voi hyvin ajatella näkyvän kieliluokasa juuri kommunikaation lisääntymisenä . Halukkuus kommunikoida eli WTC ei kuitenkaan vaikuta olevan yhtäläinen psykologisen turvallisuuden kanssa. Käyn tätä hieman läpi kolmen argumentin kautta: 1) WTC ei tunnista kommunikaation eri tyyppejä, 2) WTC käsittää vain verbaalisen kommunikaation ja 3) WTC, myös olotilana, käsitetään yksilön ennemmin kuin ryhmän ominaisuudeksi.

WTC:tä eli halukkuutta kommunikoida tutkitaan usein lähinnä halukkuutena puhua ja puheen määränä (ks. Esim. Pawlak, Mystkowska-Wiertelak ja Bielak 2016, Pawlak ja ja Mystkowska -Wiertelak 2015, MacIntyre 1999, Kang 2005, Khatib ja Nourzadeh 2015, Cao ja Philp 2006, MacIntyre ym. 2001 ja Hiver ja Alhoorie 2017). Psykologisessa turvallisuudessa taas eri ole kyse niinkään kommunikaation määrästä, kuin sen laadusta; ideoiden, ongelmien, virheiden ja huomioiden esilletuominen on puheen määrää tärkeämpää. Itseasiassa, se vähä mitä kommunikaation määrää on psykologisen turvallisuuden yhteydessä tutkittu, on havaittu että psykologisesti turvallisissa tiimeissä niiden jäsenet puhuvat suurinpiirtein yhtä paljon; puheen tasavertainen määrä tiimin jäsenten kesken saattaakin siis psykologisen turvallisuuden näkökulmasta olla yksittäisen ihmisen suurta puheen määrää tärkeämpää (Edmondson ja Lei 2014). On kuitenkin tutkimuksia, joissa myös WTC-termin alla on tutkittu myös puheen laatua, (esim.MacIntyre ym. 1999), yhteistä kaikille on kuitenkin tapa operationalisoida halukkuus puhua ensisijaisesti määrän kautta. Kyselyissä usein kuvataan tilanne, mutta tilanteen kuvaus kuitenkin jätetään analyysissa huomiotta ja keskitytään esimerkiksi kielen osa-alueisiin (puhe, kirjoitus, kuuntelu, lukeminen) tilanteellisten vaikuttimien yksilöimisen sijaan.

Toisena huomiona esitän, että WTC pitää sisällään vain verbaalisen kommunikaation. Tämä on ymmärrettävä ja tarkoituksenmukaistakin käsitteeltä, jonka käyttökohteena on kielen oppimisen tutkimus. Kommunikaatio on kuitenkin huomattavan monipuolista ja pitää sisällään paljon muutakin kuin kielen; koska WTC ei käsittele muuta kuin kieltä, siltä jää kenties kielen oppimisenkin kannalta tärkeitä vuorovaikutuksellisia, kommunikoimisen halukkuuteenkin vaikuttavia tekijöitä huomioimatta. Ehdotankin, että

psykologinen turvallisuus voisi valaista näitä tekijöitä kuitenkaan eksymättä liian kauas itse kielen oppimisen aiheesta; jos psykologinen turvallisuus mahdollistaa “itsensä peliin laittamisen” kokonaisvaltaisesti, saattaa se palvella kielen oppimisen tutkimusta WTC:tä laajemmin ja osittain eri alueita koskettaen. Yashima, MacIntyre ja Ikeda (2018) tutkivat 21 japanilaista yliopisto-opiskelijaa, käyttäen erilaisia keskustelupohjaisia inteventioita, niiden nauhoittamista ja vuorojen ja kontekstin analyysia. Tutkimuksen tulokset ovat asian ytimessä:

“Konteksti, mukaanlukien aihe, ryhmätason tunnetila, ilmapiiri, toisten opiskelijoiden reaktiot [...] aiheuttavat hetkellisiä psykologisia reaktioita, jotka pitävät sisällään itsevarmuutta, halua kommunikoida juuri siinä hetkessä, juuri sen ihmisen kansssa- tämä on WTC:n määritelmä ja toisen kielen käyttöä edeltävä viimeinen psykologinen askel.” (vapaa käännös, Yashima ym. 2018, 132). Tässä “viimeisessä psykologisessa askeleessa” psykologinen turvallisuus saattaa näytellä huomattavaa osaa, kuvaus ei ole kaukana siitä, miten psykologinen turvallisuus itsessään määritellään.

Kolmantena argumenttina käsitteiden erilaisuudesta esitän, että WTC on olotila tyypissäänkin yksilöä koskeva käsite, siinä missä psykologinen turvallisuus on ryhmätason ilmiö. Macintyre, Clement, Dörnyei ja Noels (1998, 547) ovat luoneet vaikutusvaltaisen pyramidimallin,joka käsittää WTC:n eri osa-alueita ja vaikuttimia. Vaikka mallissa on joitakin selvästi ryhmää ja psykologista turvallisuuttakin läheneviä teemoja, kuten “ryhmän sisäinen ilmapiiri” (intergroup climate); “ryhmän sisäiset asenteet” (intergroup attitudes) ja “vuorovaikutus tilanne” (social situation) ei yksikään vaikuta osuvan aivan samalle alalle psykologisen turvallisuuden kanssa.

Yhteenvetona halukkuudesta puhua ja psykologisesta turvallisuudesta voi sanoa että ne koskettavat osin samaa ja osin eri alueita; monessa viimeaikaisessa WTC-tutkimuksessa on löydetty jotakin hyvin psykologista turvallisuutta muistuttavaa (Yashima ym. 2018, MacIntyre, Jessome and Burns 2011, MacIntyre ja Legatto 2011, Zhang, Beckmann ja Beckmann 2018) ja toisaalta niissä kaikissa on tunnistettu myös tekijöitä jotka eivät liity ryhmään tai psykologiseen turvallisuuteen.

WTC:n lisäksi on muitakin kielen oppimisen tutkimuksessa käytettyjä käsitteitä jotka vaikuttavat joiltakin osin samankaltaisilta psykologisen turvallisuuden kanssa. Vieraan kielen puhumiseen liittyvä ahdistus (foreign language anxiety FLA tai language anxiety LA) on kielenoppimiseen liittyvistä affekteista tutkituin. Kieli ahdistus on “negatiivinen tunnereaktio joka nousee vieraan kielen oppimisen tai puhumisen yhteydessä.” (MacIntyre 1999, 27,

vapaa käännös). Positiivisen psykologian aallon mukana se on saanut rinnalleen myös FLE:n (foreign language enjoyment) eli kielinautinnon-käsitteen. Kieliahdistusta pidetään pääasiassa epäsuotuisana ja oppimista vaikeuttavana ilmiönä (Horwitz 2010, Ellis 2008). Kieliahdistus vaikuttaa ensinäkemältä psykologisen turvallisuuden kääntöpuolelta, ikään kuin samalta käsitteeltä hieman toisin ilmaistuna. Esitän kuitenkin, että psykologinen turvallisuus ja kieliahdistus poikkeavat toisistaan kahdella tärkeällä tavalla: ne ovat eri tason ilmiöitä ja niiden polaarisuus tekee niistä paljon enemmän kuin vain toistensa negaatiot.

Ensimmäisenä kiinnitän huomiota siihen, että kieliahdistus on yksilötason- ja psykologinen turvallisuus ryhmätason ilmiö. Tarkemmin katsottuna tämä on kieliahdistuken tutkimuksessa erikoinenkin piirre; käsite usein operationalisoidaan vuorovaikutustilanne -kuvausten kautta, kuitenkin jättäen kyseiset tilannekuvaukset analyysissa huomiotta. Esimerkiksi väittämät “pelkään, että toiset oppilaat nauravat minulle jos puhun vierasta kieltä” tai “pelkään että opettaja korjaa jokikisen virheeni kun puhun vierasta kieltä” (Horwitz, Horwitz ja Cope 1986, vapaa käännös) mittaavat vain yksilön affektia, eikä missään vaiheessa analysoidat sitä, nauravatko kyseisen luokan oppilaat todellisuudessa toisilleen tai onko opettaja todella turhan innokas korjaamaan virheitä. FLA:n tutkimuksessa yleisimmin käytetyssä mittarissa FLCAS:ssa (foreign language classroom anxiety scale, Horwitz, Horwitz ja Cope 1986) noin puolet (16 kysymystä 33:sta) esittävät tilanteen, jossa vastapuolena on joko toinen opiskelija, äidinkielinen puhuja tai opettaja. Psykologinen turvallisuus voisi täydentää käsitettä huomioimalla kyseistä kontekstia paremmin.

Toisena huomiona psykologisen turvallisuuden ja kieliahdistuksen suhteesta esitän niiden polaarisuuden: ahdistus kuvaa lähtökohtaisesti negatiivista; vältettävää tai vähennettävää ilmiötä ja turvallisuus taas positiivista; tavoiteltavaa ja lisättävää ilmiötä. Polaarisuutta ei kuitenkaan pidä käsittää saman ilmiön jatkumona; ahdistuksen puuttuminen ei vielä tarkoita, että oppija kokee turvallisuutta, tai turvallisuuden puute, että oppija kokee ahdistusta. Näitä erottaa “tavallinen olo”, kenties kaikista tunteista yleisin. Asian ytimessä, vaikkakin motivaation ennemmin kuin kieliahdistuksen alalta, ovat MacIntyre ja Vinze (2017, 61) jotka vetäessään yhteen useita tutkimuksia toteavat, että “positiiviset tunteet korreloivat säännönmukaisesti ja voimakkaasti motivaatioon liittyvien tekijöiden kanssa. Negatiivisten tunteiden korrelointi on heikompaa ja vähemmän säännönmukaista.” Myös Dewaele ja MacIntyre 2014 tulevat samankaltaiseen lopputulokseen tutkiessaan kieliahdistusta ja kielinautintoa: “FLE [kielinautinto] ja FLCA [kieliahdistus] ovat kaksi eri ulottuvuutta ennemmin kuin saman kolikon kääntöpuolia”. Yhtäläisyysmerkkejä ei voi tästä huolimatta vetää myöskään psykologisen turvallisuuden ja kielinautinnon käsitteiden välille. FLE vastaa positiivisen käsitteen tarpeeseen, mutta koskettaa hieman eri alueita: kielen puhumiseen ja

opiskelemiseen liittyvä nautinnon kokemus eri muodoissaan on käsitteellisesti eri asia kuin psykologinen turvallisuus, joka ei niinkään pyri nautintoon vaan nimenomaisesti luottamukseen siitä, että negatiivisetkin tunteet ja tapahtumat hyväksytään jonka kautta vuorovaikutuksen riskit mitätöityvät. Psykologinen turvallisuus voisi kuitenkin osaltaan kenties vastata positiivisten käsitteiden tarpeeseen kielinautinnon käsitteen lisäksi.

Motivaatiota tutkimuksessa tarkastellaan sekä motivaation (intended effort) kannalta että yhden erityisen motivaatio-teorian osa-alueen, kielikokemuksen kautta. Motivaatio on kielen oppimisen tärkeimpiä tutkimuksen aloja, ja sen alku edeltää kielen oppimisen tutkimuksen alkua (Ushioda 2011a). Viimeisen kahden vuosikymmenen aikana motivaationtutkimuksessa on läpikäyty laajempaa murrosta, jossa yhtenä teemana on ollut kontekstin kasvava rooli ja motivaation käsittäminen dynaamisena elementtinä (Ushioda 2009, Dörnyei ja Ryan 2015).

Tällä hetkellä yksi suosituimpia motivaatiomalleja on Zoltan Dörnyein (2009, 29) mahdollisten L2 minuuksien malli, jossa on kolme tyyppiä:
1. ideaali L2 minä (millainen kielenkäyttäjä kielenoppija toivoo olevansa)
2. “pitäisi olla”- L2-minä (millaisena kielenoppija uskoo ympäristönsä haluavan hänen olla kielenkäyttäjänä, esim. Vanhempien käsitys hyväksyttävästä kileitaidosta.)
3. L2 kielikokemus (millaisena kielenoppija kokee kielen oppimisen ympäristön ja kokemukset esim. koulurakennuksen, vertaisryhmän ja opettajan)
Zoltan Dörnyei on viimeaikaisessa tutkimuksessaan tuonut esille kolmannen, L2 kielikokemus-tason tärkeyttä. Koska psykologinen turvallisuus epäilemättä on osa kielikokemusta, kenties jopa sitä voimakkaasti määrittävä, tarkastelen sitä tutkimuksessa hieman syvemmin. Erityisen mielenkiintoinen on Dörnyein ajatus kielikokemuksen uudelleenmäärittelystä osallistumisen kautta; raportissaan Dörnyei (2019, 25) esittää, että “ L2 kielikokemus voidaan määritellä oppijan osallistumisen (engagement) laatuna kielen oppimisen eri aspekteihin”. (vapaa suomennos). Psykologinen turvallisuus olisi nimeonomaisesti tämän suunnan mukainen käsite ja se voisi yhdistää monia, oppijan kannalta relevantteja osia WTC:stä, kieliahdistuksesta ja kielikokemuksesta. Esittelen vielä lyhyesti opettajan pedagogisen johtajuuden käsitteen, jonka jälkeen avaan tutkimuksen rakenteita ja käyn läpi keskeisimmät tulokset.

Johtajuus eri muodoissaan on organisaatio-oppimisessa osa psykologisen turvallisuuden keskeisiä vaikuttimia. (Edmondson 2003, Edmondson ja Lei 2014). Lienee selvää, ettei aikuisten työpaikkojen johtaja-kontekstista voida hypätä suoraviivaisesti luokassa tapahtuvaan vuorovaikutukseen opettaja kanssa. Kuitenkin välimatka näiden ympäristöjen välillä lyhenee alati; niin opettaja kuin johtajakin ovat työn varsinaisen tekijöiden ohjaajia ja

nykyisin fasilitaattoreita eli mahdollistajia, ennemmin kuin tiedon siirtäjiä (vallitsevaa opettajakäsitystä Suomessa voi lukea muunmuassa opetussuunnitelman perusteista, POPS 2014). Psykologisen turvallisuuden voi myös spekuloida olevan keskeisemmässä asemassa vähemmän kypsissä ympäristöissä; vaikka johtaja ja opettaja eivät ole samassa asemassa, on opettajan asema psykologisen turvallisuuden kannalta kenties jopa merkittävämpi luokkaympäristössä.

Johtajuuden käsitteet ovat jo kulkeneet matkan kauppatieteistä luokkahuoneeseen; transformationaalisen eli uudistavan johtamisen periaatteita on tutkittu opetustyyleinä (Walumbwa ym. 2004, Bolkan ja Goodboy 2009, Pounder 2004, Khany ja Khasemi 2019). Uudistava johtaminen tarkoittaa johtamista motivoimisen, inspiroimisen, (yhteisen) vision ja karisman kautta, yhtä selkeää määritelmää käsitteellä ei kuitenkaan ole. Vaikka tämä tutkimussuunta on kiinnostava ja monia uudistavan johtamisen elementtejä on läsnä kieliluokissa, transformationaalinen (ja sen lähisukulaiset eettinen, autenttinen) johtajuus ei kenties ole sopivin opettajan vuorovaikutuksen tutkimiseen. Koulussa oppija on “asiakas” yhtä paljon kuin hän on ”työntekijä”; oppija on toisaalta koulujärjestelmän armoilla ja toisaalta opetuksen eli johtajuuden varsinainen hyötyjä. Lähdenkin tutkimaan opettajan johtajuustyyliä vanhemmuustyyleihin perustuvan opettajan johtajuusmallin kautta. Malli perustuu Baumrindin (1967) ja Maccoby ja Martinin (1983) vanhemmuustyylimalleihin, joissa kahdesta päätekijästä: vaativuudesta ja responsiivisuudesta muodostetaan nelikenttä sen mukaan, onko yksilö ulottuvuudessa korkealla vai matalalla. Batista, Weber ja Toni (2016) pohjasivat kyseiseen malliin luodessaan opettajille suunnatun TLSI-kyselyn (teacher leadership style inventory). Kysely mittaa kolmea ulottuvuutta: opettajan responsiivisuutta (teacher responsiveness), opettajan vaativuutta (teacher demandingness) ja opettajan pakottava kontrolli (teacher coercive control, korkea vaativuus mutta ei responsiivisuutta).

Tutkimukseen osallistui 333 opiskelijaa ja 7 opettajaa yläkoulusta ja lukiosta. Tutkimuksen osallistujat värvättiin kontaktoimalla kouluja suoraan sekä englanninopettajien Facebook-ryhmään laitetun mainoksen avulla. Tutkimus toteutettiin keväällä 2019. Tutkimukseen kuului kolmiosainen kysely opiskelijoille sekä toinen, lyhyempi kysely opettajille. Opiskelijoiden kyselyssä mitattiin kahdeksalla kysymyksellä psykologista turvallisuutta ja neljällä kysymyksellä kutakin: oppimiskokemusta (learningn experience LE), halukkuutta kommunikoida (willingness to communicate WTC), kieliahdistusta (language anxiety LA) ja motivaatiota (intended effort), sekä viidellä kysymyksellä kutakin opettajan vaativuutta, responsiivisuutta ja pakottavaa kontrollia. Lopuksi oli avoimia kysymyksiä siitä, millaisessa ryhmässä oppija mielellään osallistuisi. Opettajien kyselyssä kysyttiin taustatietoa ryhmästä, sekä samat 15 opettajan opetustyyliin viittavaa kysymystä, opettajille sopiviksi väittämiksi

muotoiltuina. Tutkimus pilotoitiin yhdellä opettajalla ja 19 lukio-opiskelijalla. Palaute oli neutraalia tai hyvää lukuunottamatta kahta kysymystä joiden muotoilua selkeytettiin. Myös alustava kvantitatiivinen analyysi oli oikeansuuntainen siten, että esim. kieliahdistus ja WTC korreloivat negatiivisesti vaikkei merkittävyyttä pienellä otoksella voinutkaan saavuttaa. Varsinaisessa tutkimuksessa opettajat toteuttivat kyselyn internet-pohjaisella Google-Forms palvelulla tarkkojen ohjeiden mukaan luokkiensa kanssa itsenäisesti.

Tutkimuskysymykset olivat (vapaa suomennos):

4. Miten psykologinen turvallisuus liittyy vieraiden kielten opiskeluun luokassa: onko psykologinen turvallisuus relevantti vallitseviin käsitteisiin verrattuna?
5. Miten psykologinen turvallisuus liittyy motivaatioon vieraan kielen luokassa?
6. Miten opettajan pedagoginen johtamistyyli liittyy psykologiseen turvallisuuteen ja vallitseviin käsitteisiin?

Tutkimuksen keskeiset tulokset avautuivat osittain jo teoriaosuudessa ensimmäisen tutkimuskysymyksen osalta: WTC:n kieli ahdistuksen ja kielikokemuksen konseptit suhteutettiin psykologiseen turvallisuuteen ja nähtiin, että käsite voisi tarjota tutkimussuuntien mukaista täydennystä alalle. Erityisesti käsitteissä esiintyviä psykologisen turvallisuuden kanssa samankaltaisia pohdintoja oli paljon ja voikin ajatella, että se on myös jo osittain läsnä vallitsevissa käsitteissä. Kvantitatiiviset tulokset osoittivat, että kaikista käsitteistä psykologinen turvallisuus oli vahvimmin yhteydessä halukkuuteen puhua. Keskivahvan korrelaation .48 lisäksi usean selittäjän regressiomallit osoittivat, psykologinen turvallisuus selitti merkitsevästi WTC:tä ja WTC myös selitti psykologista turvallisuutta. Toisaalta psykologinen turvallisuus ei noussut merkitseväksi selittäjäksi muille vasteille (motivaatio, oppimiskokemus tai kieliahdistus). WTC:n lisäksi psykologinen turvallisuus korreloi merkitsevästi ($p<0.001$) kieliahdistuksen (.37) ja kielikokemuksen (.37) kanssa. Avoimien vastausten sisältöanalyysi paljasti joitakin opiskelijan näkökulmasta tärkeitä teemoja: esiin nousi ryhmän tuttuus, hyväksyntä ja virheiden sieto sekä kaikkien tasapuolinen osallistuminen. Psykologisessa turvallisuudessa voidaan ajatella kiteytyvän näitä elementtejä siinä missä vallitsevat käsitteet jättävät ne toistaiseksi pimentoon. Avoimien kysymysten analysoinnin jälkeen nousikin pohdinta siitä, että nykyiset käsitteet kenties oppijan ja opettajan näkökulmasta kykenevät paljastamaan ongelmia mutta vastaavat heikosti tarpeisiin niiden korjaamiseksi.

Psykologisen turvallisuuden suhdetta motivaatioon tutkittiin sekä motivaatio, että kielikokemus-osilla kyselyä. Psykologinen turvallisuus korreloi merkitsevästi kummankin tekijän kanssa mutta ei noussut esiin regressiomallissa selittävänä tekijänä koko

populaatiossa joka puoltaa lineaarisen suhteen uupumista. Yhden opettajan osalta kielikokemus kuitenkin nousi ainoaksi psykologista turvallisuutta selittäväksi tekijäksi. Motivaatio ja oppimiskokemus korreloivat (.88) ja selittivät toisiaan merkitsevästi ja vahvasti. Psykologinen turvallisuus (.37) kuitenkin korreloi vahvemmin kielikokemuksen kanssa kuin kieliahdistus (.13, $p<0.05$) ja heikommin kuin WTC (.53).

Opettajan johtajuustyylit linkittyivät heikosti muihin tekijöihin kvantitatiivisesti, mutta kuitenkin vahvimmin psykologisen turvallisuuden kanssa. Erityisesti opettajan responsiivisuus (.57) korreloi psykologisen turvallisuuden kanssa, sekä myös selitti sitä merkitsevästi usean selittäjän regressiomallissa ainoana opettajan johtajuustyyleistä. Muita heikompia mutta merkittäviä korrelaatioita johtajuustyyleihin oli WTC:llä (.29), kielikokemuksella(.36) ja motivaatiolla (.33) suhteessa responsiivisuuteen sekä psykologisen turvallisuuden ja pakottavan kontrollin välillä (.45). Johtajuuden merkitys voisikin täten tulla esiin psykologisen turvallisuuden käsitteen kautta muita vallitsevia käsitteitä paremmin.

Tämä opinnäytetyö lähti tutkimaan psykologista turvallisuutta mahdollisena uutena ja hyödyllisenä käsitteenä kielen oppimisen alalle. Käsitettä tutkittiin suhteessa halukkuuteen puhua, kieliahdistukseen, motivaatioon ja kielikokemukseen sekä opettajan johtajuustyyleihin. Psykologinen turvallisuus vaikutti esiintyvän kaikissa käsitteissä joiltakin osin mutta samaan aikaan eriävän niistä olennaisesti. Psykologinen turvallisuus vaikuttaa kielen oppimisen tutkimukselle lupaavalta käsitteeltä, joka voisi yhdistää oppijan, opettajan ja erityisesti kielen tehokkaan oppimisen kannalta relevantit alueet niin johtajuudesta, halukkuudesta puhua kuin kielikokemuksestakin.