

Inclusive Foreign Language Assessment in Trying Times: Pre-service Teachers' Attribution Mechanisms and Their Implications for Inclusive Emergency Remote Teaching

Julia Weltgen, University of Bremen, Germany
Joanna Pfingsthorn, University of Bremen, Germany

The European Conference on Education 2021
Official Conference Proceedings

Abstract

The main goal of foreign language education (FLE) to foster intercultural communicative competence implies the need to include and connect diverse learners (e.g. Council of Europe, 2001) and thereby aligns itself with key principles of inclusive education. Yet, the pursuit of communicative competence (CC) is a task that often divides rather than includes. In the German context FLE was long regarded not worth pursuing among students with special educational needs (cf. Kleinert et al. 2007; Morse 2008; Dose 2019). As a construct, CC is also multifaceted enough to display considerable individual differences between learners. In research, “good learners” have been linked with higher levels of FL success compared than to “low-achieving” or “poor” learners (e.g. Ganschow & Sparks 1995; Nunan, 1995). Such categorizations can hardly be considered inclusive (Clough & Corbett 2000). In fact, attributing “poor” observable behavior (e.g. “does not keep a conversation going”) to dispositional traits (e.g. “is a poor learner”), rather than to external factors (e.g. “does not like the task”) is one of the most commonly documented biases in social perception research, called the fundamental attribution error (Ross, 1977). Errors of this sort are likely to happen when assessment takes place under uncertainty or is based on limited contact with learners, e.g. in emergency remote teaching settings. This contribution presents the results of a quantitative questionnaire study which confirms that (pre-service) FL teachers are indeed prone to the fundamental attribution error in their evaluation of FL learners and discusses implications for remote emergency assessment.

Keywords: Foreign Language Education, Inclusive Education, Fundamental Attribution Error, Attribution in Assessment

iafor

The International Academic Forum
www.iafor.org

Introduction

Inclusive educational settings ensure that all learners, and especially those with special educational needs or vulnerable to marginalization, can actively partake in learning (cf. Booth & Ainscow 2002). In such learning environments teachers need to be able to engage in careful, fair, evidence based pedagogic observation and evaluation of their students, which is not necessarily an easy goal to achieve (cf. Corbett 1999; Barton & Slee 1999; Hall, Collins, Benjamin, Nind & Sheehy 2004). In concrete terms, teachers need to be able to diagnose learning prerequisites and processes and support pupils in an appropriate manner, to advise them and their parents, as well as to recognize developmental stages, learning potentials, learning obstacles and learning progress within individuals in a reliable manner (cf. KMK 2016 for the German context).

However, research into social psychology suggests that individuals often misattribute causes of observed behavior of other people or events that involve them. Individuals – including teachers in inclusive educational contexts – tend to fall prey to the so-called fundamental attribution error (Ross 1977), or Correspondence Bias (Jones & Davis 1965). Fundamental attribution error stands for the tendency to overemphasize the role of dispositional and personality-based explanations of behavior, while underemphasizing situational explanations. Because attribution in general tends to be a fast and automatic process, it is not necessarily under the control of the individual (cf. Fiske & Taylor 2016).

In this paper, we take a closer look at attribution processes involved in the assessment of written performance in a foreign language classroom. We explore the question to what extent prospective (foreign language) teachers have the tendency to attribute the observed language performance of a pupil to his or her disposition rather than to external or situational factors, and thereby commit fundamental attribution error. In this way, we pose the question to what degree prospective foreign language teachers are able to offer fair, evidence-based and objective, and hence inclusive assessment to their pupils. By extension, we also focus on the question to what extent foreign language teachers falsely assign labels to pupils, which runs the risk of stigmatizing or marginalizing them.

Theoretical Background

In social psychology, attribution refers to the process by which individuals assign causes to behaviors and events. It is a fast and automatic process that becomes apparent to the individual only through explicit reflection (Fiske & Taylor 2016), meaning that our perception of causality is error prone and subject to cognitive bias. An example of such bias is the so-called fundamental attribution error (Ross 1977), or Correspondence Bias (Jones & Davis 1965). It stands for the tendency to overemphasize the role of dispositional and personality-based explanations of behavior, while underemphasizing situational explanations. In other words, instead of assuming that external forces – such as situational demands, social norms or pressure – are the factors that drive behaviors, people tend to believe that behavior of others reflects their stable personality traits or qualities. Empirical studies also suggest that corrections of these first attributions are particularly challenging: Conclusions about a person are often influenced by the first impression in the long term (see Fiske & Taylor 2017; Wilson & Brekke 1994). In this sense, fundamental attribution error depends on whether the observer reflects on the meaning of the observed behavior. If the observer engages in such an action, individuals tend to adjust the dispositional inferences that they make to situational constraints (Weary et al. 2001).

Although fundamental attribution error is assumed to be relatively stable, a number of factors may modify its intensity. Firstly, the occurrence of fundamental attribution error may depend on the disposition in question. Reeder and Brewer (1979) suggest that some personality characteristics, e.g. friendliness, curiosity or cooperativeness are typically associated with a relatively wide spectrum of behaviors. This implies that we are likely to accept that a friendly person may sometimes act moderately or possibly even very unfriendly in some situations, without losing the general label of being friendly. At the same time, we tend to conceptualize other dispositions, such as extroversion, leadership or abilities to perform a certain task in reference to a different schema. Here, we tend to assume that the observed extreme behavior is sufficient to determine the attribute, i.e. a single win of a chess player is informative of his or her talent for chess and a single extremely dishonest example of behavior is “sufficient to produce a confident attribution that the actor is dishonest” (Reeder & Brewer, 1979: 68).

In addition, fundamental attribution error depends on cognitive load. With more cognitive load, people tend to neglect less salient contextual features and focus on the most meaningful aspects of a situation (Chun et al. 2002). Dispositional attribution also depends on the perceived accountability of judgment. When people feel accountable for their judgment, they tend to reduce dispositional attributions (Tetlock, 1985). Last but not least, the level of familiarity influences the likelihood of dispositional attribution. The stronger the familiarity, the more non-dispositional factors are taken into consideration when judgment is made (Idson & Mischel, 2001; Wellbourne 2001; Reeder et al 2004). All of these factors become especially relevant under emergency remote teaching conditions, which frequently cause stress, diminish the amount of learner-teacher time, leaving less space for teachers to engage in careful consideration of what causes could be behind students’ performance (Misirli & Ergulec, 2021).

The specific case of foreign language education exemplifies why fundamental attribution error can exert a negative influence on fair assessment. The rationale behind it has to do with the complexity of the subject matter, learner diversity that is associated with it and how learners have been labeled in the literature. These dependencies are delineated in the following section.

European educational policy makers envision the development of communicative competence to be the main goal of institutionalized foreign language education (Council of Europe 2001; KMK 2012). They presuppose that functional communicative competence in a foreign language encompasses the development of a number of subcompetences: linguistic competence, which covers the use of lexical, phonological and syntactic knowledge applied in various modalities, sensitivity to social conventions of language use, e.g. in terms of politeness, situationally appropriate use of various language forms and functions as well as intercultural competence, i.e. the ‘knowledge, motivation and skills needed to interact effectively and appropriately with members of different cultures’ (Wiseman 2002, p. 8). This relatively long list of various competences, types of knowledge and affective variables turns the subject matter into a quite complex and multidimensional construct, which cannot be learned easily by everyone in a straight-forward and comparable manner.

Individual differences observed between various foreign language learners have spurred efforts to create profiles of ‘good language learners’, who experience higher levels of success at foreign language learning (Brown 2001; Nunan, 1995; Ushioda 2008). ‘Good learners’ have been believed to e.g. develop strategies to keep a conversation going, learn different styles of speech to vary their language according to the needs of the situation, make intelligent guesses, use their linguistic knowledge of the mother tongue and the world to help themselves through the learning process, be creative and experiment with language, also outside the classroom

(Nunan 1995). Moody (1988) additionally claims that language students pursuing a degree in a foreign language tend to show personality traits typically associated with introversion, e.g. being oriented towards the inner world and considering deeply before acting to a lesser degree than other college samples. By extension, learners who do not qualify as 'good' experience learning difficulties in a number of areas. In fact, substantial research attention has been given to populations of learners classified as 'low-achieving', 'poor', or 'at-risk for learning' (e.g. Ganschow & Sparks 1995). Some of the learning patterns observed among these populations can be associated with Sparks and Ganschow's (1991) Linguistic Coding Differences Hypothesis, which proposes that if problems with certain language rule systems occur in the mother tongue, they will carry over onto the foreign language because of their neurological, behavioral, cognitive and environmental complexity. One such common learning difference is dyslexia, which has indeed been shown to act as a challenging factor in the foreign language learning process (Brady & Shankweiler, 1991; Nijakowska, 2008; Ramus et al., 2003). Other investigations suggest that foreign language learners who are less likely to succeed tend to lack positive appreciation of their abilities and chances of success, or self-confidence (Bandura, 1986). Masgoret and Gardner's (2003) meta-analysis also shows a modest but significant correlation between motivation and achievement in foreign language learning. Students experiencing learning difficulties tend to lose their motivation to learn languages (Kormos & Csizér, 2010) and develop symptoms of language anxiety (Sparks & Ganschow 1991). Language anxiety – due to worry and intrusive thoughts – has also been shown to negatively affect working memory capacity and consequently reduce the processing of input and production of output (Eysenck & Calvo, 1992).

The results of these studies provide an insight into what has been identified as more and less favorable conditions or traits that make the learning of a foreign language easier or more difficult. Some of these efforts have relied on the use of labels or categorization of learners, which inadvertently could lead to the perpetuation of the conviction that foreign language learning is not meant for or essential to everyone (c.f. Kleinert, Cloyd, Rego & Gibson 2007), or that some learners may underperform just because they exhibit certain traits. In fact, as Dose (2019) documents in her study, German foreign language teachers of English express that they do in fact place different expectations on different groups of students in inclusive settings, especially with respect to their educational goals. Although some English teachers seem to be somewhat dissatisfied with their actions, they do engage in a pre-selection of contents and topics for learners with special educational needs (Dose 2019: 212). They also differentiate their perception of how important different sub-competences are for different groups of learners. For example, competences such as writing or translating are regarded as 'less important', especially for learners with target-specific training (ibid. 200). In addition, although the basic mode of instruction is English only, learners labeled as needing special support receive it in German (ibid., 153ff). In this sense, teachers seem to be prejudging their students' chances of success at foreign language learning based on their profiles.

Foreign language teachers of English in German inclusive school systems also report a significant perceived burden of responsibility, for which they rarely find support in possible teamwork with inclusive teachers, as other subjects are considered more important (cf. ibid.). In particular, it is emphasized that inclusive teachers (i.e. the possible supportive agents) are often responsible for all classes of different grades, which increases their burden of preparation, implementation and evaluation. Especially if less than 50% of the lessons per class are scheduled to be taught, these teachers have to teach many more classes than subject teachers (ibid. 144ff.). This means that establishing a well-functioning social environment, in which cooperative learning is fostered is difficult. However, it is precisely this relationship work that

is seen as an essential criterion in order to be able to provide good teaching (c.f. Dose 2019), next to the availability of resources, suitable teaching material and individualized teaching (Springob, 2016).

In summary, scientific discussions in foreign language education have encouraged assigning labels to learners related to their success at the subject matter, classroom behavior, affective states, cognition and affective states. This poses the risk that foreign language educators operate under this premise and are potentially unfair in their assessment or inaccurate in their attribution if they prejudge their students based on these categories. In addition, some inclusive settings (e.g. in Germany) show that teachers feel overwhelmed in their quest to support all learners in their foreign language learning processes, which can potentially lead to excessive levels of stress and/or cognitive load. This has posed a particular challenge in the remote emergency teaching during the Covid-19 pandemic: In the German context it has been reported that pupils with a disability or special educational needs could not benefit from the regular personal contact with teachers and classmates as well as from a typical daily structure during the lockdown, which meant that they were deprived of some crucial elements of their educational experience (Goldan, Geist & Lütje-Klose, 2020). Even before the lockdown, some teachers reported excluding certain pupils from the foreign language learning experience either by providing them with alternative materials, less input in the target language or by offering them no possibility to participate in the foreign language classes at all. Teachers also reported that forming meaningful relationships with students can be difficult – these challenges were not made easier under the conditions of the pandemic. Tying these results back to the findings discussed in the sections above, it becomes apparent that these conditions are favorable to the occurrence of fundamental attribution error.

In view of this, the empirical part of this paper explores the questions of the extent to which prospective (foreign language) teachers attribute the observed language performance of a pupil to his or her disposition rather than to external or situational factors.

Method

A total of 53 university students filled out a questionnaire. 53% were enrolled in the study programme Inclusive Pedagogy (IP); the vast majority of students, namely 74%, were pursuing a Master's degree in Education. 34 students stated that they were studying with the goal of becoming a foreign language teacher of English.

The questionnaire recorded demographic data of the participants and measured their attribution tendencies. To measure the extent to which participants were able to avoid committing the fundamental attribution error, they were presented with an example of a student's written performance. The text was elicited as a response to the following prompt: 'Please write a short text about yourself and your hobbies! Who are you? Where do you live? What do you like to do?' and was taken from an empirical study of written production in English as a foreign language among German pupils (Gerlach, 2019).

The task of the participants was to assess the performance of the pupil and decide on the probability of various causes that might have led to it. The possible causes that were presented were divided into external (i.e. the student did not like the task, the student was distracted, had a bad day) or internal (i.e. the student is not motivated, dislikes English classes, does not work in a disciplined way) ones. The possible answers that participants could choose from were very unlikely, unlikely, open, likely and very likely.

The evaluation of the probability of potential causes that the observed behavior can be attributed to have been used in empirical studies, which generally relied on presenting participants with scenarios of individuals with particular personality-traits being placed in a particular situation. The dependent variable was an estimate of the probability that a certain trait-related behavioral pattern is likely to occur in the future in various situational contexts (e.g. Nisbett, Caputo, Legant & Maracek 1973; Ross & Nisbett 1991).

Results

Figure 1 shows the response frequencies to the suggestion that the observed written performance of the pupil could be attributed to external factors such as liking the task, having bad day, or being distracted. The data reveal that about 35% of the prospective teachers that took part in the study consider liking the task to be (very) unlikely. In addition, only about 4% of the participants believe it likely – based on the pupil’s performance – that he or she might have had a bad day when writing the text. About 38% consider it (very) unlikely that the pupil might have been distracted while writing the task (see Fig. 1).

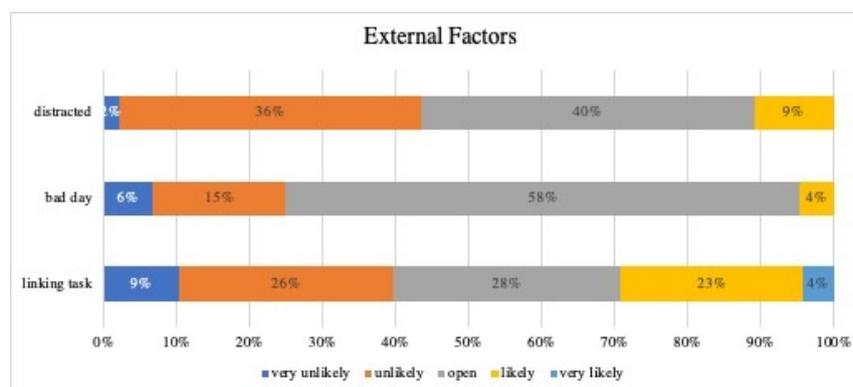


Figure 1: Assessment of External Factors as a Cause of the Pupil’s Performance, Relative Frequency, N = 53, Presented without No Response

Since only a single example of performance in assessment situations is unlikely to serve as a decisive basis for attributing a concrete cause, it is precisely these answers that almost categorically exclude external factors as a cause that are to be evaluated in this context as symptoms of attribution errors.

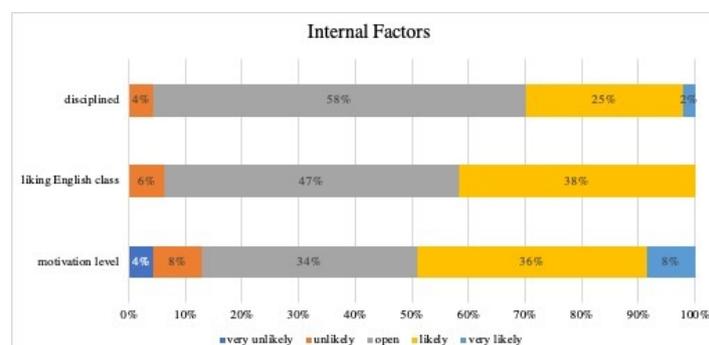


Figure 2: Assessment of Internal Factors as a Cause of Student Performance, Relative Frequency, N = 53, Presented without No Response

The reverse is true with respect to the responses to the potential role of various internal factors (see Fig. 2). Over 44% of the participants believe that the relatively poor performance of the

student could be linked with the motivation level. Similarly, almost 40% of the participants believe that it is likely that the pupil shows enjoyment or liking of English classes and about 25% said that they thought it likely that the learner was disciplined. In this particular case, any reference to dispositional characteristics of the pupil – in either positive or negative direction – is misplaced if it is based on a solitary example of language performance. In this sense, it becomes clear that prospective teachers (majority of whom were pre-service foreign language teachers) are unable to escape the trap of committing fundamental attribution error in that they primarily think in terms of dispositions and not situational factors.

Nevertheless: despite the relatively consistent tendency to fall prey to attribution errors, it must be emphasized that about a half of all the respondents (58%) chose the option open/cannot tell when asked to decide whether it was probable that the pupil had a bad day. Compared to other external factors, ‘having a bad day’ seems like a more plausible explanation that many respondents can accept. This implies that some external factors that are possible causes of performance are more likely to be considered than others. Thus, the intensity of the disposition errors varies.

Conclusions

The results of the study demonstrate that despite the dire need and efforts to shape assessment in (foreign language) education in a fair, objective, scientific and inclusive manner, prospective teachers from the German educational context do not manage to completely avoid automatic bias such as fundamental attribution error. Rather, they show a tendency to focus on dispositional factors and overlook potential situational causes that could contribute to the observed language performance of a student. In this sense, the participants in our study seem to assume that single extreme examples of learners' behavior or performance can be interpreted as sufficient signals of disposition (cf. Reeder & Brewer, 1979).

These patterns can be especially problematic in emergency remote teaching, if the time spent with the students is limited and if digital lessons lead to higher levels of stress. In fact, it is expected that if teachers are not provided with sufficient time to reflect on their assessment and evaluation of students or of their work, they may be prone to ignore situational constraints in their judgment of students (cf. Chun et al. 2002; Tetlock, 1985; Weary et al. 2001). In a similar vein, stress or cognitive load can contribute to an increased ignorance of contextual factors (cf. Chun et al. 2002).

Interestingly enough, given the chance to reflect on their choices in the debriefing following the questionnaire, some of the participants report the tendency to minimize unnecessary jumps to dispositional conclusions through self-imposed self-reflection (cf. Weary et al. 2001). The debriefing phase also addressed the importance of fair and inclusive diagnostic processes in (foreign language education) and drew on the direct experience from everyday school life (e.g. through internships) of the participants. In these discussions with the participants, it became clear that the perceived responsibility for the diagnostic judgement does tend to contribute to rethinking their dispositional attribution (cf. Tetlock 1985). Above all, the debriefing also revealed the impact that familiarity between the teacher and the learners can exert on attribution processes reported in previous studies (cf. Idson & Mischel 2001; Wellbourne 2001; Reeder et al. 2004), which underscores the dire need to focus on ways that allow for establishing flourishing student-teacher relationships in emergency remote settings.

Some potential weaknesses of the empirical study need to be addressed: the participants were only presented with one instance of written performance, which in itself was relatively weak. Ideally, similar data should be collected as a response to a contrastive good example of written work in a foreign language, potentially with a variation of the pupils' levels. One could also argue that providing more background information on the author of the text would warrant more familiarity with the person and would mimic authentic classroom conditions in a more accurate way. In addition, while the basic design of the study, including the estimates of the probabilities associated with various possible causes is not uncommon in the field of social psychology and the investigations into fundamental attribution error, it could be argued that the given reasons are suggestive.

Yet, one conclusion that cannot be refuted is the observation that (foreign language) teacher education would surely benefit from a more extensive, open discussion of the potential traps within diagnostic attributional processes that are partially automatic and still need to be avoided in all educational systems, but most of all in the ones that call themselves inclusive and reject the notion of unfair and unnecessary stigmatizing of particular students, especially with regard to the new digital or emergency remote educational reality.

References

- Bandura, A. (1986). Fearful Expectations and Avoidant Actions as Coeffects of Perceived Self-Efficacy. *American Psychologist*. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0003-066X.41.12.1389>
- Barton, L. & Slee, R. (1999). Competition, Selection and Inclusive Education. *International Journal of Inclusive Education*, 3, 3-12.
- Brady, S. A., & Shankweiler, D. P. (Eds.). (1991). *Phonological processes in literacy: A tribute to Isabelle Y. Liberman*. Hillsdale, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates, Inc.
- Booth, T. & Ainscow, M. (2003). *Index for Inclusion: Developing Learning and Participation in Schools*. Centre for Studies on Inclusive Education. Bristol.
- Brown, D. (2001). *Teaching by Principle*. White Plains: Addison Wesley Longman.
- Chun, W. Y., Spiegel, S. & Kruglanski, A. W. (2002). Assimilative Behavior Identification Can Also Be Resource Dependent: The Unimodel Perspective on Personal-Attribution Phases. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 83(3), 542–555. doi: 10.1037//0022-3514.83.3.542.
- Clough, P. and Corbett, J. (2000). *Theories of Inclusive Education: A Student's Guide*. SAGE.
- Corbett, J. (1999). Inclusive education and school culture. *International Journal of Inclusive Education*, 3 (1), 53–61.
- Council of Europe. (2001). *Common European Framework of Reference for Languages: Learning, Teaching, Assessment*. Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.
- Dose, J. (2019). *Inklusiver Englischunterricht – Eine empirische Studie zum Status quo in der Sekundarstufe I*. Wiesbaden.
- Eysenck, M. W., & Calvo, M. G. (1992). Anxiety and Performance: The Processing Efficiency Theory. *Cognition and Emotion*, 6(6), 409–434. <https://doi.org/10.1080/02699939208409696>
- Fiske, S. T. & Taylor, S. E. (2016). *Social Cognition: From Brains to Culture*. London: Sage.
- Ganschow, L. & Sparks, R. (1995). Effects of direct instruction in Spanish phonology on the native language skills and foreign language aptitude of at-risk foreign language learners. *Journal of Learning Disabilities*, 28, 107–120. <https://doi.org/10.1177/002221949502800205>
- Gerlach, D. (2019). *Lese-Rechtschreib-Schwierigkeiten (LRS) im Fremdsprachenunterricht*. Narr.

- Gewirtz, S. (2000). Bringing the Politics Back In: A Critical Analysis of Quality Discourses in Education. *British Journal of Educational Studies*, 48(4), 352-370. <https://doi.org/10.1111/1467-8527.00152>
- Goldan, J., Geist, S. & Lütje-Klose, B. (2020). Schüler*innen mit sonderpädagogischem Förderbedarf während der Corona-Pandemie. Herausforderungen und Möglichkeiten der Förderung – das Beispiel der Laborschule Bielefeld. In: D. Fickermann & B. Edelstein, Benjamin (Eds). *“Langsam vermisste ich die Schule ...”Schule während und nach der Corona-Pandemie*, (pp. 189-201). Münster, New York: Waxmann.
- Hall, K., Collins, J., Benjamin, S., Nind, M. & Sheeh, K. (2004). SATurated models of pupildom: Assessment and Inclusion/Exclusion. *British Educational Research Journal*, 30(6), 801–817. <https://doi.org/10.1080/0141192042000279512>
- Idson, L.C. & Mischel, W. (2001). The personality of familiar and significant people: The lay perceiver as a social–cognitive theorist. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 80(4), 585–596. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0022-3514.80.4.585>
- Jones, E. E. & Davis, K. E. (1965). From acts to dispositions. The attribution process in person perception. *Advances in Experimental Social Psychology*, 2, 219–266. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0065-2601\(08\)60107-0](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0065-2601(08)60107-0).
- Kleinert, H. L., Cloyd, E., Rego, M. & Gibson, J. (2007). Students with Disabilities: Yes, Foreign Language Instruction is Important! *TEACHING Exceptional Children*, 39(3), 24–29. <https://doi.org/10.1177/004005990703900304>
- (KMK) Kultusministerkonferenz (2012). Bildungsstandards für die fortgeführte Fremdsprache (Englisch/Französisch) für die Allgemeine Hochschulreife. https://www.kmk.org/fileadmin/veroeffentlichungen_beschluesse/2012/2012_10_18-Bildungsstandards-Fortgef-FS-Abi.pdf
- Kormos, J. & Smith, A. M. (2012). *Teaching languages to students with specific learning differences*. Bristol: Multilingual Matters.
- Kormos, J., & Csizér, K. (2010). A comparison of the foreign language learning motivation of Hungarian dyslexic and non-dyslexic students. *International Journal of Applied Linguistics*, 20(2), 232–250. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1473-4192.2009.00247.x>
- Masgoret, A. M., & Gardner, R. C. (2003). Attitudes, motivation, and second language learning: A meta-analysis of studies conducted by Gardner and associates. *Language Learning*. <https://doi.org/10.1111/1467-9922.00212>
- Misirli, O., & Ergulec, F. (2021). Emergency remote teaching during the COVID-19 pandemic: Parents experiences and perspectives, *Education and Information Technologies*, <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10639-021-10520-4>
- Moody, R. (1988). Personality Preferences and Foreign Language Learning. *The Modern Language Journal*, 72(4), 389-401. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1540-4781.1988.tb04198.x>

- Morse, D. (2008). Englisch an der Schule für Lernhilfe – Arbeiten in einem Netzwerk mit dem Wunsch nach Etablierung. *Behindertenpädagogik*, 47(4), 422-428.
- Nijkowska, J. (2008). An experiment with direct multisensory instruction in teaching word reading and spelling to Polish dyslexic learners of English. In *Language Learners with Special Needs: An International Perspective*.
<https://doi.org/10.21832/9781847690913-008>
- Nisbett, R. E., Caputo, C., Legant, P. & Marecek, J. (1973). Behavior as seen by the actor and as seen by the observer. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 27(2), 154–164. <https://doi.org/10.1037/h0034779>
- Nunan, D. (1995). *Language Teaching Methodology*. Hemel Hempstead: Phoenix ELT.
- Ramus, F., Rosen, S., Dakin, S. C., Day, B. L., Castellote, J. M., White, S., & Frith, U. (2003). Theories of developmental dyslexia: insights from a multiple case study of dyslexic adults. *Brain*, 126(4), 841–865. <https://doi.org/10.1093/brain/awg076>
- Reeder, G. D. & Brewer, M. (1979). A schematic model of dispositional attribution in interpersonal perception. *Psychological Review*, 86(1), 61–79.
<https://doi.org/10.1037/0033-295X.86.1.61>
- Ross, L. (1977). The intuitive psychologist and his shortcomings: Distortions in the attribution process. In: L. Berkowitz (Ed.) (p.173-220), *Advances in experimental social psychology 10*. New York.
- Ross, L. & Nisbett, R. E. (1991). *The person and the situation: Perspectives of social psychology*. Philadelphia: Temple University Press.
- Springob, J. (2016). Die ersten Schritte sind gemacht: Inklusiver Englischunterricht an einem Gymnasium – Herausforderung und Chance. In C. M. Bongartz & A. Rohde (Eds.), *Inklusion im Englischunterricht*. <https://doi.org/10.3726/978-3-653-05268-8/13>
- Tetlock, P. E. (1985). Accountability: A Social Check on the Fundamental Attribution Error. *Social Psychology Quarterly*, 48(3), 227–236.
- Ushioda, E. (2008). Motivation and good language learners. In C. Griffiths (Ed.), *Lessons from Good Language Learners* (p.19–34). Cambridge: Cambridge University
- Weary, G., Reich, D. A., & Tobin, S. J. (2001). The Role of Contextual Constraints and Chronic Expectancies on Behavior Categorizations and Dispositional Inferences. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin*, 27(1), 62–75.
- Welbourne, Jennifer L. 2001. Changes in Impression Complexity Over Time and Across Situations. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin* 27.
<https://doi.org/10.1177/0146167201279001>
- Wilson, T. D. & Brekke, N. (1994). Mental contamination and mental correction: Unwanted influences on judgments and evaluations. *Psychological Bulletin*, 116(1), 117–142.
<https://doi.org/10.1037/0033-2909.116.1.117>

Wiseman, R. L. (2002). Intercultural communication competence. In W. B. Gudykunst, & B. Mody (Eds.): *Handbook of international and intercultural communication*, (pp. 207-224). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.