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Article

Pedagogical Translanguaging in L2 Teaching for Adult Migrants: Assessing Feasibility and Emotional Impact

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Abstract: Pedagogical translanguaging (PTL) refers to the use of educational techniques that incorporate learners' entire linguistic repertoire. Recent studies indicate that PTL is efficient in the teaching of morphological awareness to bilingual children. The question remains whether it can be successfully applied in the highly specific context of adult forced migrants' classrooms. This study describes a new protocol developed within the framework of PTL to teach derivational morphology to L2 French and Greek adults. We used questionnaires to quantitatively and qualitatively assess the feasibility of the protocol, teachers' and learners' attitudes, and learners' emotions in the PTL lesson. A total of 141 migrant learners (79 forced migrants) and 13 teachers were involved in 23 2 h lessons. Teachers and learners gave high overall evaluations of the feasibility of the PTL protocol and of their pleasure from teaching and learning using PTL tools. Learners' ease of learning and learning benefits were positively influenced by their perception of the proximity between their L1 and L2. Learners reported higher positive emotions and lower negative emotions during the PTL lesson, while forced migrants showed more hope and shame overall than voluntary migrants, as well as gained more benefits from PTL due to enjoyment. These findings suggest that the use of pedagogical translanguaging in migrants' classrooms is feasible and develops positive attitudes and emotions, which are more pronounced in forced migrants.



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1. Introduction

In recent years, more than half a million asylum applications have been submitted across European countries annually, peaking at more than one million some years, as in 2015, 2016, and 2023 (<https://euaa.europa.eu/> accessed on 1 March 2024). For these forced migrants, learning the language of the host country is not just a tool for communication but also a fundamental element that affects every aspect of their life: language skills are critical for young adults to access education and training programs and, more generally, for finding and maintaining employment; language is crucial for navigating the legal and bureaucratic processes involved in asylum applications and accessing healthcare and other essential services; and language allows for understanding the culture and values of the host society, which facilitates integration and reduces cultural misunderstandings, while enhancing migrants' confidence to participate in their new communities.

A significant amount of scientific research has been conducted on language teaching for migrants, spanning disciplines including linguistics, education, sociology, and psychology. Research emphasizes the importance of tailored, practical, and supportive language learning approaches focusing on real-world application and cultural sensitivity while also considering the specific needs of migrant learners [1,2]. The importance of incorporating learners' cultural background has been highlighted particularly for forced migrants who

often show emotional vulnerability due to a range of traumatic experiences and stressors associated with their displacement [3,4]. As a result, recommendations have been made to incorporate content, like texts and stories, from the learners' own cultures and experience into the curriculum [5,6]. Another way of connecting the language classroom to the learners' culture is by recognizing the languages that they speak. Instead of discouraging the use of their native languages, as was traditionally recommended [7], the teacher can draw connections between the learners' native language(s) and the new language. This approach fits within theories on bilingual education initiated in the eighties [8,9] and, more recently, within theories of translanguaging [4,10]. Translanguaging is the use, by multilingual individuals, of their entire linguistic repertoire to communicate, often blending elements from different languages in a flexible way. Capitalizing on this spontaneous tendency from learners, pedagogical translanguaging (PTL) involves instructional strategies that purposefully incorporate two or more of the learners' languages as part of the teaching process [11].

Recent research started to describe PTL tools that can be used in the classroom, and some studies assessed their efficiency in classrooms with migrant students, both in terms of language learning [11,12] and in terms of emotional well-being [13–15]. But, research on pedagogical translanguaging in the context of forced migrants is scarce. Although some studies provide insights into the potential of using PTL practices in that population [16,17], the specificity of these classrooms poses various challenges to the feasibility of implementing the method itself. Regarding teachers, many of those involved in forced migrants' classrooms are not professionals and have little training in linguistics and/or (second) language teaching. Moreover, they usually do not speak the learners' languages, and classrooms often involve a diversity of languages. Regarding learners, forced migrants sometimes have low levels of education and, therefore, low levels of metalinguistic knowledge about their own languages, which may render reflecting on their own language challenging.

The present study aimed to develop a pedagogical tool to teach L2 French and Greek derivational morphology; assess its feasibility in the specific context of language teaching classrooms for adult migrants in Switzerland, Greece, and France; and also provide a preliminary assessment of its impact on learners' emotions. Derivational morphology involves the process used to form new words either by means of affixation, i.e., the addition of affixes to the root (prefixes, suffixes, infixes, etc.) or by other means, such as conversion, clipping, etc. [18]. Morphological awareness refers to speakers' "conscious awareness of the morphemic structure of words and their ability to reflect on and manipulate that structure" [19], p. 194. Morphological awareness can be delineated into three dimensions (for other aspects of morphological awareness, see [19], among others): (a) morphological structure awareness, i.e., learners' conscious awareness of the morphemic structure of words; (b) morphological analysis, i.e., learners' ability to reflect on, analyze, and manipulate the morphemic elements in words to build word meaning; and (c) morphological decoding, i.e., learners' ability to rely on word structure to pronounce a written word accurately [20,21]. Derivational morphology was chosen for two reasons. First, morphological awareness has a significant impact on L1 literacy acquisition and vocabulary development [22,23]. Recent findings show that instruction in morphological awareness can improve children's word reading, spelling skills, and morphological analysis of unfamiliar words [24–26]. Second, derivational morphology is seldom taught explicitly in L2 pedagogies, but recent evidence highlights its relevance [27]. Two hypotheses regarding PTL underlie this study. The first hypothesis is that, at the cognitive level, PTL facilitates learning through the enhancement of positive transfer mechanisms, i.e., the transfer of what is similar between L1 and L2, and a reduction in negative transfers, i.e., errors due to the influence of L1 properties that are different in L2. The second hypothesis is that, at the emotional level, acknowledging and valuing the linguistic and cultural identities of students favors emotional well-being, enhancing positive emotions and reducing negative ones. The PTL approach is expected to be particularly beneficial to forced migrants, who

often suffer high emotional vulnerability [28]. In the following sections, we briefly describe the theoretical underpinnings of these two hypotheses.

1.1. Transfer Effects and Analogical Reasoning in L2 Learning

The process of learning a new language fundamentally differs from the task that a baby is confronted with when acquiring their first language. The acquisition of a new language takes place on the background of pre-existing knowledge of one or more languages, which serves as the foundation on which L2 knowledge is developed [9,29]. And, indeed, one of the clearest pieces of evidence gathered in psycholinguistic research on L2 learning is that it is strongly influenced by that pre-existing language knowledge. Negative transfer or “interference” arises when the native language causes errors in the acquisition of the L2 due to differences between the two, while positive transfer or “facilitation” arises when the native language facilitates L2 learning in virtue of their similarities. Negative transfer is found at all linguistic levels: phonological, syntactic, lexical, and pragmatic. Learners often transfer phonological rules and sounds from their L1 to their L2, leading to pronunciation difficulties and accents that can hinder comprehension [30]. The syntactic structure of L1 also interferes with the correct formation of sentences in L2, which may, for example, result in errors related to word order, inflectional morphology, or sentence structure (e.g., [31] for the acquisition of L2 French). Negative transfer also arises at the lexical level when learners incorrectly assume that words in their L1 have direct equivalents in L2, leading to errors in word choice, meaning, and collocations. This is often seen in the use of words that look similar in two languages but have different meanings, i.e., false friends or false cognates [32]. Much less research has been conducted on positive transfer, but facilitation in the learning of cognate words represents a clear illustration of it while finely controlled experimental protocols have shown that under some circumstances, L2 learners may even surpass L1 speakers [33]. Cognate facilitation, i.e., positive lexical transfer, has been shown to enhance vocabulary learning and can be influenced by learners’ metalinguistic ability [34,35].

Transfer effects are clear manifestations of the close interrelations between languages at the behavioral level. Neuroimaging studies suggest that these interrelations are also characteristic of language processing structures at the brain level: evidence shows that L2 is processed using the L1 brain network, although it also involves additional brain areas recruited to control the competition arising between L1 and L2 processing [36,37]. Whereas L1–L2 interrelations have been researched at length at the behavioral and brain levels, their cognitive underpinnings remain to be theorized. One potential candidate is implicit analogical processing, at the core of the acquisition of new knowledge in cognitive models of learning [38–43]. Analogical processing serves as a key adaptive mechanism for the formation, extension, and retrieval of concepts, connecting new situations to previous experience on the basis of their similarities. The concept of explicit analogical encoding refers to the active comparison of two examples, making learners more attentive to their structural similarities. Studies show that an explicit comparison increases the probability of finding the common underlying principle when encountering a similar situation and thus promotes learning through enhanced abstraction of schemas [42–44]. The relevance of analogical processing has been demonstrated in cognitive domains such as school-based skills; understanding; reasoning; problem-solving; conceptual development; and more generally, scientific discovery, in both novice and more experienced participants [45,46]. It is much less known in the field of L2 learning. A few studies have nevertheless indirectly related to it; for example, when explicitly questioned about the languages they had acquired and their attitudes towards these languages, bilingual speakers highlight their use of grammatical analogies to form complex sentences in both languages [47]. Learners of a new language also report noticing analogies for similar words in the languages they already know, which arguably facilitates their understanding and memorization of new words [48].

We propose that transfer effects in L2 learning are the manifestation of the core cognitive mechanism of analogical encoding by which learners link new knowledge of the L2 to the languages they already know. Interestingly, the vast majority of L2 research has

focused on negative transfer and, therefore, on the penalizing influence of L1 knowledge. We see at least two causes for that state of fact. First, whereas negative transfer is directly observable as an error, positive transfer is not directly observable, since it gives rise to correct production. Second, many datasets reporting evidence for negative transfer may as well be interpreted as evidence for positive transfer. The reason is that conclusions are usually drawn from the observation that speakers whose L1 is dissimilar to the L2 differ from speakers whose L1 is similar to the L2. This difference is typically interpreted as indicating that speakers of a dissimilar L2 make more errors; however, it could also indicate that speakers of a similar L2 make less errors. The issue is well known in experimental research and has to do with the need for a proper baseline to allow interpreting the direction of a difference. Despite the fact that evidence does not allow us to determine the polarity of transfer effects, most theoretical models have concluded in favor of negative transfer [29]. This conclusion has had important and unfortunate consequences on teaching practices, fueling approaches that ban learners' languages from the classroom.

1.2. *Emotions in L2 Learning*

While the significance of emotions in learning was largely overlooked in the 1990s, emotions are nowadays acknowledged as components of cognition that are essential for learning. Emotional states affect attention: positive emotions enhance focus and engagement, while negative emotions lead to distraction and reduced attention [49,50]. Emotions also impact both the encoding and retrieval of memories: information associated with strong emotions is often better remembered [51].

Language classrooms are filled with a wide range of emotions such as the pleasure from learning, pride, anxiety, shame, and boredom that are likely to impact L2 learning performance. As early as 1978, Krashen put forth the concept of an "affective filter", according to which emotions such as fear, shame, self-doubt, or boredom have the potential to negatively impact language learning [52]. Studies in the field have primarily focused on negative emotions, particularly anxiety, but also shame and guilt, which are negatively related to L2 learning (see [53] for a review). More recently, studies also highlighted the importance of positive emotions in L2 learning, arguing that they facilitate the development of cognitive resources but also contribute to promoting psychological resilience and dissipating the prolonged effects of negative emotions in the face of frustration [54,55].

Wide-scale cross-sectional and longitudinal studies on emotions related to the learning context and their effects on school and academic performance emerged in the early 2000s, giving rise to deeper theorizing of emotions in education and their relationships with other core concepts like control, value, motivation, and effort regulation, driven by Pekrun and colleagues [56–58]. Data were collected through self-report questionnaires designed to assess students' emotions related to academic settings (in particular, the Achievement Emotions Questionnaire, AEQ [59]). The control–value theory of emotions by Pekrun and colleagues assumes that students' emotional experiences are shaped by their perceptions of control over their learning outcomes and the value they place on academic tasks and outcomes. Whereas high levels of control and value trigger positive emotions like hope, pleasure, and pride, low levels trigger negative emotions like anxiety or despair. Emotions, in turn, influence intrinsic motivation (engaging in an activity for its inherent satisfaction), extrinsic motivation (engaging in an activity to obtain rewards or avoid punishment), and effort regulation (the ability to regulate one's efforts and to persevere in the face of difficulties), which impact learning performance. Positive emotions, especially positive activating emotions, increase the levels of intrinsic motivation, extrinsic motivation, and effort regulation, leading to beneficial effects on learning, while negative emotions have opposite effects. The control–value model thus relies on a causal chain linking control–value to emotions, emotions to motivation, and motivation to learning performance itself, while feedback loops between these levels are also at play.

The validity of the control–value theory of emotions in the context of L2 learning was assessed through different studies, either directly or indirectly. A literature survey

of 146 reviews and quantitative studies between 1970 and 2019 in the specific context of language classrooms showed that a number of data points support the theory [53]. More recently, studies on Iranian [60] and Chinese [61] students learning L2 English employed a modified version of the AEQ adjusted to L2 education contexts and brought further support to the theory, showing that perceived control and value are positively linked to positive emotions and to language learning performance [62].

Importantly, evidence suggests that control and value are themselves influenced by individual distal factors, such as gender, beliefs, and achievement goals, but also by contextual distal factors, like the learning environment: teaching that promotes autonomy and cooperative goals helps students develop positive beliefs about their ability to succeed, influencing their control and value perceptions, and thus, the emotions experienced [58]. Such findings highlight the importance of developing pedagogical tools that enhance learners' perception of the control and value of their language learning endeavor.

1.3. *Language Teaching Practices, Analogical Reasoning, and Emotions*

There is a longstanding tradition of teaching foreign languages in isolation from the learners' native languages, even in programs designed to foster bilingual or multilingual skills, following what is sometimes referred to as "the two solitudes" [63]. This approach is central to various second language teaching pedagogies, such as the Direct Method, the Audiolingual Method, and the Communicative Approach. The "two solitudes" approach aims to reduce interference among languages, i.e., negative transfer, and maximize L2 input, which has been found to play an important role in L2 learning [64]. This "island" approach ignores the vast array of studies in cognitive science showing that analogy is a powerful learning tool enabling pattern abstraction and predicting learning efficiency, such that learners' linguistic resources actually constitute significant bootstraps to L2 learning, rather than obstacles. The isolationist approach also ignores the role of emotions and the role of contextual distal factors that drive them, as it drives a view of multilingual learners as incompetent students whose native languages inhibit the L2 learning process, underestimating the importance of learners' empowerment [65], and most probably, also their perception of control and value of language learning.

A radically different pedagogy emerged in the nineties, mostly driven by sociolinguistic considerations regarding language and cultural diversity awareness in the context of migrants' education in low-economic areas. The notion of "translanguaging" was initially introduced by a Welsh educator to describe multilingual speakers' spontaneous switching between languages for input and output in the classroom. These studies were further developed into a broader theoretical framework applying translanguaging in educational settings to enhance teaching and learning for multilingual students, referred to as pedagogical translanguaging [4,9,10]. Indeed, even though learners spontaneously use their native languages in the classroom when allowed to do so, the deeper process of explicit comparison between L1 and L2 is seldom observed in spontaneous exchanges. In order to trigger it, guided analogical encoding from the teacher is necessary, i.e., providing support for learners in making comparisons using explicit materials [32]. Examples of pedagogical translanguaging practices and implementations for teaching purposes include allowing speakers of the same L1 to sit next to each other and speak together to compensate for a lack of L2 knowledge, using the dictionary to translate the L2, comparing L1 and L2, and highlighting similar elements like cognates, or to convey an untranslatable term specific to one's culture [11].

Several studies emerged over the past few years proposing pedagogical tools to teachers (see, for example, the guides by [5,66]) and assessing their efficiency through controlled protocols [11,65]. Particularly, PTL was developed in the teaching of derivational morphology in the formal setting of primary school education [12,67]. For example, the efficiency of PTL in morphological awareness was assessed in 10-year-old Basque–Spanish bilingual children attending a school in the Basque Autonomous Community in Spain and learning English as a foreign language [12]. The teaching intervention involved techniques

encouraging learners to compare the way complex words are formed in the three languages they know and/or learn. Morphological awareness significantly improved in learners who attended the PTL teaching intervention as compared to the control group who followed their regular program. Interestingly, the use of PTL in L2 teaching was found to have significant benefits not only for the development of morphological awareness in the L2 but also in the L1, thus facilitating the development of L1 literacy [12,27]. Beneficial effects of PTL were found not only on language learning but also on enhancing positive attitudes and emotions in the learning process [12,32,67,68].

1.4. Goals of the Current Study

Capitalizing on recent studies showing the usefulness of pedagogical translanguaging in the learning of derivational morphology in children, the current study developed a pedagogical tool focusing on the teaching of derivational morphology to adult migrants. We focused on derivational morphology because recent studies show that allowing students to draw on their entire linguistic repertoire facilitates deeper comprehension of complex words, leading to a more profound understanding of how words are formed (morphological structure awareness) and how meaning changes with the addition of affixes (morphological analysis), enhancing students' metalinguistic awareness. Moreover, derivational morphology is not commonly taught in L2 textbooks and pedagogical materials, even though the command of derivational affixes and rules facilitates the productive formation of new, morphologically complex words and enriches lexical competence [27]. The cornerstone of the PTL tool we developed lies in the systematic, explicit linking between the learners' existing languages' knowledge and the new language.

The PTL tool was implemented in language classrooms for migrants involving both forced and voluntary migrants. Forced migrants, contrary to voluntary migrants, have left their countries because their lives were threatened, and they often continue experiencing stress during the migration journey and even once they arrive in the resettlement country where they are exposed to post-migratory stressors involving administrative challenges and uncertainty around basic needs, and more generally social and cultural isolation [69]. Their integration crucially depends on the mastery of the country language, and they may therefore show specificities in regard to their emotions in the L2 classroom. As reviewed in the Introduction, recent studies based on the control-value theory of emotions have started to explore emotions in different profiles of learners in finer detail; however, none of them have examined emotions in forced migrants. Additionally, forced migrants are often multilingual speakers, while their education level is usually low; these cognitive specificities may have an impact on their metalinguistic awareness in the L1, and may thus also impact the feasibility of the PTL approach.

The tool was designed, implemented, and evaluated in migrants' classrooms involving both forced and voluntary migrants, in order to explore two goals, which are exemplified below and are based on the two research hypotheses formulated in the Introduction:

- To assess the overall feasibility of the tool in migrant language classrooms. To do so, teachers and learners filled in detailed questionnaires about their attitudes toward the PTL tools as well as their perception of its learning benefits. Learners also answered questions regarding key individual variables susceptible to influencing their attitudes and perception (age, years in the host country, multilingualism, years of education, socio-economic status (SES), proficiency level in the target language, number of course hours completed, frequency of L2 language practice, and perceived similarity between L1 and L2). We expected that teaching derivational morphology through PTL activities is feasible in migrants' classrooms, including forced migrants who may show low levels of education, because it activates the spontaneous analogical reasoning mechanism underlying L2 learning, and it has been shown to be feasible and efficient in children. Comparisons of L1 and L2 are argued to enhance learners' awareness about the similarities and the differences between the two languages and, consequently, exploit positive but also negative transfer to learners' advantage.

- To conduct a preliminary assessment of the emotional impact of this new PTL tool in migrant language classrooms. To do so, learners rated the strength of 13 emotions they experienced during the PTL lesson compared to the emotions they feel in their usual lessons. Both epistemic emotions (related to the cognitive processes involved in learning, understanding, and knowledge acquisition) and achievement emotions (experienced in relation to one's accomplishments, successes, or failures in learning or task performance) were measured [57]. Anxiety and boredom, which are considered both epistemic and achievement emotions, were also assessed. We expected that setting migrant learners in the position of reflecting on their native language that they master and relate to would increase their sense of control and the value they grant to the learning task, resulting in reduced negative emotions in the PTL classroom compared to the traditional classroom and enhanced positive emotions. These effects were expected to be particularly salient in forced migrants due to their emotional vulnerability.

2. Materials and Methods

2.1. Participants

A total of 141 L2 learners took part in the study: 96 learners attended 14 L2 French classes in Switzerland, 31 attended 7 L2 Greek classes in Greece, and 14 attended 2 L2 Greek classes in France. Learners were aged between 14 and 77, with a mean age of 39 ($M = 39.1$, $SD = 14.0$). Although some of them ($N = 20$) were still minors, they were all attending classes in adults' language schools. The majority of the participants described their socio-economic status as lower middle ($N = 29$) and middle class ($N = 71$), while a subset described it as poor ($N = 15$) and upper-middle class ($N = 17$). None of them described it as wealthy. Note that the totals do not always sum up to 141 due to the fact that some participants failed to provide responses to some questions. The participants' level of education varied between 0 and 18 years ($M = 12.7$, $SD = 4.9$). Learners came from nearly 40 different countries spread throughout all continents (most of them coming from Europe, Asia, and the Americas) and spoke in total nearly 30 different languages. Most of them spoke more than one language ($N = 127$); learners' multilingualism ranged between 1 and 7 languages, with an average of 2.8 languages spoken in addition to the native language. The average time spent in the host country was 5 years, ranging between 1 and 20 years ($M = 5.1$, $SD = 6.4$). Learners had different L2 proficiency levels, below A1 ($N = 29$), A1 ($N = 56$), A2 ($N = 31$), B1 ($N = 14$), B2 ($N = 6$), and C1 ($N = 1$), while most of them were basic users of the L2 (A1 and A2 levels). Exposure to the L2 ranged between less than 80 h and more than 800 h: most participants had less than 500 h (less than 80 h: $N = 44$; between 80 and 200 h: $N = 45$; and between 200 and 500 h: $N = 23$) and a subset had more than 500 h ($N = 10$). The opportunity to practice the host country language was distributed between "never" ($N = 11$), "rarely" ($N = 23$), "sometimes" ($N = 47$), "often" ($N = 29$), and "very often" ($N = 20$). A total of 79 participants felt forced to leave their country ($N = 18$ in Greece and $N = 61$ in Switzerland), while 59 of them also felt threatened ($N = 17$ in Greece and $N = 42$ in Switzerland). Forced migrants did not significantly differ from voluntary migrants in terms of SES ($W = 1510$, $p = 0.143$) but showed a significantly lower level of education ($W = 1447.5$, $p = 0.021$) and spent significantly less time in the host country ($W = 1508$, $p = 0.019$).

A total of 13 different teachers gave a total of 23 lessons: 14 in Switzerland, 7 in Greece, and 2 in France. Seven of them were professional L2 teachers, and the other six teachers had experience in L2 training but no professional background.

The teachers and learners were all volunteers in this study. The teachers were recruited through the authors' network of schools for migrants in the three countries. Participants signed the consent form translated into 14 languages (Albanian, Arabic, Chinese, English, Farsi, French, German, Greek, Italian, Portuguese, Russian, Spanish, Tigrinya, and Turkish). This study was approved by the ethics commission of the University of Geneva (CUREG-2022-02-33).

2.2. Materials and Procedure

2.2.1. Pedagogical Cards and Lesson's Protocol

As already mentioned in Section 1.4, the lesson we employed aimed at improving learners' morphological awareness and, more specifically, morphological structure awareness and morphological analysis by means of PTL activities and techniques. Fifteen pedagogical cards were built, eight in French and five in Greek. All focused on the teaching of derivatives, both the root and the affixes, and had the same structure, but they varied in the number of affixes introduced and their level of abstractness, such that the teachers were free to choose the card that best suited the level of proficiency of their students. French suffixes and prefixes were selected on the basis of their frequency and productivity in the language (French database Polymots, <https://polymots.huma-num.fr/> accessed on 1 May 2022). The selection of the Greek prefixes and suffixes ensured that only frequent and productive morphemes were used.

Each card involved the 5 steps illustrated below:

1. Familiarization with the notion of the word family. Learners were presented orally with 3 lists of words sharing the same root, i.e., derivatives, while each list was depicted in a different color and was associated with a picture of a family of children, parents, and grandparents, so that the learners grasped the notion of the "word family" by associating it with a family of people.
2. Introduction to the words of the family. Between 6 and 10 derivatives, all from the same word family, were presented in short sentences illustrated by pictures (taken from the database on arasaac.org and from <https://www.freepik.com/> (accessed on 1 June 2022). Below each sentence, the derivatives were repeated, but this time, the root was missing, i.e., _____-évo (=missing root of the verb "to travel" preceding the derivational suffix/verbalizer). Participants read the sentences aloud and then filled in the missing root of the derivatives, i.e., taksið-évo (travel.root-derivational suffix/verbalizer = "to travel"). This activity helped them realize that the derivatives provided have a common root, i.e., taksið- (=root of the verb "to travel") and, thus, activate their morphological structure awareness.
3. PTL exercise on the root. (i) Learners translated each target word in their L1 using a translation tool (dictionary or online application). (ii) Learners reflected on the presence or absence of a "fixed" part in the words in their L1 (the root). (iii) Learners found other words in their L1 that share that fixed part and translated them into French/Greek. (iv) Learners exercised their memory of the new taught words through translation exercises (from L2 to L1 and from L1 to L2) within the groups. In this step, the learners exercised their morphological structure awareness and morphological analysis with regard to the lexical morpheme, i.e., the root.
4. Introduction to the affixes. Three to four of the affixes encountered in step 3 were set on the blackboard, and participants searched for words in the L2 containing these affixes. The teacher wrote the words produced by the learners below the appropriate affixes on the blackboard and associated each affix with a symbol that illustrates its meaning. For example, the French suffix -erie and the Greek suffix -ίο, which denote place, were represented by the globe icon. All the symbols used to illustrate the meanings of the taught affixes were discussed with the teachers during training and were provided to them before classes. A short exercise of pairing new affixed words with the corresponding symbols was provided to train the learners on the symbols. In this step, the learners exercised their morphological structure awareness and morphological analysis with regard to the affixes.
5. PTL exercises on the affixes. (i) Participants were presented with lists of words sharing each of the affixes and found the translation in their L1. (ii) Learners reflected on the presence or absence of a "fixed" part among those L1 words (the affix). (iii) Learners found other words in their L1 sharing that fixed part and translated them into French/Greek. (iv) Learners exercised their knowledge of the affixes through the creation of new words based on the combination of a root, a relevant picture, and

the affix symbol (e.g., the learners were presented with the word *kafés* (=coffee); the picture of a coffee shop; and the globe icon, symbolizing location, and were expected to form the Greek derivative *kafen-íο* (coffee.root-derivational suffix denoting location = coffee shop)). Steps 4 and 5 aimed to activate learners' morphological structure awareness and morphological analysis with respect to the derivational affixes.

6. Throughout the lesson, learners worked in groups sharing the same L1, or another language when there was no more than one learner speaking the same L1. In steps 3 and 5, which involve PTL activities, the teacher guided the learners in their reflection on their L1: although the teachers did not speak these L1s, they were able to notice common roots and/or affixes in these languages on the basis of the written and/or the oral forms of the L1 words produced by the learners. Guidance was ensured by way of questions on the L1 as well as comments about what looks or sounds similar and what looks or sounds different in the L1 and L2. These interactions also provided an opportunity for the teacher to show interest in the learners' L1.
7. Steps 1–5 lasted on average 90 min, which corresponds to the usual length of a lesson.

2.2.2. Questionnaires

Two questionnaires were developed to assess teachers' and learners' attitudes on the PTL lesson as well as learners' emotions. The teachers' questionnaire was translated into 3 languages (French, Greek, and English) and the learners' questionnaire was translated in 14 languages (Albanian, Arabic, Chinese, English, Farsi, French, German, Greek, Italian, Portuguese, Russian, Spanish, Tigrinya, and Turkish). Questionnaires were filled in at the end of the lesson and took on average 5 min (teachers) and 20 min (learners) respectively.

Teacher's questionnaire. The questionnaire contains 11 closed questions on a 5-point Likert scale about the PTL lesson (1 = "Totally disagree"; 5 = "Totally agree"), as well as the possibility to encode some comments after each question. Questions were grouped into 5 indexes: 2 indexes about their own experience, namely ease of teaching and pleasure from teaching, and 3 indexes about their assumptions regarding their students' experience, namely ease of learning, pleasure from learning, and learning benefits (see Table 1). Teachers were also asked to rate whether they felt sufficiently prepared for the lesson ("I received sufficient training to implement a PTL lesson"), and an open section at the end of the questionnaire allowed them to provide additional comments

Table 1. Questions underlying teachers' indexes.

Indexes	Questions
Ease of teaching	Teaching the root was simple. Teaching the affix was simple.
Pleasure from teaching	I enjoyed guiding the learners into reflecting on their native language and comparing it with the target language.
Ease of learning	The learners generally understood the instructions. The learners managed to reflect on the roots and compare them with their native language. The learners managed to reflect on the affixes and compare them with their native language.
Pleasure from learning	Reflecting about the learners' native languages positively affected the group dynamics. The learners enjoyed comparing their native language with the target language.
Learning benefits	The translanguaging techniques facilitated an understanding/learning of the roots. The translanguaging techniques facilitated an understanding/learning of the affixes.

Learner's questionnaire. This questionnaire contained 4 categories of questions. The first category contained 11 background questions on the home country, host country, number of years spent in the host country, migration status, native language, multilingualism, years of education, and SES (see Section 2.1). The second category of questions was about their mastery of the host language: proficiency level, number of course hours attended, opportunities to practice the language outside the classroom, and familiarity with translanguaging techniques. The third category of questions concerned attitudes about the translanguaging activities employed in the lesson they attended. These questions were assigned to 3 indexes, namely ease of learning, pleasure from learning, and learning benefits (see Table 2). One additional question concerned the perceived closeness of the L2 to their L1 ("My native language is closer to the taught language than I thought"). The fourth category of questions referred to emotions, which were assessed by asking participants to rate the strength of the emotions they have experienced during the PTL lesson they just attended to the emotions they typically feel in a "more traditional" lesson in which they do not reflect on their native language. A total of 13 emotions were tested, including both positive and negative emotions, and both epistemic emotions (surprise, curiosity, excitement, confusion, and frustration) and a subset of achievement emotions (hope, pride, enjoyment, despair, anger, and shame) from the Achievement Emotions Questionnaire, AEQ-S [70]. Anxiety and boredom, which are considered both epistemic and achievement emotions, were also assessed. Responses to questions of categories 3 and 4 were given on a 5-point Likert scale (1 = "Not at all"; 5 = "Very strong").

Table 2. Questions underlying learners' indexes.

Indexes	Questions
Ease of learning	<p>It was easy to work on my native language with my classmates.</p> <p>It was confusing to work on my native language and the taught language at the same time.</p>
Pleasure from learning	<p>I felt tense when comparing the taught language with my native language.</p> <p>I enjoyed reflecting on my native language.</p>
Learning benefits	<p>Relating the taught language to my native language helped me understand the course material better.</p> <p>Relating the taught language to my native language will help me remember the course material better.</p>

2.2.3. Teachers' Training

Teachers attended a 90 min training session, either on site or remotely. The purpose of this session was to familiarize them with the theoretical framework of the study and the lesson materials and protocol and to answer their questions. These sessions also provided an opportunity to adjust the construction of the pedagogical material based on their feedback. At the end of the training, teachers received an "example" video containing excerpts from pilot classes conducted by one of the authors in Switzerland and in Greece as well as the detailed protocol of the lesson.

2.2.4. Data Analyses

Quantitative data collected through teachers' and learners' questionnaires were coded and analyzed. Qualitative data obtained from teachers' open commentaries were too scarce to be subject to systematic thematic analysis. Nominal responses from both teachers' and learners' questionnaires were recoded into ordinal data and questions with a negative valence (e.g., "I felt tense when comparing the taught language with my native language") were recoded inversely (5 becomes 1, etc.). No participants had missing data for over 50% of the questions. Therefore, no participants were removed based on missing data. Based on inspection of the data, no participants systematically misinterpreted any questions and had to be removed for this reason.

The overall feasibility of the method was assessed through 5 indexes from the teachers' questionnaire (ease of teaching, pleasure from teaching, ease of learning, pleasure from learning, and learning benefits) and 3 indexes from the learners' questionnaire (ease of learning, pleasure from learning, and learning benefits). Indexes' scores were calculated by averaging the scores to the questions underlying them. When an answer to one of the questions was missing, the score to the other question(s) involved in the index was taken to calculate the index. No participants failed to respond to both component questions of any of the indexes. Teachers' indexes were analyzed using the non-parametric Kruskal–Wallis test to assess whether those with a non-professional background in L2 teaching differ from professional teachers, while Wilcoxon signed-ranked tests were run with continuity correction to examine whether the indexes varied for root and affixes' teaching. Learners' data were first analyzed through Spearman correlations between the three indexes and individual demographic variables (host country, age, years in the host country, multilingualism, years of education, and SES) as well as variables related to the L2 (proficiency level in the target language, number of course hours completed, frequency of L2 language practice, and perceived similarity between L1 and L2). Multiple linear regression models were then conducted to evaluate predictive relationships between the indexes and the variables they showed correlations with. Multicollinearity was checked using the *vif* function in R. Residuals were approximately normally distributed for each model.

Learners' emotions were analyzed to assess our two main hypotheses regarding the impact of the teaching method on emotions (PTL vs. standard) and regarding the impact of migration (forced vs. voluntary) on emotions. A first set of linear mixed effects models was run to test the effect of emotions and their sensitivity to the pedagogical method. A model was first run on the entire dataset with method and emotion valence (positive vs. negative) as the fixed effects and participant as the random effect. Models were then conducted to assess the impact of the method on each individual emotion, using linear mixed effects regression models with method as a fixed effect and participant as a random effect on each emotion's rating.

A second set of analyses were conducted to assess the impact of migration type on the evaluation of the PTL lesson and on their emotions. Two-factor between-subject analyses of variance (ANOVAs) were run with migration status as a between-subject factor on the three indexes: ease of learning, pleasure from learning, and learning benefit. A first linear mixed effects regression model was run to test the hypothesis that forced migrants have stronger overall emotions than voluntary migrants, using emotion ratings in the entire dataset with emotion valence and migration status as fixed effects, and participant as a random effect. To assess the hypothesis that forced migrants obtain greater benefits from the PTL lesson than voluntary migrants, linear mixed effects regression models were conducted for each emotion, with method and migration status as fixed effects, and participant as a random effect. Complementary analyses were conducted to assess whether migration status affects emotion type (epistemic vs. achievement emotions) differently. Linear mixed effects regression models were conducted separately for positive and negative emotions, with emotion type and migration status as fixed effects, and participant as a random effect. All interactions were resolved with the Tukey correction.

All analyses were conducted in R (version 3.6.3; R Core Team 2020) Linear mixed effects regression models were conducted with the *lme4* package.

3. Results

3.1. Analysis of the Overall Feasibility of the Method

The overall means of the major indexes from teachers' and learners' questionnaires are reported in Table 3. Teachers' scores indicate a positive evaluation of the protocol. Moreover, none of the indexes were affected by the teachers' professional background (ease of teaching: $H(1) = 1.226, p = 0.268$; pleasure from teaching: $H(1) = 0.466, p = 0.495$; ease of learning: $H(1) = 1.226, p = 0.268$; pleasure from learning: $H(1) = 0.749, p = 0.784$; and learning benefits: $H(1) = 1.321, p = 0.250$). Teachers overall considered that they received

sufficient training, with a mean of 4.71, where 5 corresponds to “strongly agree”, and teachers with no professional background did not differ from professionals ($H(1) = 0.294$, $p = 0.587$). Teachers did not find it harder to teach affixes than roots ($V = 3$, $p = 0.233$) and they did not think that learners struggled more with affixes than with roots ($V = 7$, $p = 0.484$). Teachers’ perception of the learners’ ease of learning, pleasure from learning, and learning benefits also received high scores, although they rated them slightly lower than their own teaching experience.

Table 3. Means (standard deviation in brackets) of teachers’ and learners’ indexes on a 1–5 scale.

	Teachers’ Evaluation	Learners’ Evaluation
Ease of teaching	4.5 (0.5)	
Pleasure from teaching	4.8 (0.4)	
Ease of learning	4.4 (0.3)	3.13 (0.9)
Pleasure from learning	4.1 (0.6)	3.22 (0.9)
Learning benefits	4.4 (0.6)	3.71 (1.1)

Learners’ responses also demonstrate a positive evaluation of the protocol, even though their scores are lower than those obtained from the teachers. Spearman correlations between each of the indexes and individual variables susceptible to affect them (age, multilingualism, years of education, SES, years in the host country, L2 proficiency level, number of course hours completed, frequency of L2 practice, and perceived similarity between L1 and L2) revealed a significant positive correlation of ease of learning with age ($r(119) = 0.200$, $p = 0.029$) and perceived language similarity ($r(139) = 0.170$, $p = 0.046$), a negative correlation with frequency of language practice ($r(135) = -0.193$, $p = 0.025$) and SES ($r(132) = -0.175$, $p = 0.045$), and a marginally negative correlation with multilingualism ($r(139) = -0.161$, $p = 0.058$). Pleasure from learning correlated negatively with SES ($r(132) = -0.209$, $p = 0.017$) and marginally with multilingualism ($r(139) = -0.163$, $p = 0.055$) and frequency of L2 practice ($r(135) = -0.150$, $p = 0.082$). Learning benefit showed a positive relationship with perceived language similarity ($r(139) = 0.285$, $p < 0.001$).

Three multiple linear regression models were used to evaluate predictive relationships between each of the learning indexes and the variables they correlate with. The model on ease of learning was significant ($F(4,106) = 4.616$, $p = 0.002$, $R^2 = 0.148$) and revealed SES ($t = -2.437$, $p = 0.017$) and L2 practice ($t = -2.099$, $p = 0.038$) as significant negative predictors and perceived language similarity ($t = 2.359$, $p = 0.020$) as a significant positive predictor. The model on pleasure from learning was also significant ($F(2,129) = 5.228$, $p = 0.07$, $R^2 = 0.075$), revealing SES as a marginal negative predictor ($t = -1.859$, $p = 0.065$) and L2 practice as a significant negative predictor ($t = -2.478$, $p = 0.015$). The model on learning benefits was also significant ($F(1,137) = 15.92$, $p < 0.001$, $R^2 = 0.104$) and showed perceived language similarity as a significant positive predictor ($t = 3.99$, $p < 0.001$). A summary of the significant predictors is provided in Table 4.

Table 4. Summary of the significant predictors involved in the models of the three learners’ indexes.

	Positive Predictors	Negative Predictors
Ease of learning	Perceived language similarity	SES L2 practice
Pleasure from learning		SES L2 practice
Learning benefits	Perceived language similarity	

3.2. Analysis of Learners’ Emotions

A first model was run on emotional ratings in the entire dataset with emotion valence (positive vs. negative) and pedagogical method (standard vs. PTL) as fixed effects and participant as a random effect. The results showed a significant main effect of emotion valence ($F(1, 3196) = 2371$, $p < 0.001$), with higher ratings for positive than negative emotions, and a significant valence x method interaction ($F(1, 3196) = 8.172$, $p = 0.004$), as illustrated

in Figure 1. Resolving the interaction with the Tukey correction applied revealed lower ratings for PTL than the standard pedagogy for negative emotions ($z = 2.424, p = 0.015$), and no significant difference between the two approaches for positive emotions ($z = -1.623, p = 0.105$).

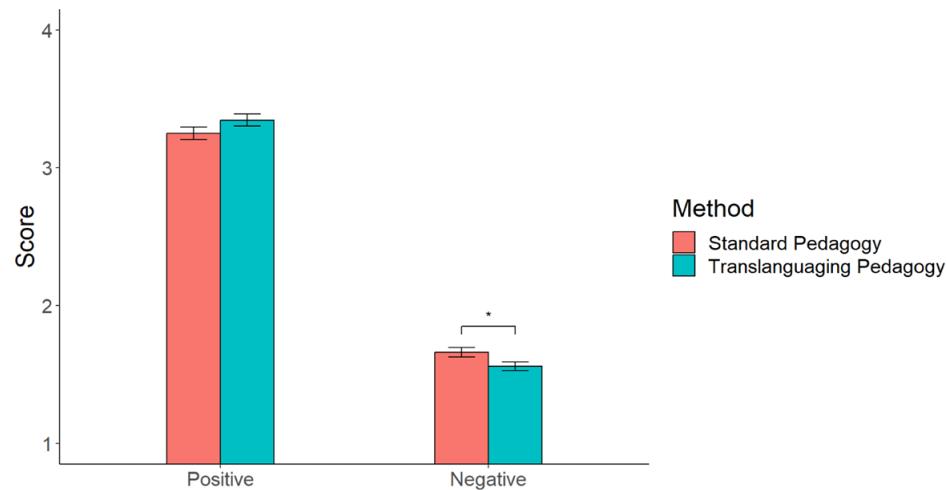


Figure 1. Mean ratings of learners' positive and negative emotions as a function of the pedagogical method. Note: * indicates $p < 0.05$.

Linear mixed effects regression models were then run on each emotion with pedagogical approach as a fixed effect and participant as a random effect. The results revealed lower ratings for PTL than the standard pedagogy for anger ($F(1,120) = 6.817, p = 0.010$), frustration ($F(1,121) = 11.821, p < 0.001$), and anxiety ($F(1,126) = 4.431, p = 0.037$); a marginal effect in the same direction for despair ($F(1,122) = 3.636, p = 0.059$); and higher ratings for PTL than the standard pedagogy for enjoyment ($F(1,120) = 5.923, p = 0.016$) and curiosity ($F(1,117) = 9.529, p = 0.003$). A summary of the emotions showing significant sensitivity to pedagogy is illustrated in Figure 2.

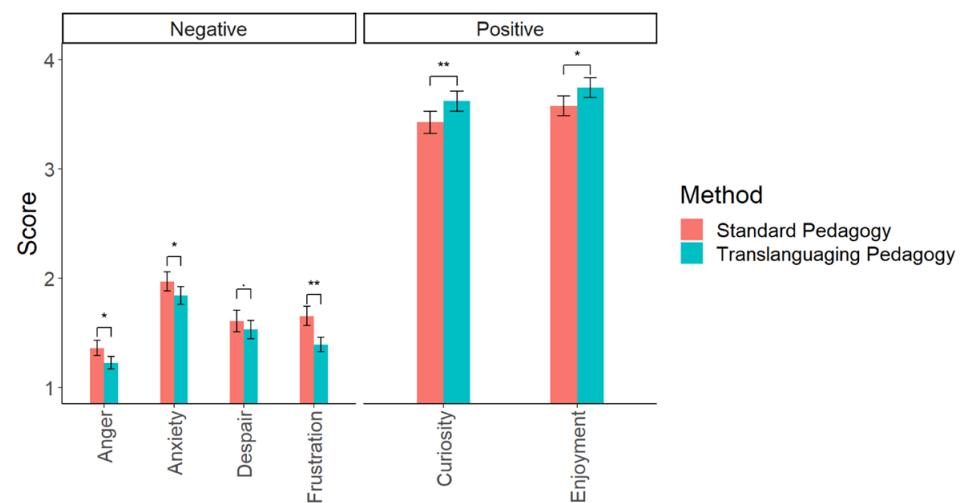


Figure 2. Mean ratings of learners' negative and positive emotions that showed significant influence of pedagogical method. Note: * indicates $p < 0.05$, ** indicates $p < 0.01$.

3.3. Analysis of the Role of Migration Status

Three two-factor between-subject analyses of variance (ANOVAs) were run with migration status (forced vs. voluntary) as a between-subject factor on the three indexes: ease of learning, pleasure from learning, and learning benefit. The results showed a higher index of overall pleasure from learning for voluntary than for forced migrants

$(F(1, 7.10) = 9.008, p = 0.003)$ and a trend toward higher ease of learning for voluntary than forced migrants $(F(1, 2.23) = 2.877, p = 0.09)$.

Linear mixed effects regression models were run on each emotion with pedagogical method and migration status as fixed effects and participant as a random effect on ratings for a given emotion. The results on enjoyment revealed a marginal effect of pedagogical method $(F(1, 106) = 2.931, p = 0.090)$ and a significant interaction $(F(1, 106) = 4.053, p = 0.047)$. Resolving the interaction with the Tukey correction showed higher enjoyment ratings in PTL than in standard pedagogy for forced migrants ($t = -2.972, p = 0.004$) and no difference between the two methods in voluntary migrants ($t = 0.193, p = 0.847$). Hope and shame revealed a main effect of migration status, with higher ratings in forced than in voluntary migrants $(F(1, 120) = 4.884, p = 0.029$ and $F(1, 118) = 4.510, p = 0.036$, respectively). Pride revealed a trend for higher ratings by forced than by voluntary migrants $(F(1, 123) = 3.389, p = 0.068)$. A summary of the emotions showing significant effect of migration status is illustrated in Figure 3.

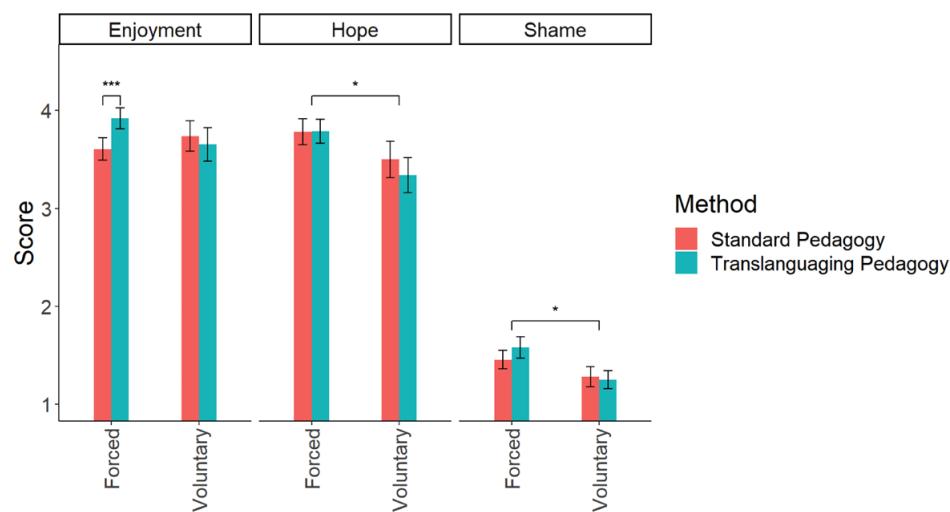


Figure 3. Mean ratings of learners' emotions that showed a significant effect of migration status, and their sensitivity to pedagogy. Note: * indicates $p < 0.05$, *** indicates $p < 0.001$.

Complementary analyses were conducted to explore the impact of migration status on achievement and epistemic emotions. A linear mixed effects regression model was run with emotion type (epistemic vs. achievement), migration status, and emotion valence as fixed effects, and participant as a random effect. The results showed a main effect of valence, with higher ratings for positive than negative emotions $(F(1, 2409) = 1811.099, p < 0.001)$ and a valence \times emotion type interaction $(F(1, 2408.60) = 62.358, p < 0.001$, see Figure 4). Resolving that interaction with the Tukey correction showed higher achievement than epistemic positive emotions ($t = 4.860, p < 0.001$) and lower achievement than epistemic negative emotions ($t = -6.249, p < 0.001$).

The model also revealed a migration status \times emotion type interaction $(F(2, 2410.27) = 11.825, p < 0.001)$, illustrated in Figure 5. Resolving that interaction with the Tukey correction showed higher achievement emotions for forced than voluntary migrants ($t = 2.585, p = 0.011$) but no difference between the two groups for epistemic emotions ($t = -0.151, p = 0.880$).

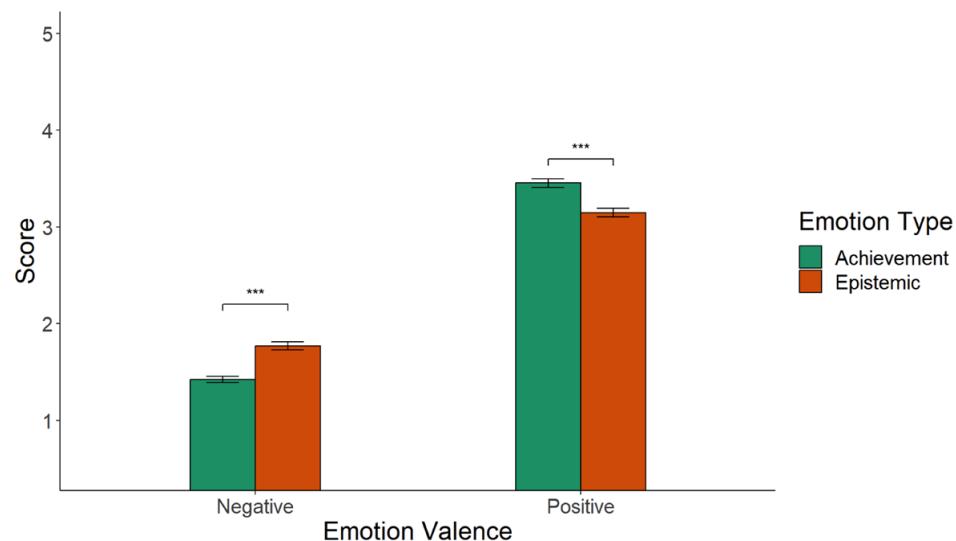


Figure 4. Mean ratings of learners' achievement and epistemic emotions as a function of their valence. Note: *** indicates $p < 0.001$.

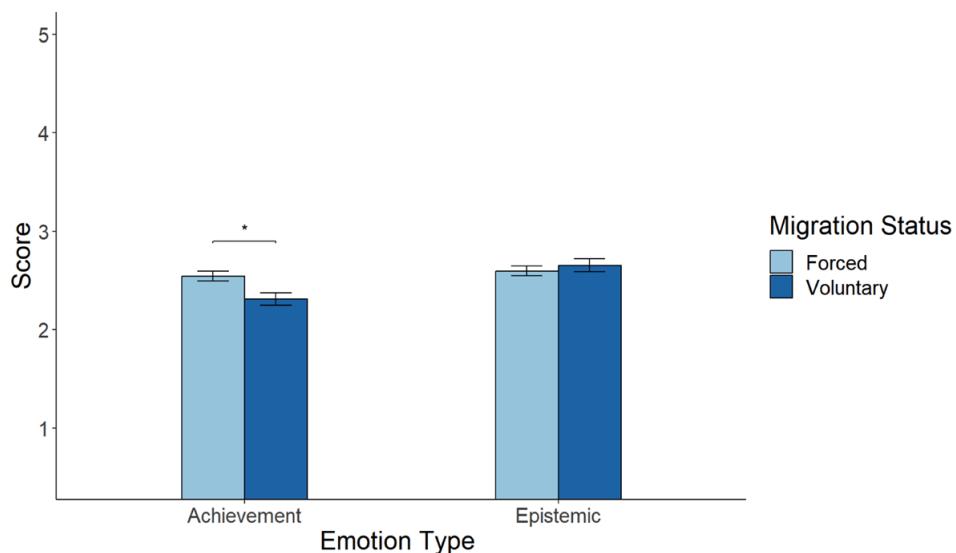


Figure 5. Mean ratings of learners' achievement and epistemic emotions as a function of their migration status. Note: * indicates $p < 0.05$.

4. Discussion

This study presents a novel pedagogical translanguaging tool to teach derivational morphology to migrants and the evaluation of this tool, through questionnaires, by 141 L2 learners and 13 language teachers involved in 23 90 min pilot lessons given in Switzerland, Greece, and France. Three major lines of results were obtained regarding the overall feasibility of the tool, learners' emotions in the classroom, and the impact of forced migration on both the feasibility of the tool and learners' emotions. These three lines are discussed in turns.

4.1. Overall Feasibility of PTL in Adult Migrants' Classroom

Both teachers and learners showed highly positive attitudes towards the PTL tool. Teachers rated their pleasure near the ceiling of the scale (4.8 on a 5-point scale), followed closely by ease of teaching. When asked to evaluate their students' ease of learning, pleasure from learning, and learning benefits of the tool, teachers rated all three above 4, showing their confidence that the tool was well appreciated by their students. Teachers did not find

it more difficult to teach affixes than roots, despite their higher level of abstraction, and they considered that the learning benefits in using the translanguaging tool was equally beneficial in the teaching of affixes and roots. This finding is important since the teaching of affixes is often considered difficult by educators and educational materials rarely focus on the systematic teaching of affixes [71].

Teachers all considered that the 90 min training they received was sufficient to grasp and implement the pedagogical tool, and none of the indexes showed sensitivity to teachers' professional background. This shows that non-professional L2 teachers with no background in linguistics or language teaching did not struggle more than professionals when guiding learners in the comparison between their native languages and the taught language. Moreover, for the most part, teachers did not speak the languages of the learners, and most of the learners had a very low L2 level (A1 or below). Hence, these specificities of migrants' L2 classrooms do not appear to constitute obstacles for teachers to the use of PTL tools, even in the teaching of rather complex structural properties of words.

Teachers were also given the opportunity to comment on their experience through qualitative feedback. An analysis of their comments also highlights teachers' overall high degree of satisfaction (e.g., "The dynamics were excellent. You made it possible for me to spend a good evening with the group"; "I found it very interesting, like the students"; and "Thank you so much for giving me the privilege to participate in this experience"), their interest in learning more about PTL (e.g., "I hope to receive further education and material on this approach (pedagogical translanguaging"), and their intention to use it in their regular classes (e.g., "I like the tool, I still have to think about how to use it in my own classes but I will use it"; "I find the worksheets very good and very useful, an example to follow for my next lessons"). It therefore appears that the PTL tool triggered teachers' enthusiasm, a feature that is crucial to the adoption of success-related values and associated emotions [71].

Learners also showed overall high rates on the three attitude indexes: the highest score was obtained for their evaluation of the learning benefits of the tool, above their pleasure from learning and ease of learning. Regarding the influence of individual factors on these indexes, a single factor appeared to positively influence both learners' ease of learning and their evaluation of the potential learning benefits of PTL: their perception of how similar their native language is to the taught language. Learners rated the lesson as overall easier and more beneficial when they felt that the two languages were close. This finding, based on subjective evaluations, is in line with the hypothesis that the cognitive mechanism underlying L2 learning is analogy: when L2 is compared to L1 and the similarities between the two languages are explicitly revealed, learners can more easily anchor new knowledge into existing knowledge through analogical reasoning [43,48].

Learners' ease of engaging in translanguaging activities was not affected by their level of formal education, which goes against the claim that metalinguistic reasoning is difficult for learners with low levels of education [72,73]. Yet, it is in line with recent research reports showing that reflection on crosslinguistic correspondences is not only feasible but also beneficial to children as young as 8 years old. It has been shown that such practices enhance children's L2 (English) vocabulary [15] but also more specifically that they improve children's morphological awareness in both their L1 and L2, their reading comprehension [74], as well as their sensitivity to ungrammaticality in the L2 [75]. Along the same lines, learners' proficiency level in L2 did not influence their ease of engaging in PTL practices either. This suggests that the tool can be implemented from the beginning proficiency levels as a scaffolding in L2 learning and that PTL techniques that explicitly draw on systematic comparisons of learners' languages are suitable even for beginners (see [76] for the successful integration of metalinguistic awareness practices for beginners).

Ease of learning and pleasure from learning were both unexpectedly negatively influenced by SES and L2 practice. Learners with higher SES found the tool less pleasurable and more difficult to use than learners with lower SES. We speculate that the negative effect of SES may reflect different expectations of L2 learners with higher education, who

may grant higher importance in maximizing the L2 input in the classroom because this is the kind of teaching practice they have been used to at school and/or because this is what is often claimed to be the right way to teach [7,9]. The finding that learners who have fewer opportunities to practice the L2 in everyday life find it easier and more pleasurable to engage in PTL activities shows that such activities may be of particular interest for learners with few opportunities to practice the taught language, as is often the case of forced migrants.

Exploration of the impact of migration type on learners' attitudes about PTL showed that forced migrants had a lower index of pleasure from learning and a trend toward lower ease of learning compared to voluntary migrants. Although forced migrants in our sample showed significantly lower levels of education than voluntary migrants, analyses showed that this variable did not influence the two indexes. We explored the possibility that the differences found between the two groups were due to differences in their perception of the similarity between the L2 and their native languages. However, no such difference was found between the groups on that variable. A more in-depth exploration of the data revealed that the lower pleasure observed in forced migrants actually lied in learners tested in Greece: forced migrants tested in Greece enjoyed reflecting on their native language less and felt more tense to do so than voluntary migrants, while no such difference was found in learners tested in Switzerland. Further investigation is needed to understand the lower pleasure from learning found in Greece.

In summary, our study shows that learners were able to engage in the systematic, explicit linking between their existing languages' knowledge and the new language since

- (i) Teachers attested that learners were able to perform the activities designed to require learners to reflect on the roots and the affixes of the new language and to compare them with those of their native language, as shown by the high scores they gave to questions related to their learners' ease of learning and learning benefits;
- (ii) Learners attested that they were able to perform these language comparison activities, as shown by the high scores they gave to questions related to their ease of learning and learning benefits.

These results indicate that our protocol allowed learners to engage in analogical reasoning, despite the challenge of migrants' classrooms involving a variety of languages that teachers do not speak.

4.2. Learners' Emotions in the Language Classroom

The results show that overall, migrant learners experience more positive emotions than negative emotions in the language classroom, in line with recent data obtained with a similar methodology on students following foreign language teaching lessons in their own country [62].

A comparison between learners' emotions in the PTL classroom and in their usual classroom showed overall no difference between the two settings for positive emotions, but a significant reduction in negative emotions in the PTL classroom. A more in-depth analysis of the effect of pedagogy on individual emotions showed that enjoyment and curiosity were significantly higher in the PTL than the usual classroom, whereas anger; frustration; and to some extent, despair (trend) were lower. Anxiety was also rated significantly lower in the PTL setting. These results align with and extend to a new population of L2 learners, with fine subjective measures, from previous studies that reported benefits from PTL on learners' well-being [12,14,16,17,67]. The control-value theory of emotions identifies two cognitive appraisals of emotions: learners' perceptions of control and value [57]. Control refers to the learners' perception of their ability to produce the actions necessary for task success, indicating how capable the individual feels of accomplishing the learning. Value pertains to the importance attached to the task. High levels of perceived control and value over the learning activities are assumed to evoke positive emotional experiences while low levels of control are expected to elicit negative emotions. Based on its essence, PTL sets learners at the heart of their learning process and therefore in the position of controlling

it: in migrants' classrooms where teachers do not speak their native languages, learners are actively engaged in reflecting on the similarities between languages and sharing the output of their own insights with teachers who act as guides, rather than the main source of knowledge and information. This peculiar relation between learners and their teacher puts the learners in the position of the one who has the knowledge, which is conveyed to the teacher, which not only sets learners in a control position but also grants a special value to their native language and probably to the L2 learning task itself. The present study only assessed emotions, and not their appraisals. However, recent research has validated the major tenets of the control-value theory in a group of foreign language learners [62], and preliminary evidence from our own laboratory on a wide sample of migrants suggests that not only do control and value play a key role in emotions but also both these appraisals and emotions significantly benefit from the use of PTL tools in the classroom.

The results showed that forced migrants like voluntary migrants experience overall higher positive than negative emotions and that the intensity of emotions does not differ across the two groups. Nevertheless, a finer approach to individual emotions suggests differences between forced and voluntary migrants. Forced migrants showed more hope and shame than voluntary migrants. L2 courses may be regarded by forced migrants as a window to the society and the culture of the host country, particularly since they are in the process of integrating into the host country: they usually are unemployed, do not have a permanent shelter, and have no or very few contacts with the locals. L2 courses constitute the first and very important step of their integration and may give forced migrants hope for the possibility of a new beginning. At the same time, shame is more intense in forced than in voluntary migrants. Shame refers to a self-conscious feeling that entails reflection and evaluation of the self [77]. This negative emotion is usually characterized by a sense of worthlessness and is often accompanied by negative self-evaluation; enthusiasm for quitting; and a sense of distrust, helplessness, and insignificance. Interestingly, shame has also been argued to arise from fear [78]. Hence, it is plausible that the stressors encountered in the host country contribute to triggering feelings of shame [79]. The greater feelings of shame in the L2 classroom reported in the present study may thus reflect a more general feeling that forced migrants experience in the host countries and not a specific emotion experienced only in the language courses, as they are aware that the host countries and communities often look upon them with skepticism and suspicion and conceive them as a complication rather than as enrichment of the society.

Forced migrants also differed from voluntary migrants in that they reported feeling significantly more enjoyment in the PTL lesson than in their usual language classroom, a difference that was not found in voluntary migrants. This result suggests that the lower indexes of pleasure and ease of engaging in specific translanguaging activities discussed in the previous section cannot be attributed to forced migrants' emotional stance regarding the PTL lesson. Forced migrants did not leave their country by their own will and hence they may be missing their country, families, friends, etc. PTL activities represent a unique opportunity for them to reflect on their own language and, by extension, on their own country and everything they left behind, a task in which they appear to take particular pleasure.

To our knowledge, achievement and epistemic emotions have not been examined conjointly in previous research. Exploratory analyses of the current data set show an interesting interaction between valence and emotion type: while positive achievement emotions (hope, pride, and enjoyment) were rated higher than positive epistemic emotions (surprise, curiosity, and excitement), negative achievement emotions (despair, anger, and shame) were rated lower than negative epistemic emotions (confusion and frustration). This suggests that in the L2 classroom, the most salient positive emotions are those experienced in relation to the learning accomplishments, i.e., achievement emotions, whereas the most salient negative emotions are those related to the cognitive processes involved in learning, i.e., epistemic emotions. Moreover, our data suggest that forced migrants differ from voluntary migrants in showing higher achievement emotions altogether. Forced migrants

may grant stronger value and have a stronger intrinsic motivation to succeed in language learning because it is closely tied to their immediate needs for survival and integration. This heightened value and motivation can lead to more intense achievement emotions, both positive and negative [59].

5. Conclusions

This study shows that both teachers and learners experienced pedagogical translanguaging practices as a relevant language learning tool that is easy to apply, generates pleasure in teaching as well as in learning, and is susceptible to bring learning benefits. Importantly, the fact that teachers do not master the learners' native languages or that they do not necessarily have a professional background in second language teaching and linguistics is not an obstacle in guiding learners in their reflection on comparing their second to first languages. Moreover, although forced migrants showed overall lower indexes of pleasure from learning and ease of learning than voluntary migrants, their level of education did not impact the subjective ease of engaging into metalinguistic reasoning, suggesting that a low level of education, which often characterizes forced migrants, does not exclude the use of PTL pedagogies. Additionally, bringing the learners' languages into the classroom appears to be a relevant tool for reducing overall negative emotions, more particularly anger, frustration, anxiety, and despair, and enhancing positive emotions, more particularly enjoyment and curiosity. Moreover, forced migrants reported more enjoyment with the PTL approach compared to the standard classroom, which supports its socio-emotional benefits for migrant education. This study also highlighted that forced migrants have more achievement—but not epistemic—emotions than voluntary migrants, which further emphasizes the significant impact of positive achievement emotions such as hope, pride, and enjoyment, on migrant language learning.

Although the current study brings encouraging results, given the key role that emotions play in L2 learning, the assessment of the PTL tool is entirely based on subjective measures, i.e., teachers' and learners' attitudes towards the intervention. Capitalizing on these preliminary results, future research now needs to establish the direct benefits of PTL practices on language learning and more specifically on enhancing awareness about morphological structure and analysis, via an adequate evidence-based protocol.

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Institutional Review Board Statement: The study was conducted in accordance with the Declaration of Helsinki, and approved by the ethics commission of the University of Geneva (CUREG-2022-02-33; Date: 12 April 2022).

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

Data Availability Statement: The data presented in this study are available on request from the corresponding author.

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Conflicts of Interest: The authors declare no conflict of interest.

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