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Principles and practices of non-native English speaking tertiary teachers in Thailand: Personal, affective, pedagogical and contextual considerations

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Abstract

The study of non-native English-speaking teachers (NNESTs) has attracted increasing research attention over the past twenty years. This present research aimed to contribute to our understanding of English language teaching conducted by NNESTs. It presents case studies of four NNESTs' principles and practices in a Thai tertiary context and explores what happens inside language classroom from the perspective of teachers. It combines evidence from what four NNESTs in classrooms did with the rationales they provided for their teaching behaviours in order to gain a better understanding of how teachers made sense of and construct locally-based English language teaching pedagogies within the Thai English as a foreign language (EFL) context.

Four NNESTs who differed in their linguistic, cultural, and professional backgrounds were the study participants. Interviews and observations constituted the primary data sources, supported by teaching materials and course documentation. The three finding chapters of the thesis reported on affective, pedagogical, and contextual considerations in teachers' principles and practices. Regarding affective considerations, all participants attempted to create an affective climate conducive to English language learning, and constructed group cohesiveness among class members. Concerning pedagogical considerations, they enacted their personal principles of how the English language should be presented and taught to learners to facilitate English language learning. With regard to contextual considerations, participants tried to adjust their instruction to suit a particular group of learners in the local Thai context. They also revealed an awareness of macro-context influences on ELT, especially in the views they expressed with regard to the validity of native English speaker norms in the context of English as an international language, and the professional credibility of themselves as NNESTs. Teachers' abilities to meet learners' affective and language learning needs and to adjust instruction to suit local micro- and macro-contextual factors were crucial practical, professional knowledge of these four teachers.

This study revealed both individual and group homogeneity and diversity in their principles and teaching practices. Teachers' personal principles were found to underpin teaching practices complexly and dynamically. The findings illustrate how personal beliefs, relational concerns, disciplinary and pedagogical knowledge, as well as context awareness interact in the instructional decisions that teachers make. It is hoped that this study will enrich our understanding of NNESTs and the complex and dynamic realities of locally-based English language teaching practices.

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List of Acronyms

ASEAN	Association of Southeast Asian Nations
CLT	Communicative language teaching
EFL	English as a foreign language
EIL	English as an international language
ELF	English as a lingua Franca
ELT	English language teaching
ESL	English as a second language
L1	First language
L2	Second language
NES	Native English speakers
NEST	Native English speaking teachers
NNES	Non-native English speaker
NNEST	Non-native English speaking teacher
NS	Native speaker
NNS	Non-native speaker
PPP	Presentation, practice, and production
SLA	Second language acquisition
WEs	World Englishes

Chapter 1
Introduction

> While we might arrive at crudely accurate maps of teaching by studying it from the outside in, we will not grasp what is truly happening until the people who are doing it articulate what they understand about it.

> (Freeman, 2002, p.11)

This thesis allows the voices of four English language teachers to offer insights into the principles and practices that guide their professional lives and what it means to be non-native Englishspeaking teachers (NNESTs) in a Thai tertiary context. The first chapter provides background information that will situate my research in wider scholarly discussions. It first offers an overview of scholarly interest in NNESTs, which provides rationales for this study. Research aim and research questions are then presented, followed by information about the Thai EFL (English as a foreign language) context. The chapter ends with an overview of the thesis.

1.1 Background to and the rationales for the study: NNESTs in the English language teaching (ELT) profession

English is truly an international language, and its global spread is unparalleled in terms of geographical spread and various purposes it serves (Dewey & Jenkins, 2010; Y. Kachru & Nelson, 2006; Seidlhofer, 2001), with non-native English speakers (NNESs) estimated to outnumber native English speakers (NESs) by three to one (Crystal, 2012). In view of the significant worldwide demand for ELT, it is unsurprising that NNESTs comprise the majority of English language teachers (Braine, 2010; Kamhi-Stein, 2016; Selvi, 2014). Despite their strong presence, their voices and issues related to them were not studied until two decades ago. It is therefore instructive to trace scholarly interest in NNESTs from the "NNEST movement" and language teacher cognition research.

1.1.1 The NNEST movement and studies on NNESTs

The 1998 establishment of the NNEST Caucus within TESOL International marks a milestone in the NNEST movement, which promotes a non-discriminatory professional environment for all English teachers regardless of (non-)native status (Braine, 2010; Kamhi-Stein, 2016; Selvi, 2014). The movement was initiated and has been sustained in response to the pervasive belief that NNESTs are second in knowledge and teaching ability to NESTs, which can lead to lower professional credibility and marginalization of NNESTs. The movement reflects an attempt to

move away from a monolingual, monocultural, *native-speakerist* orientation in language teaching towards multilingualism, multiethnicism, and multiculturalism (Selvi, 2014). Within this view, NNESTs can serve as a model of competent bi-/multilingual English users in their own right (Llurda, 2004). Phillipson's *native speaker fallacy* (1992) and Holliday's *native speakerism* (2005) deconstruct and challenge the idealization of the NES as a superior English language teacher. Medgyes's (1992, 1994) pioneer works discussing differences between NESTs and NNESTs are credited for opening doors for research on NNESTs.

Since then, there has been an upsurge in publications on NNESTs, which has established itself as a distinct research domain (Kamhi-Stein, 2016). Empirical studies have investigated a) perceptions of programme administrators and their perceived importance of NES criterion in hiring practice (e.g. Clark & Paran, 2007; Mahboob, Uhrig, Newman, & Hartford, 2004), b) perceptions of students concerning their preference and perceived strengths and weaknesses of NESTs and NNESTs (e.g. Cheung & Braine, 2007; Walkinshaw & Duong, 2012); and c) NNESTs' self-perceptions regarding their strengths and weaknesses as NNESTs (e.g. Árva & Medgyes, 2000; Reves & Medgyes, 1994). These empirical studies have offered valuable insights into the issues confronting NNESTs and how the teachers perceive and negotiate NNES status and professional credibility, which can serve as a knowledge base for NNESTs to negate the discourse of native speakerism and empower themselves professionally. However, the findings on NNESTs' self-perceptions seem to have reached saturation, and there is a pressing need to diversify research topics (Braine, 2010; Moussu & Llurda, 2008).

Much research on NNESTs to date has focused primarily on their NNES characteristics with little interest in understanding English language teaching conducted by this group of teachers. Moussu and Llurda (2008) observe that researchers on NNSs (non-native speakers) are not involved in the study of language teaching procedure or even a particular behaviour and have rarely examined what happens inside their classrooms. Braine (2010) similarly adds that research on NNESTs rarely offers any indication of the apprenticeship of NNSs to English language teaching and the day-to-day challenges they face as teachers and users of English. These scholars suggest a research agenda that conceptualizes NNESTs not only as NNESs but also as English language teachers, and explores actual teaching practices from the perspective of these teachers, especially in EFL contexts. As Moussu and Llurda (2008) put it:

A further challenge for the future is to set an agenda that seeks to establish connections between what the teachers have reported about themselves and what they actually do in the classroom. This research agenda will need to consider the differences among NNSs, and therefore will have to look for some patterns of generalization without losing track of the essentially individual nature of what may be called "the art of language teaching"…The route is open and unexplored and the vastness of the task may appear discouraging, but once we have started looking at the nature and characteristics of NNS teachers, it would not be rational to...leave this field without accomplishing the ultimate goal of describing the nature of language teachers as a way of…better understanding language teaching in general…" (p. 340)

A methodological shift towards observations of English language teaching practices of NNESTs is believed to bring a new set of topics or a new perspective to those already existing that rescues the field from stagnation due to its reliance on perception-based data that may eventually fail to add any new insights (Moussu & Llurda, 2008). However, the ultimate goal of understanding language teaching from the perspective of teachers has been at the forefront of language teacher cognition research. This raises the issue of whether this topic has already been comprehensively researched, or if there is a place for research that focuses exclusively on the cognition of NNESTs.

1.1.2 *Language teacher cognition research*

Understanding "what language teachers know, believe and think" (Borg, 2003, p. 81) in relation to what they actually do has been a main research agenda of language teacher cognition research. The field places teacher cognition at the heart of research about teaching, and has demonstrated that language teachers are active, reflective decision-makers whose unobservable cognition shaped and is shaped by teaching practices and specific contexts in which they work in complex and dynamic ways (Borg, 2015). The field has continued to provide insights into the complex inner dynamics that underlie language teachers' work, and teachers' personal, practical theories have been recognized as an important knowledge base for language teaching (Freeman & Johnson, 1998), defined here as repertoires of knowledge and skills language teachers need to carry out the work of language teaching (Freeman, 2018; Johnson, 2009; J. C. Richards, 1998).

A number of language teacher cognition scholars have taken an interest in NNESTs. First, Borg (2003, 2015) comments that most language teacher cognition research has been conducted with NESTs in ESL (English as a second language) settings, and calls for more studies to explore

NNESTs' cognition in other contexts[1]. This echoes Moussu and Llurda (2008) and Braine's (2010) observations that the investigation into language teaching practices from the perspective of NNESTs is largely lacking, and therefore the knowledge base of NNESTs is very limited (Zhang & Zhan, 2014). Second, a number of language teacher cognition scholars (e.g. Borg, 2015; Kubanyiova & Feryok, 2015; Tsui, 2011) suggest a similar view that findings from language teacher cognition research need to be made relevant to the concerns of applied linguistics in order to extend the knowledge base of language teaching, and one such concern of applied linguistics relates to NES–NNES issues. As Kubanyiova and Feryok (2015) argue:

> …with the rapidly changing linguistic, cultural, and socio-political landscapes that globalization has brought …**language teacher cognition research must reconfigure its research agenda** to include the ways in which language teachers come to terms with…the radical changes in conceptualizing communicative and intercultural competence in multilingual settings…and with the shifting emphasis from the monolingual native speaker model to learners' multilingual competencies and repertoires as the basis of successful language teaching… (p. 442, emphasis added)

It is clear that, despite different foci, scholars from both domains of research activity similarly call for studies that aim to understand English language teaching from the perspective of NNESTs, especially in EFL contexts. Such a research agenda can shed light on teachers' principles, knowledge, and beliefs that underpin their teaching practices, the complex and dynamic realities of day-to-day English language teaching conducted by NNESTs, and the challenges they face as language teachers and users of English. Towards the broader aim of an in-depth understanding of NNESTs and their teaching, the present study will borrow insights from language teacher cognition research to ascertain how best to gain access into the NNESTs' emic perspectives on their own English language teaching practices that can yield new insights to studies on NNESTs in the TESOL research field.

1.2   Research aim

The aim of this research is to examine the four NNESTs' principles and practices in order to gain an in-depth understanding of the teachers and their English language teaching in a Thai EFL context. Situated within the TESOL research field, the perspective of this study is emic and local, and it prioritizes the NNESTs' own perspectives on language classroom events and practices. This inquiry into the NNESTs' principles and practices will be useful for four main reasons. Firstly, it will contribute to a better understanding of this group of teachers and the knowledge base they may require to conduct day-to-day English classes, given that much

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[1] Borg (2003) uses the term "non-native teachers" in his article. However, in his book, he (2015) states that much research has been conducted in USA with a number of studies from Australia, the UK, and Hong Kong.

existing research on NNESTs focuses on their NNES characteristics with less interest in the activity of English language teaching itself. Secondly, it may add a new angle into the perception-based findings on perceived impacts of NNES status on practice by demonstrating empirically how NES–NNES issues are reflected in practice. Thirdly, in line with the position that teachers' practical knowledge can and should inform theory (Borg, 2015; Freeman & Johnson, 1998; Lamb, 2017), principles and practices found in this study may add to, extend, or engage with an existing knowledge base in ELT literature. Its findings may encourage readers to reflect on and apply some of the findings to their own practice. This inquiry may also offer some suggestions for second language teacher education programmes, especially those that prepare NNESTs.

1.3   Thai EFL context

Linguistically speaking, Thailand is more homogenous than other Southeast Asian nations. Although more than seventy languages are spoken in Thailand (Lewis, Gary, & Charles, 2014), Standard Thai, which is the variety spoken in Central Thailand, serves as the sole national and official language, and is widely used all over the country especially in education, business and government (Kosonen, 2008). Since Thailand has never been colonized, English is not viewed as a colonial language and its use has developed more slowly than English varieties in the Outer Circle countries[2]. Thai people favour British/American norms rather than what can be called "Thai English" (Bennui & Hashim, 2014). Thailand is often classified as an Expanding Circle country where English is not institutionalized, and does not serve as a language of wider communication within the local community, but plays an important role as a foreign language (Bolton, 2008). The importance of English has been emphasized by the fact that the ten countries of Association of Southeast Asian Nations (ASEAN) plan to achieve regional economic integration, with a single market and production base (ASEAN Secretarist, 2014), and English has been designated as a working language (ASEAN Secretariat, 2008). This underscores the role of English as a lingua franca among NNESs in the region.

Against this backdrop, English is becoming increasingly prominent in the Thai education system (Darasawang & Watson Todd, 2012). Although other foreign languages are optional, English is a compulsory subject for the twelve years of basic education core curriculum from Grade 1 to 12 (Bureau of Academic Affairs and Educational Standards, 2009) in the educational

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[2] B. Krachru (1985b and later) represented the global spread of English in three concentric circles: norm-providing Inner Circle countries where English is the primary "mother tongue" language; norm-developing Outer Circle countries where English spread through colonization in the past, has been institutionalized as official, co-official, legal, and educational language, and serves a wide range of intranational and international purposes; and norm-dependent Expanding Circle countries where English serve as an international means of communication.

system where Standard Thai dominates as a medium of instruction (Deerajviset, 2013; Kosonen, 2008). The minimal number of hours prescribed for foreign languages are as follows: 80 hours per academic year from grade 1-3, 160 hours from grade 4-6, 240 hours from grade 7-9 and 480 hours from grade 10-12 (Bureau of Academic Affairs and Educational Standards, 2009). Communicative language teaching (CLT) with a learner-centred philosophy is prescribed by the government (Jarvis & Atsilarat, 2005; Teng & Sinwongsuwat, 2015). English proficiency among Thai people in general is often reported as unsatisfactory. For instance, the EF English proficiency index (Education First, 2014) classifies Thailand as having very low English proficiency. Such reported low level of English proficiency has raised doubts concerning the effectiveness of ELT in Thailand. For instance, Teng and Sinwongsuwat (2015) identified problems of insufficient professional development, low English proficiency among teachers, time restraints, and learners' preference on accuracy over fluency, large class size, and unfamiliarity with CLT.

1.4   Overview of the thesis

This introductory chapter has described the aims and the rationales guiding this research, which explores the four NNESTs' principles and practices. Information has been provided about the Thai EFL context. Chapter 2 reviews the existing literature in a number of areas in applied linguistics relevant to this inquiry, and is divided into three sections. The first section discusses insights from language teacher cognition research, which serves as a theoretical rationale for exploring the NNESTs' principles in relation to their practices. The second section discusses affective, pedagogical, and contextual considerations in ELT – a knowledge base that may be relevant to the principles and practices of NNESTs. The third section explores the more macro context of ELT with specific focus on NES–NNES issues and what is known about NNESTs. Chapter 3 presents the research methodology and research design for this study. It gives information about participants, instruments and procedures. Chapters 4, 5, and 6 report and discuss the findings of the teachers' core principles and practices. Chapter 4 deals with core principles and practices underpinned by teachers' affective considerations. Chapter 5 looks at core principles and practices underpinned by teachers' pedagogical considerations. Chapter 6 focuses on the macro-context influences on ELT with specific focus on NES–NNES issues. It examines teachers' core principles and practices related to these issues. Chapter 7 reviews the main findings and draws together the various threads in the three previous chapters and discusses these findings in order to propose a holistic conceptualization. Limitations of the study are presented and recommendations for further inquiries are suggested.

Chapter 2
Literature Review

The research…suggests that there is considerable overlap in teachers' thinking about student emotion, the social and cultural context of teaching, and subject matter specifics.

(Rosiek, 2003, p.411)

[Research has] revealed that [language] teachers are sensitive to social needs of their class groups, and that their pedagogically and socially-oriented behaviours are closely intertwined.

(Senior, 2002, p. 397)

The aim of this research is to gain an understanding of the principles and classroom practices of a group of NNESTs in a tertiary context in Thailand. This second chapter of the thesis reviews existing literature relevant to this inquiry, and is divided into three main sections. The first section discusses language teacher cognition research, which provides a theoretical rationale for examining teaching from the perspective of teachers. The second section draws on ELT literature regarding affective, pedagogical and contextual considerations to enrich our understanding of English language teaching conducted by NNESTs. As the quotations above show, there is emerging evidence that the three considerations are inextricably linked in (language) teachers' decision-making inside the classroom. The third section discusses the macro-contextual influences on ELT with specific focus on NES–NNES issues and what is known about NNESTs and their English language pedagogical practices. Each research question is presented at the end of each section.

Section 1 Exploring language teachers' cognition and practices

2.1   Language teacher cognition research

Language teacher cognition research, or the study of "what language teachers think, know, and believe" (Borg, 2015, p. 1) rests on the assumption that language teachers are active, thinking, decision-makers whose unobservable *mental lives* (Walbert, 1997) play a central role in shaping practices in complex and dynamic ways (Borg, 2015; Freeman, 2002; Kubanyiova & Feryok, 2015). Scholarly literature in this field has been consulted to ascertain how best to gain access into the emic perspectives of those who are best able to provide a rich understanding of language teaching of NNESTs; namely, the NNESTs themselves. This section provides a brief history of the field and its resonance with development in ELT. It then explores key theoretical constructs

referring partly or wholly to teachers' mental lives. This is followed by a discussion of the relationship between language teachers' cognition and practices.

2.1.1 Language teacher cognition research: A brief history

Studies into language teacher cognition have shifted a conceptualization of language teachers and teaching from behavioural perspectives to cognitive and social standpoints. In the mid-1970s, the prevailing process–product paradigm described teaching in behaviourist terms. The research focus was to investigate whether certain observable teachers' behaviour led or did not lead to students' learning, so that the former could be promoted prescriptively as effective teaching strategies (Borg, 2015; Freeman, 2002). Teachers were seen as doers or implementors of ideas produced externally regarding curriculum, policy and methodology, and classroom and context were regarded as a backdrop: a place where teachers implemented recommendations made by others (Freeman, 2002; Johnson, 2016). Within language teaching, this paradigm is evident in the "method" era where teachers' own thinking was not part of teaching, and that they should adopt principles and assumptions of a promoted method or approach (Burns et al., 2015; Freeman, 2002; Tsui, 2011). This "technology of language teaching" assumes a rather deterministic, linear cause-and-effect relationship between a prescribed teaching method teachers implement and learning outcomes (Tudor, 2003), and in due course it was critiqued as presenting a partial and simplistic portrayal of teachers and teaching.

In the 1980s, teacher cognition research emerged, and research interest shifted from a product–process paradigm to studies exploring teachers' mental lives in relation to teaching practices. Teachers' cognition is now deemed important because their unobservable cognition strongly shapes teaching practices and determine for the most part of what happens inside the classroom. Since then, this line of enquiry has illuminated the inherent complexities of what teachers know, think, and believe, who they are, how they learn to teach, and how they actually teach in their contexts (Johnson, 2006). Teachers are no longer viewed as implementors of external prescriptions, but as thinking and decision-making individuals (Borg, 2015; Freeman, 2002; Johnson, 2006). In ELT, the recognition of language teachers as independent decision-makers in language teaching is reflected in constructs such as "principles eclecticism" (H. D. Brown, 2007b) and "a post-method teacher" capable of theorizing their own practice (Kumaravadivelu, 1994). In this view, teachers' personal theories are recognized as legitimate as formal theories and should form an important part of knowledge base in language teaching (Freeman, 2018; Freeman & Johnson, 1998).

The sociocultural turn has triggered the re-conceptualization of teacher cognition from a decontextualized cognitive activity to the situated nature of teachers' knowledge and actions that take into account the immediate and wider contexts of their work, their biographies and experiences (Johnson, 2006; Johnson, 2016; Tsui, 2011). The complexities of teaching have become even more pronounced within this social view. Teachers do not work in mental isolation from others, and their practices are affected not only by negotiations between teachers and students, and the constraints and opportunities of the institutions within which they work, but also by social, political, ideological, economic, cultural and historical contexts outside the classroom. Language classrooms, therefore, "both in themselves and in their relationship to the world beyond their walls, are complex social and cultural spaces" (Pennycook, 2000, p. 89). This has led to the portrayal of language teaching as irreducibly complex, unique, locally-situated, idiosyncratic, locally-negotiated, and co-constructed by all participants involved (Allwright, 2005; Breen, 1985; Tudor, 2001, 2003). There have been repeated appeals for the need to understand teachers, teaching and language classrooms in their totality – an indispensable and productive move to understand the fullness of classroom decisions and events even though it may be complex and problematic for researchers (Burns et al., 2015). As Freeman (1996) puts it:

> The complexity of teaching cannot be cleaned up simply by pretending it is not there; order cannot be forced onto it by writing and talking in a detached manner about its messiness (p. 107).

It is this "messiness" of English language teaching revealed through NNESTs' cognition in relation to actual practices that are of interest to this study. It is therefore necessary to explore the nature of language teachers' cognition as captured through various constructs in this discipline.

2.1.2 The nature of language teachers' minds: Constructs in language teacher cognition research

The field of language teacher cognition research has witnessed a proliferation of constructs referring partly or wholly to unobservable teachers' mental lives such as knowledge, beliefs, principles, practical knowledge, pedagogical knowledge, maxims, among many other terms. This situation is further complicated because identical terms are defined in different ways, while different terms have been used to refer to similar concepts (Borg, 2015). The definitional consensus is yet to emerge, and calls for a conceptual synthesis that brings clarity to the constructs have been made (Borg, 2015; Pajares, 1992; Southerland, Sinatra, & Matthews, 2001).

Knowledge and Beliefs

The distinction between knowledge and belief is an important one. Knowledge is often conceived as containing verifiable facts, while beliefs are generally viewed as evaluative and judgmental (Pajares, 1992). Compared to knowledge, beliefs are more static and resistant to change (Kagan, 1992; Nespor, 1987). This might be because beliefs are the taken-for-granted views about social and physical reality and are deeply personal, and often come with affective components related to self-identity (Abelson, 1979; Nespor, 1987; Pajares, 1992; Rokeach, 1968). Beliefs can be held with varying depth, and therefore certain beliefs are core ones, while others are peripheral (Basturkmen, 2012; Ellis, 2012; Phipps & Borg, 2009). Contradictory beliefs can be held simultaneously (Ellis, 2012). Recently, Barcelos and Kalaja (2011) summarized the nature of beliefs about SLA: fluctuating (beliefs are changing and emergent and different beliefs can be held at different times and in short time), complex and dialectical, affected by micro- and macro- political contexts and discourses, intrinsically related to affective components, other-oriented (beliefs can be influenced by others), influenced by affordances and reflections, and interacting with actions and knowledge in complex ways.

Nevertheless, any exclusive differentiation between beliefs and knowledge is problematic (Southerland et al., 2001; Woods & Çakır, 2011) because humans do not have a mechanistic outlook and knowledge therefore contains evaluative and affective components (Pajares, 1992). The difficulty of differentiation between beliefs and knowledge leads Woods (1996) to propose BAK (Beliefs, Assumptions, and Knowledge) and argue that it is more fruitful to view them as continuum rather than mutually exclusive categories. The distinction between beliefs and knowledge is also blurred with Elbaz's (1981) construct of practical knowledge with which following assumptions often associated: personal and unique to each teacher to an extent, context sensitive and geared towards specific classroom circumstances, experientially-derived, often implicit, influencing teaching practices, and content-related (Meijer, Verloop, & Beijaard, 1999). Dissatisfied with practical knowledge that represents "a truncated conceptualization of teacher knowledge" (p. 50), Wilson, Shulman, and Richert (as cited in Tsui, 2002) argue that teachers have both theoretical and practical knowledge, and shift research attention to the role of subject-matter knowledge in teaching.

Teacher cognition and action

A distinction between teacher cognition and action is another important one. Teacher knowledge can be "in the minds" that can be explicitly stated and consciously transmitted and "in the body" that is unconsciously instantiated, derived from experience, and implicitly held (Woods & Çakır, 2011). Because teachers are often unable or unwilling to accurately reveal their beliefs, beliefs must be inferred from what they "say, intend, and do" (Pajares, 1992, p. 314). Argyris and Schön (1974) make a distinction between espoused theory (i.e. theories practitioners state to others) and theory-in-use (i.e. theories that actually determine practitioners' actions). These two kinds of theories may or may not be compatible. Schön (1991) argues that a practitioner may articulate and be aware of knowledge while reflecting on what one has done (i.e. reflection-on-action), but may not be able to state explicitly the knowledge they use in action (i.e. reflection-in-action). Nevertheless, reflection-on-action can illuminate knowledge used in action and makes implicit knowledge in an individual's action explicit. Breen (1991) proposes the construct of pedagogic principles. In this view, highly abstract, deeply-held, and context-independent beliefs and personal theories are placed at one end. Teachers' actions and decision-making are placed at the other end. Pedagogic principles derived from highly abstract beliefs, and personal theories mediate between the two end points of this scale.

This discussion informs the study in three main ways. First, a decision has to be made whether a top-down approach (i.e. domains of teachers' inner lives are demarcated and pre-determined as the research focus) or a bottom-up approach (i.e. salient dimensions of teachers' inner lives are allowed to emerge) is to be adopted (Kubanyiova & Feryok, 2015). This study adopts the bottom-up approach because different components in teacher cognition seem to be intertwined and clear demarcations between them are problematic (Borg, 2015; Kubanyiova & Feryok, 2015; Tsui, 2011; Woods, 1996). The term "language teacher cognition" is therefore used as an inclusive construct that embraces the complexity and totality of language teachers' mental lives (Borg, 2015), while other terms such as principles, beliefs, knowledge, and practical knowledge are used interchangeably. Second, the discussion stresses the importance of examining teachers' principles in relation to actual teaching practices (Borg, 2015; Kubanyiova & Feryok, 2015; Pajares, 1992). Lastly, the literature sensitizes me to the nature of language teachers' cognition. That is, in their work language teachers draw on "the complex, practically-oriented, personalized and context-sensitive networks of knowledge, thoughts and beliefs" that differ from more abstract, decontextualized formal theories (Borg, 2015, p. 156). These networks were found to mediate practices in complex and dynamic ways, as discussed in the next section.

2.1.3 Relationships between language teachers' cognition and teaching practices

Empirical research in language teacher cognition has been described as sprawling and uneven (Burns et al., 2015), driven by different research agendas (Basturkmen, 2012; Ryan, 2013), and so diverse in topics and contexts that there is "hardly any replication or evidence of systematic programmes of research" (Borg, 2003, p. 83). It is generally understood that teachers' cognition about conceptions of teaching and learning are derived from their prior experiences and professional training (if any), which exert strong influences on how they make sense of their work, and shape and are shaped by teaching practices and contexts in complex and dynamic ways (Borg, 2015; Johnson, 2016; Kubanyiova & Feryok, 2015; Tsui, 2011). The relationship between language teachers' cognition and teaching practices is understood to be complex, interactive and non-linear (Basturkmen, 2012; Borg, 2015; Ellis, 2012; Tsui, 2007). While a number of studies found that language teachers' stated cognition was consistent with observed practices (e.g. Farrell & Kun, 2008; Farrell & Ives, 2015; Johnson, 1992; L. Li & Walsh, 2011; Watson, 2015), inconsistencies have also been reported (e.g. Basturkmen, Loewen, & Ellis, 2004; Farrell & Bennis, 2013; Karavas-Doukas, 1996; Phipps & Borg, 2009). The findings are therefore inconclusive, and can range from very congruent to very incongruent cognition–practice relationships. Explanations for the lack of congruence between stated cognition and observed practices have been offered in the literature.

First, contextual factors can hinder teachers from putting their beliefs into practice (Basturkmen, 2012; Borg, 2015; Fang, 1996). These contextual factors can range from micro-contextual factors from within or adjacent to the classroom such as students and classroom resources, to macro-contextual factors beyond the classroom such as language policy and wider socio-cultural and sociolinguistic contexts. For example, Phipps and Borg (2009) found that student expectations and preferences and classroom management concerns are main reasons why teachers taught in ways at odd with their stated beliefs. Borg (2015) adds that the interactions between teaching contexts and teachers' cognition may lead to changes in teaching practices without directly altering the cognition underlying the practices. This can lead to a lack of congruence between stated cognition and teaching practices. The opposite is also possible, since teachers' interactions with teaching contexts can lead to changes in their cognition such as when teachers gain more teaching experience, encounter critical incidents that challenge their beliefs, and reflect on practice. In this way, the relationship between language teachers' cognition and teaching practices is understood to be interactive (Basturkmen, 2012; Borg, 2015; Ellis, 2012; Tsui, 2007).

Other reasons for incongruence between stated cognition and observed practices are due to the nature of language teacher cognition. That is, teachers can hold core and peripheral beliefs, and are less likely to enact peripheral beliefs in practice if they run counter to core beliefs (Basturkmen, 2012; Ellis, 2012; Phipps & Borg, 2009). Moreover, teachers may draw on theoretical knowledge when stated cognition is elicited, which may not match practical knowledge that guides their action in the classroom (Basturkmen, 2012; Ellis, 2012). For example, Basturkmen, Loewen and Ellis (2004) hypothesized that the inconsistencies in teachers' stated cognition as well as between their stated cognition and observed practices may be due to the fact that teachers might draw on technical knowledge when stated cognition was elicited in the abstract, which did not match their practical theories when confronted with classroom contexts, especially during incidental aspects of teaching.

Another reason is the research design that may elicit certain types of language teachers' cognition. Many language teacher cognition studies employ "stated cognition–observed practices" design, which tends to separate teachers' thoughts and actions and rely on researchers' interpretation whether stated cognition matches observed practices (Kubanyiova & Feryok, 2015, p. 438). The study by Breen et al. (2001) is an exception, because it invited teachers to reflect on actual teaching practices and to assign principles to these practices. They found that a single, shared principle could underpin diverse practices, and that a shared practice could be guided by different principles. Despite diversity and idiosyncrasies among this group of teachers, there seems to be a finite range of principles widely shared across teachers – an evidence of "collective pedagogy". Breen et al. (2001) therefore suggest a challenge to stated cognition– observed practices design by arguing for the examination of teachers' cognition in action: "we cannot deduce language pedagogies on the basis of teachers' accounts of how they work without reflecting with them upon *actual instances* of practice" (p. 498, italics in the original). As already discussed, Basturkmen, Loewn and Ellis (2004) and Basturkmen (2012) similarly add that inviting teachers to reflect on actual instances of practice is more likely to capture teachers' practical knowledge that guide their actions, especially during improvisational decision-making in the classroom.

This discussion informs this study in two main ways. First, the fact that stated cognition is not always congruent with observed practices stresses the need to examine language teachers' cognition in relation to their classroom practices. Second, a decision has to be made whether teachers' principles should be elicited in the abstract or grounded in actual practices. Given that this study is interested in the NNESTs' principles or practical knowledge that underpin actual

practices inside the classroom, reflection-on-action (Schön, 1991) that invites teachers to reflect on actual practices is more suitable to the purpose of this study.

2.1.4   Summary

Language teacher cognition research provides a theoretical rationale for examining English language teaching from the perspective of NNESTs. The literature offers valuable insights into the complexities of teachers' cognition and its relation to practices, and how these complexities can be captured empirically. Informed by this literature, this study defines teacher cognition as "what teachers know, believe, and think" (Borg, 2003, p. 81). The term is an inclusive umbrella term, referring to the part or the totality of unobservable teachers' mental lives with an assumption that components within language teacher cognition are intertwined (Kubanyiova & Feryok, 2015), and therefore terms such as principles, beliefs, practical knowledge, and cognition are used interchangeably. However, the term principle (Breen et al, 2001) is preferred, because this study prioritizes teachers' practice-oriented cognition likely to inform practice inside the language classroom over cognition expressed theoretically or in the abstract (Basturkmen et al., 2004; Basturkmen, 2012; Borg, 2015; Woods & Çakır, 2011). Through an examination of teachers' cognition in relation to their actions, the priority of this study is on the principles that teachers hold and intend to implement in actual practice rather than researchers' interpretation on the extent of (mis-)matches between stated cognition and observed practices (Breen et al., 2001; Kubanyiova & Feryok, 2015). In other words, principles linked to practices are central in this thesis.

Section 2: Exploring English language teaching – Affective, pedagogical, and contextual considerations

This study aims to understand English language teaching from the perspective of NNESTs, and affective, pedagogical and contextual considerations in ELT are selected as the focus of this study. Not only can these areas be considered as building an important foundation in language teaching since there is much written about them, but there is also emerging empirical evidence from teacher cognition research from general education that teachers' knowledge about students' emotion (i.e. affective considerations) is inextricably linked with their cognitive side of the work including taught content and curriculum (i.e. pedagogical considerations), and that their classroom decisions are grounded in the specific social and cultural context of teaching (i.e. contextual considerations) (Rosiek, 2003; Zembylas, 2007). In language teaching, Allwright (1992) and Senior (2002, 2006) similarly argue that language teachers' behaviours can be pedagogically-oriented to meet students' learning needs (i.e. pedagogical considerations) or socially-oriented to build good relations among class members and foster

supportive classroom atmosphere (i.e. affective/relational considerations). Therefore, there is an indication that these three considerations can be inextricably intertwined in (language) teachers' classroom decisions. Senior (2002, 2006) argues that, in order to understand the principles that underlie the classroom decision-making of experienced language teachers, attention needs to be paid to their pedagogic and social priorities that shape how they set up learning tasks. This study therefore focuses specifically on NNESTs' priorities underpinned by their affective, pedagogical, and contextual considerations. This section reviews affective and pedagogical considerations in ELT, in which contextual considerations is a recurring theme. One of the research questions will be reiterated at the end of each part.

2.2 Affective considerations in ELT

Language teachers' ability to create supportive emotional conditions for language learning and teaching is generally accepted to be a valuable teaching skill. Two bodies of literature are influential in emphasizing the roles of affect in language teaching. The first one explores individual differences. While this literature takes a predominantly theoretical focus, language motivation literature offers more practical advice for language teachers by proposing specific motivational strategies (e.g. Dörnyei, 2001). Another key influence is the humanistic movement, which insists on the pre-eminence of the emotional dimension. In addition, the recent, emerging literature on values in language teaching stresses caring teacher–student relations (i.e. relational dimensions), and sheds light on another strand of affective considerations that influence and operate in language classrooms.

This section reviews existing literature on affective considerations from an instructional viewpoint. It first explores the definitions of affect in language teaching literature and synthesizes practical teaching implications from individual differences and humanistic approaches. The latter is complemented by the literature on values in language teaching. It then discusses scholarly speculations about how language teachers attend to affect in the language classroom, followed by the review of empirical studies offering some insight into this process.

2.2.1 Definitions of affect in language teaching literature

Affect is difficult to define and to detect in operation (Arnold & Brown, 1999; H. D. Brown, 2007a; Nunan & Lamb, 1995). The term is often used in language teaching to refer to emotions and feelings, and specifically to affective factors such as anxiety, motivation, attitude, willingness to communicate, and personality factors, as can be seen in the two sample definitions below. While they foreground emotions, affect can have both cognitive and affective components (Ellis, 2012; Gregersen & MacIntyre, 2014), and these components may be so

integrated that there is no empirical basis for their separation (Dörnyei, 2009; Ellis, 2012; Swain, 2013).

> …affect will be considered broadly as aspects of emotion, feeling, mood or attitude which condition behaviour (Arnold & Brown, 1999, p.1).

> Affect refers to emotion or feeling. The affective domain is the emotional side of human bahaviour, and it may be juxtaposed to the cognitive side. The development of affective states and feelings involves a variety of personality factors, feelings both about ourselves and about others with whom we come into contact (H. D. Brown, 2007a, p. 153).

2.2.2 *Affective considerations in theory and scholarship*

Affect is central to the language learning and teaching process, since learners are not information–processing machines but sentient individuals who feel various emotions in response to language learning and teaching (Oxford, 2010; Tudor, 2001; Wright, 2005). Language learners are usually portrayed as less than ideal, and those with high and consistent motivation and positive feelings toward language learning are rare, if they exist at all (Lamb, 2016; Tomlinson, 2011). This may be because certain aspects of language learning are inherently threatening and anxiety-creating (Arnold & Brown, 1999; H. D. Brown, 2007a; Ellis, 2012; Wright, 2005), such as an inability to express oneself clearly and with authority in the L2, a high risk of making mistakes in front of others, and alienations from both one's own and the target culture. Triggers for negative affect abound in language classrooms and can originate in learners themselves, classroom relations, the teacher, and instructional practices (Gregersen & MacIntyre, 2014).

Despite this acknowledgment of language learning as to some extent an emotional and relational undertaking, this dimension has been relatively neglected and marginalized in research and scholarship compared to the cognitive dimension of language learning and teaching (Ellis, 2001; Oxford, 2010; Swain, 2013; Tudor, 1996; Wright, 2005), although affective considerations have been foregrounded in individual differences and humanistic approaches literature. I now discuss the teaching implications drawn from this literature with the instructional focus in mind. This is because, unlike researchers, language teachers are believed to treat affective factors holistically (Tudor, 2003), and are less interested in what an affective factor is, but rather in how to support learners' affect in practice (Dörnyei, 1994, 2001).

Instruction, Affective Factors, and L2 Learning

Individual differences, the well-established SLA sub-field, examines a direct, causal relationship between L2 learning and affective factors that are grouped together with other individual differences and discussed in terms of willingness to communicate, anxiety, affective filter, risk-taking, motivation, personality, and language and culture shock (Pavlenko, 2013). However, when it comes to language teaching, a much smaller body of studies exists that examines the impact of instruction on learners' affect, and that this limits the direct teaching implications (Ellis, 2012). Krashen's affective filter hypothesis (1985), which has been influential to language teaching, proposes that positive emotions lower learners' affective filter and allow more input from the learning context to be acquired by language learners, while negative feelings raise the affective filter and hamper learning from instructional input. A crucial role of the teacher is therefore to nurture positive affect. This position is supported by the views of more recent scholarship such as Gregerson and MacIntyre (2014), who remind language teachers that positive emotions broaden a person's focus, which allows more information to be noticed, while negative emotions narrow a person's focus and are often at odds with language learning. Teachers are advised to promote positive affect such as positive attitudes, motivation, willingness to communicate and self-confidence, and to lessen negative feelings such as anxiety (Arnold & Brown, 1999; Dewaele, 2012; Nation & Macalister, 2009; Pavlenko, 2013). However, affect is known to be much more complex and multi-faceted than Krashen's somewhat simplistic, linear explanation.

An example of the nuances of affect are that negative emotions are not always unproductive, and there is a distinction between facilitative and debilitative anxiety (Ellis, 2012; Oxford, 1999; Swain, 2013). H. D. Brown (2007a) recommends that language teachers strike an optimal balance between the two, as a certain amount of anxiety may be beneficial, since risk-taking learners seek moderate challenges, which keep them alert. Furthermore, the relationship between affect and cognition may be reciprocal (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2009). While the question of whether negative affect causes poor language performance or vice versa remains, teachers are advised to take both into account, and anxiety should be thought of as both a cause and a consequence of difficulties with communication in the L2 (H. D. Brown, 2007a; Gregersen & MacIntyre, 2014).

Affect has also been shown to be shaped by social contexts such as social status and a unique background or history (Benesch, 2012; Ushioda, 2009). Benesch (2012) warns teachers of the danger of promoting positive emotions without contextual considerations, since negative affect may be a legitimate response to a difficult life situation. Others recommend sensitivity to students' cultural beliefs and individual variations because different cultures may have different beliefs about respect and submission to the teacher, polite behaviour in class or even about the importance of positive affect (Arnold & Brown, 1999; H. D. Brown, 2007a; J. C. Richards, 2015; Tudor, 2001). William and Burden (1997) urge teachers to pay attention to both internal and external factors that can affect learners' motivation. The external factors include contextual variables such as the significant others such as parents and teachers that learners interact with as well as factors in the learning environment such as material resources, class size, and time of the day, and in the broader social context such as cultural norms, societal expectations and attitudes.

A shift in the conceptualization of affect from fixed and stable to one that is dynamic and situation-specific leads to the position that teachers can, to some extent, influence language learners' affect (Dörnyei, 2001; Lamb, 2017; MacIntyre, Gregersen, & Clement, 2016; Williams & Burden, 1997). Dörnyei (1994, 2001) categorized motivation concepts into three levels: language level (e.g. integrative and instrumental motivation), learner level (e.g. personality traits), and learning situational level (e.g. taught content and classroom relations). He contends that teachers can have the greatest motivational impact at the learning situational level and must at least satisfy three basic condition of any motivational classroom: a pleasant and supportive classroom atmosphere, group cohesiveness among learners, and appropriate teacher's behaviours towards learners. Gregersen and MacIntyre (2014) recommend that teachers prioritize momentary, fluctuating influences in the classroom such as desire to communicate with a specific person and self-confidence specific to a particular communicative event, while not losing sight of distant influences that are more resistant to change such as personality. It is now accepted that learners' initial affect has the capacity to change and is open to teachers' influences.

Another recurring recommendation is that teachers should promote positive teacher–student and peer relations. Teachers are advised to develop caring, warm and empathetic relationships that make students feel a sense of belonging in the learning community. They may then be more willing to take risks and become less anxious (H. D. Brown, 2007a; Dörnyei, 2001; Gregersen & MacIntyre, 2014; Lamb, 2017; Wright, 2005). Lamb (2017) argues that a great motivator is not so much someone who applies "correct" motivational strategies, but one who understands

the relational dimension or, in his word, "the coming together and intense mutual engagement from moment to moment of teacher and learners" (p. 312). It is widely accepted that this human side of teaching relies on teachers' personal qualities (Lamb, 2017; J. C. Richards, 2015; Wright, 2005). It is in this area that moral values such as care, empathy and genuineness operate. For instance, Brophy (2000) recommends:

> To create a climate for moulding their students into a cohesive and supportive learning community, teachers need to display personal attributes that will make them effective as models and socializers: *a cheerful disposition, friendliness*, *emotional maturity*, *sincerity* and *caring* about students as individuals as well as learners. The teacher displays *concern* and *affection* for students, is attentive to their needs and emotions and socializes them to display these same characteristics in their interactions with one another (p. 8, emphasis added).

Humanistic approaches and values in language teaching

The pre-eminence of affect in learning and the need to treat students as whole human beings have long been advocated by value-laden humanistic approaches to language teaching. All forms of humanism promote one or more of the five principles: feelings, social relations and the values of friendship and cooperation, responsibility, intellect, and self-actualization (Stevick, 1990). Teaching implications from humanistic thinking include the need to promote instruction that is personally relevant and emotionally engaging for students; that develop supportive, warm and trusting classroom relations that make students feel valued and at ease; and that encourages autonomy, dependence, and their sense of responsibility for their own learning (Tudor, 1996, 2003). Classical humanism is a formative influence of the learner-centred curriculum that recommends teachers to consider learners' subjective needs such as their wants, desires and expectations alongside objective needs (Nunan, 1988; Tudor, 1996; 2003).

Nevertheless, a highly contentious issue surrounding humanistic approaches is their advocacy of the fostering of moral values and the growth of human potential that goes beyond language learning. Wright (2005) describes this moral objective as a "strong" version of affect in educational practice, as opposed to a "weak" version that aims to create optimal emotional conditions for effective learning and teaching. Endorsing the strong version of affect, Arnold and Brown (1999) recommend that language teachers should educate learners to live more satisfying lives and be responsible members of society (e.g. unselfish and non-violent individuals). William and Burden (1997) add that humanistic principles encourage knowledge of self and the development of personal identity. The danger of imposing values onto students associated with this view has been critiqued (e.g. Gadd, 1998a, 1998b) on the grounds that,

unlike priests, counsellors or philosophers, language teachers have no mandate to impose their own moral and ethical values on learners. While the possibility of inappropriate imposition of moral values onto learners certainly exists, this position suggests that teachers can be value-neutral, and that language teaching can be conceived as an objective, neutral, value-free process, although an emerging body of literature on values in language teaching finds this view untenable.

Johnston (2003) uses the terms "morality" and "value" synonymously to refer to teachers' personal evaluative beliefs about what is right, wrong, good and bad for learners. Unlike the humanistic approach, which draws on external values from humanist philosophy, this literature conceptualises values as existing in the interplay of the individual and social, context-dependent, resting on beliefs and faith, and complex and ambiguous. This literature is relevant to affective considerations because, firstly, it enriches our understanding of the nature of teacher–student relations. Johnston (2003) contends that language teaching is fundamentally relational, and that any type of relationship is moral in nature, since it builds on moral values such as trust, respect, empathy and care subtly conveyed to learners, without which supportive teacher–student relations cannot be established. This moral view of classroom relations resonates well with recommendations of supportive classroom relations discussed above. Secondly, the literature demonstrates that language teachers are not value-neutral. They make moral decisions on a daily basis that go beyond rational, objective calculation of what has to be done; for example, how to evaluate students fairly (Crookes, 2009; Johnston, 2003). I now explore scholarly speculation of how language teachers attend to affect in the language classroom, followed by existing empirical studies related to language teachers' principles and practices pertaining to affect.

2.2.3   Affective considerations in language teachers' principles and practices

A number of scholars and researchers (e.g. Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2011; Gregersen & MacIntyre, 2014) speculate that many teachers employ different motivational strategies or accommodate individual differences unconsciously in their classroom practices without consciously attending to issues of motivation or individual differences. Scholars also speculate that teachers' beliefs about affect can influence their teaching practices. For example, some teachers may ignore this dimension because they may have a fixed mindset; that is, the belief that affect is innate, fixed and not amendable to change (Lamb, 2017), or be reluctant to take affect into consideration in the belief that they are not psychologists (MacIntyre et al., 2016). However, the view that language teachers determine learners' affect is equally naïve. Dörnyei (2001) points out that the question of whose responsibility it is to motivate learners is a valid one. Varying positions

can be expected, ranging from total rejection due to a fixed mindset to a teacher's full responsibility arising from personal moral obligations. Because affective factors exert a strong influence on learners' learning engagement, language teachers are advised to accommodate them; however, meeting this challenge can be difficult.

For example, it is not easy to predict or pre-plan the affective outcomes of a course or what students' affective responses will be (MacIntyre et al., 2016; Tudor, 1996, 2003). Moreover, learners bring huge affective diversity that can change over time. This makes it neither theoretically desirable nor practically possible to match instruction to the needs of each students, and teachers are therefore advised to promote instructional variety and choices (Ellis, 2005; MacIntyre et al., 2016; Tomlinson, 2011). While extreme mismatches are unproductive, exposing students to methods that they may not be temperamentally inclined to but that stretch their comfort zone can be beneficial, as this can challenge learners to overcome some challenges and raise their awareness of other possible learning strategies (Dörnyei, 2005; Ellis, 2005; Gregersen & MacIntyre, 2014; Tudor, 1996). Swain (2013) adds that language learning involves emotional and cognitive struggles, and language teachers should capitalize learners' emotional clues to determine when and how they can guide learners in the learning process. Another option would be to try to modify learners' beliefs to bring them in line with the principles underlying the teacher's chosen methodology, although it is well known that beliefs are likely to be resistant to change (Ellis, 2012). Because of the complexities involved and the range of individuals in each classroom, language teachers are required to flexibly and dynamically embrace the diversity of learners, rather than applying one-size-fits-all strategies (MacIntyre et al., 2016; Tudor, 1996).

These scholarly speculations about how language teachers attend to affect can only be confirmed from studies that focus on teachers' experiences. In recent years, there has been a call for more studies to shed light on how and why teachers accommodate learners' affect. Lamb (2017) points out the lack of evidence of how language teachers' beliefs about motivation are reflected in their practices, and recommends qualitative teacher cognition research studies with observations and stimulated-recalled interviews to address this gap. A similar call has been articulated by teacher cognition research scholars from general education (e.g. Hargreaves, 2000; Rosiek, 2003; Zembylas, 2007), who perceive the field to be dominated by the cognitive side of teaching to an extent that the emotional considerations have been marginalized. These scholars argue that what is traditionally perceived as the "cognitive" side of the work (e.g. taught content, curriculum and pedagogy) has been shown to be influenced and inextricably linked with the "emotional" side, and the two dimensions should not be considered separately.

Rosiek (2003) argues that such research agenda is necessary because teachers naturally think about how to meet students' affective needs and teaching is viewed as a caring profession where teachers deal with students "as whole human beings" or "emotional, moral, social and cultural as well as cognitive beings" (p. 411). Lamb (2017) adds that language teachers possess a huge fund of professional, practical knowledge about how to attend to learners' affect, which can and should inform theory.

Empirical studies on language teachers' principles and practices with regard to affect

Despite the seemingly limited research that explicitly explores language teachers' knowledge and practices regarding affect, accounts of language teachers' affective concerns can be found. J. C. Richards (1996) identifies *the maxim of involvement*, which causes language teachers to depart from their teaching plans to maintain learners' interests, as well as the *maxim of encouragement*, which drives them to develop a relaxed classroom atmosphere through informal teacher–student relations and cooperative peer interactions and tasks. A common principle shared by all eighteen ESL teachers in Australia in Breen et al. (2001) is that of *taking account of individual differences between students/or specific characteristics of individual differences.* Senior (2006) found that NESTs attached the utmost importance to the relational dimension of classroom life. Wette (2010) found that teachers working in New Zealand noticed affective concerns that arose during lessons and made on-the-spot changes in their plans in response, as well as actively seeking feedback from students about their affective needs and responding to them by making alternations to the taught curriculum. These studies provide some evidence that language teachers conceive learners as emotional and relational beings, not solely as cognitive beings.

Breen et al.'s (2001) study reveals the complex interactions between teachers' principles and practices. Although the eighteen ESL teachers of adults and children in Australia held the same principle of accounting for individual differences, this principle gave rise to over thirty distinct teaching practices, suggesting that teachers responded to this principle in different ways. The teaching practices described in these studies seem to be for the most part implicit and do not involve explicit attempts to change students' affect or values, such as adopting an informal, non-authoritarian teacher role and choosing topics to suit the students' age group. This is supported by Wette's finding (2010) that teachers were found to respond to learners' affective needs through noticing and interpreting implicit cues. Senior (2006) found that a positive social atmosphere in the classroom and group cohesion were the most important factors used by NESTs to determine the quality of a language class. An informal, relaxed classroom atmosphere, often created and vitalized through humour, was identified as a key strategy for

building rapport with students. Teachers also reported striking a balance between appearing friendly and approachable, and asserting their authority to build professional credibility. Tasks were also designed to engage both the intellect and emotions while protecting students' self-esteem. This is supported by Wette's (2010) finding that teachers maximized the transparency of the course by explicitly telling students the task purpose and eliciting students' feedback to foster positive attitudes and teacher-student relations. The tacit manifestation of teachers' responses, therefore, can make it difficult for researchers to identify affective teaching practices through observations alone.

Senior's study (2006) collected interview data over a twelve-year period from more than one hundred practicing NESTs. She found that a positive social atmosphere in the classroom and group cohesion were the most important factors used by teachers to determine the quality of a language class. An informal, relaxed classroom atmosphere, often created and vitalized through humour, was identified as a key strategy for building rapport with students. Teachers also reported striking a balance between appearing friendly and approachable, and asserting their authority to build professional credibility. Tasks were also designed to engage both the intellect and emotions while protecting students' self-esteem. This resonates well with the major findings from Wette's study (2010), which also found that teachers maximized the transparency of the course by explicitly telling students the task purposes and eliciting students' feedback to foster positive attitudes and teacher-student relations.

The priority given by teachers to the relational dimension also emerges from a small number of interview-based studies (e.g. Johnston, 2003; Le Ha & Van Que, 2006; Mangubhai, 2007) that explore the moral dimension of language teaching. For instance, Mangubhai (2007) found that six language teachers in Australia wishing to create a caring classroom atmosphere held three socio-moral concerns. This included the concerns that everyone had a worth, that one should not hurt others' feelings, and that one should be tolerant of differences. Le Ha and Van Que (2006) found that six Vietnamese teachers attempted to promote the values of love, kindness, empathy, responsibility, and moral responsibility. One theme in Johnston's study (2003) is that language teachers experienced "dilemmas of teacher-student relations" such as tensions between asserting teacher control and allowing learner autonomy as well as asserting authority and maintaining solidarity with students. The teaching practices described in these studies can be implicit. For instance, teachers in Mangubhai (2007) reported creating a caring atmosphere through finding extra time to help students with study, and giving a round of applause for autistic students who gave presentations before class. They can also be explicit. For example, teachers in Le Ha and Van Que (2006) reported giving moral lessons based on reading passages

and telling stories of how to become a good person. Some participants in the studies by Mungubhai (2007) and Le Ha & Van Que (2006) took on the role of a moral guide, and were willing to depart their moral values to their students explicitly.

A small number of survey studies have invited language teachers in Hungary, Taiwan, and South Korea to rate the relative importance of motivational strategies (Cheng and Dörnyei, 2007; Dörnyei and Csizér's; Guilloteaux, 2013). Interestingly, appropriate behaviour by the teacher towards students (in other words, the relational dimension), was ranked first by all studies. Other motivational strategies highly valued by these teachers were presenting tasks in a motivating way, and increasing learners' self-confidence. While these strategies seem to be transferable to different contexts, some differences in preferences may be attributed to the local socio-cultural contexts. For instance, Asian teachers placed less importance on learner autonomy, and emphasized student effort. This may be due to their Confucian beliefs, although Guilloteaux (2013) cautions that there may also be non-cultural explanations.

2.2.4 Summary and Research Question 1

There is a general agreement in ELT that teachers' ability to attend to learners' affect is a crucial language teaching skill. However, not only is there little research on how NNESTs attend to learners' affective needs, but this aspect has also been marginalized in research generally. Lamb (2017) has called for teacher cognition researchers to tap into teachers' large fund of practical knowledge in how and why they support learners' motivation in practice. Such studies, he recommends, need to recognize the complexities of teachers' mental lives and document teachers' interactive decision-making and actual teaching practices through stimulated-recall interviews. This resonates with Rosiek's (2003) warning against a research that oversimplifies the affective dimension by focusing solely on teachers' affective considerations and disregarding other considerations, especially the pedagogical considerations, since affective and pedagogical considerations can be inextricably linked. The affective dimension of ELT is therefore worthy of exploration from the perspective of NNESTs. Therefore, Research Question 1 is: *What affective considerations underpin teachers' core principles and practices?*

2.3 Pedagogical considerations in ELT

Pedagogical considerations involving how to teach an L2 provide an indispensable foundation for the ELT profession. For over a century, there has been a search for the best method that could be transmitted to teachers for implementation. However, it is now widely accepted that there is no best method, and the theory–practice divide, where theorists advise the most effective means to teach an L2 for teachers to follow in practice, has been called into question. Teachers are no longer viewed as merely implementors of theorists' methods, but rather professionals with their own pedagogic principles and practices. This statement highlights the view that teachers are not empty vessels, but that hey have their own personalized principles that guide their action inside the classroom. Even when teachers are implementors of external prescriptions, within teachers' cognition these prescriptions are interpreted and acted upon.This section first examines key terms related to pedagogic practices in ELT and explores pedagogical options arising from the contrast between traditional and communicative approaches that have been proposed by theorists. It then explores teachers' pedagogic principles and practices from empirical studies.

2.3.1 Theorists' language teaching methods and language teachers' pedagogies

Different terms have been used in different ways to refer to L2 teaching practices (Bell, 2003; H. D. Brown, 2007b; G. Hall, 2011). The terms *methodology* and *pedagogy* are often used interchangeably to mean teaching or instructional practices. However, the questioning of the theory–practice divide has led to the need for an explicit distinction to be made between theorists' methods and approaches based on formal theories, and teachers' pedagogic practices informed by their practical knowledge and principles. Contrasting terms are used to capture the difference between what theorists propose and what teachers actually do in the classroom: *methods* versus *pedagogy* (H. D. Brown, 2002; J. C. Richards & Renandya, 2002), *methodology* versus *pedagogy,* and *methods* versus *methodology* (Kumaravadivelu, 2006b). As Kumaravadivelu (2006b) explains:

> I use the term method to refer to established methods conceptualized and constructed by experts in the field…I use the term methodology to refer to what practicing teachers actually do in the classroom in order to achieve their stated or unstated teaching objectives (p. 85).

J. C. Richards and Rodgers's three-tier framework (2001) is influential in the deconstruction of the theorists' methods, which consists of *approach* (i.e. abstract assumptions, theories and beliefs about the nature of language and language learning), *design* (i.e. a workable teaching plan), and *procedure* (i.e. specific teaching techniques). However, to understand teachers'

practices, Kumaravadivelu (2006b) maintains that the three-tier framework should be simplified into two levels: *principles* and *procedures*. This resonates with language teacher cognition studies that employ various constructs such as beliefs, principles and maxims to capture teachers' cognition in relation to teaching practices. This study uses the terms (theorists') *methods* and *approaches* to discuss pedagogical options that theorists propose, and (teachers') pedagogical *principles* and *practices* to discuss teachers' pedagogical considerations and teaching practices. The distinction needs to be made because this study is primarily interested in teachers' pedagogical principles and practices, while leaving open the possibility of the influences of theorists' *methods* on teachers' pedagogical considerations. It is therefore important to review pedagogical options arising from theorists' proposed methods and approaches.

2.3.2   *Pedagogical considerations in theory and scholarship*

To date, it remains uncertain how many pedagogical options are available, due to overlapping theoretical assumptions and practices among different methods and approaches (Housen & Pierrard, 2005; Kumaravadivelu, 2003; J. C. Richards & Rodgers, 2001). An attempt to compare different options often involves contrasting traditional approaches with CLT, although in practice they are viewed as end-points on a continuum (e.g. Littlewood, 2007; Stern, 1992) rather than mutually exclusive opposites.

Traditional methods and approaches

Grammar translation and audiolingualism are examples of traditional methods. Both methods focus on developing linguistic competence, assuming that the mastery of discrete linguistic forms provides a necessary and sufficient route for the development of knowledge and ability to communicate in the L2 (Ellis, 2003; Kumaravadivelu, 2006b; Littlewood, 2011; J. C. Richards, 2006). Common characteristics of these two methods include instruction in the structural syllabus, where discrete linguistic items are presented and learners are given opportunities to practice selected and graded linguistic structures through form-focused exercises; an assumption that language learning can occur intentionally through explicit introduction, analysis and explanation of the linguistic system of the L2; and an assumption that language learning is a linear, additive learning processes. Traditional teaching methods make much use of memorization, repetition, drilling, and various forms of guided practice (J. C. Richards, 2006), and are viewed as teacher-centred in that teachers are authority figures transmitting knowledge to learners who play a relatively passive role in the learning process. Language occupies the central position in the curriculum.

In addition to these similarities, grammar translation and audiolingual methods also have distinctive features. Grammar translation aims to develop the knowledge of formal grammar and vocabulary, and involves explicit, deductive grammar instruction taught primarily in the L1 where bilingual lists of isolated vocabulary are provided, and students are encouraged to apply grammatical rules through translation exercises (H. D. Brown, 2007a, 2007b; Fotos, 2005; Jin & Cortazzi, 2011; J. C. Richards & Rodgers, 2001). Although the method lacks a theory, learning processes involve memorization and analysis (H. D. Brown, 2007a; Fotos, 2005; Jin & Cortazzi, 2011). In contrast, the audiolingual method prioritizes learning of grammatical structures and patterns through guided practice in oral skills (G. Hall, 2011; J. C. Richards & Rodgers, 2001; J. C. Richards, 2015). It relies on inductive learning of grammatical structures, and does not draw on students' L1. Instruction makes extensive use of dialogues, practiced through mimicry and substitution tables. The method is grounded in a behaviorist view of language learning as primarily involving mechanical processes of memory, habit formation, and positive reinforcement (Celce-Murcia, 2014; Jin & Cortazzi, 2011; Kumaravadivelu, 2006b; J. C. Richards & Rodgers, 2001). Akin to the audiolingual methods in some respects, the structural-situational method employs a PPP cycle (presentation, practice and production) that starts with a presentation of target linguistic items, followed by opportunities to practice the target items in controlled exercises and activities before moving on to freer production tasks.

Traditional approaches draw on analytic learning and contribute to explicit knowledge, which may add directly to implicit knowledge of language use (Nation, 2007; Nation & Newton, 2009), or have a consciousness-raising and noticing function that draws learners to become aware of systematic aspects of the target language (Kumaravadivelu, 2006b; Nation, 2007; Nation & Newton, 2009). Another advantage is its focused efficiency; that is, it results in a comparatively substantial amount of learning in a limited time (Griffiths, 2011; Nation, 2007; Nation & Newton, 2009). There is also evidence that the learning rate and linguistic accuracy of learners receiving explicit grammatical instruction increases when compared with uninstructed learners (Ortega, 2014). Ellis (2014) points out that traditional focus-on-forms instruction may lead to memorized patterns, but that this should not be viewed as an instructional failure as such patterns are beneficial to learners. However, traditional approaches have been critiqued on the grounds that, firstly, they do not offer experiential language learning and therefore deprive learners of its benefits, especially the development of fluent command of language. Secondly, their theoretical basis such as behaviorism and a transmissive approach to language teaching assuming a linear, step-by-step language learning (Ellis, 2003; J. C. Richards, 2015; Tudor, 2001) is fundamentally flawed.

Communicative approaches

CLT is not a monolithic construct. It has been defined and implemented in so many ways that it cannot be defined precisely, and should definitely be considered as an approach rather than a method (Duff, 2014; G. Hall, 2011; Littlewood, 2011, 2014; J. C. Richards & Rodgers, 2001; Savignon, 2007). CLT is credited for expanding language teaching from its narrow focus on linguistic competence to encompass communicative competence (e.g. Hymes, 1972). More recently, it has been suggested that "intercultural competence", which refers to an ability to interact with interlocutors from different cultures, to accept others' perspectives of the world, and to mediate between these different perspectives in favour of mutual understanding (Byram, Nichols, & Stevens, 2001), be added as a fifth component (Alptekin, 2002; Berns, 2006; Byram, 1997; Leung, 2005). With regard to the collection of approaches that can be described as communicative, a distinction has been made between "weak" and "strong" versions of CLT, each of which differs significantly in its assumptions (Howatt, 2004). The weak version is similar to traditional approaches in certain ways (Ellis, 2003; G. Hall, 2011; Kumaravadivelu, 2006b); for example, it uses traditional techniques such as explicit presentation and pre-communicative practice but also includes communicative production as the final stage (G. Hall, 2011). Language forms and functions are pre-selected, pre-sequenced, and taught to learners deductively (and somewhat inductively) through three PPP phases (Ellis, 2003; Kumaravadivelu, 2006b). Therefore, it assumes that language learning is an intentional, linear, and additive process. In contrast to traditional approaches, in the production stage, communicative, meaning-focused activities such as role-play and information-gap are employed that aim to push learners to negotiate authentic communication.

The strong version of CLT assumes that the only route to L2 mastery involves learners engaging in open-ended communication in which attention is focused on the message rather than on grammatical form (Ellis, 2003; Kumaravadivelu, 2006b; Littlewood, 2011, 2014). As in naturalistic L2 acquisition, L2 learning is viewed as involving incidental and non-linear processes that are beyond the teachers' control (Kumaravadivelu, 2006b). While the weak version preselects language items as learning goals, no such attempt is made in the strong version (Ellis, 2003). The most influential strong version of CLT is task-based language teaching, which allows an explicit focus on form, as long as it arises out of learners' incidental attention to the target form while working on meaning-focused tasks that serve as the central focus of instruction (Ellis, 2003). Communicative approaches require teachers to take a role as facilitator, advisor, and organizer, and promote cooperative, active, autonomous learning (J. C. Richards, 2006).

The strength of CLT and its foundation in experiential learning is its resemblance to language use in spontaneous communication, and holistic practice requiring negotiation of meaning that may better prepare learners to engage in real language use than part practice with a dominant focus on accuracy (Tudor, 2001). There is an agreement that communicative practice is needed in order to develop implicit knowledge of language use, and that fluency therefore requires communicative practice (Ellis, 2005, 2014). However, incidental language learning is slow and fragile because each exposure to a target language item brings only small gains, and a large quantity of input is required (Ellis, 2014; Nation, 2007; Nation & Newton, 2009). The quality of experiential learning is also affected by learners' background knowledge, and meaningful learning must therefore be anchored within learners' existing knowledge and relevant to their interests and goals (H. D. Brown, 2007b; Nation, 2007; Nation & Newton, 2009).

A major criticism of CLT is that it may develop learners' fluency at the expense of accuracy and deprive them of the benefits that analytical learning offers (H. D. Brown, 2007b; G. Hall, 2011; J. C. Richards, 2015; Tudor, 2001). A weak version of CLT is viewed as more feasible and less threatening for learners, especially those of limited proficiency who lack confidence, than strong CLT and therefore dominates in actual practice (G. Hall, 2011; J. C. Richards, 2006; Senior, 2006). Strong versions of CLT with active learning may not be appropriate for all cultures and contexts, especially those with teacher-centred classrooms (Bax, 2003; G. Hall, 2011; Littlewood, 2014).

Eclectic approaches

Eclectic approaches drawing theoretical and practical insights from different methods and approaches are recommended by many scholars (e.g. H. D. Brown, 2002; Ellis, 2014; Jin & Cortazzi, 2011; Nassaji & Fotos, 2011), in recognition of the fact that traditional and communicative approaches may benefit learners in complementary ways. However, eclecticism needs to be underpinned by sound principles and rationales rather than randomness. As Widdowson (2003) argues, "eclecticism is not the same as random expediency, an ad hoc reaction to immediate circumstances, but a matter of choosing from a range of options" (p. 19). Despite a widespread agreement that both analytical and experiential learning are needed, there has been much debate over the optimal combination between the two, with Nation (2007) and Littlewood (2014) both taking the view that this will always be an area in which scholars and teachers will make their own eclectic decisions. For example, a number of scholars regard traditional techniques such as drills and structured practice as appropriate at lower levels (e.g. H. D. Brown, 2007b; Jin & Cortazzi, 2011; Kumaravadivelu, 2006b; Tudor, 2001). Others

disagree, and hold the view that meaning-focused activities should be emphasized from the beginning (Nation, 2007; Nation & Newton, 2009).

It is difficult to determine which combination of form-focused and meaning-focused activities is most effective for a particular group of learners or context, due to the complexity of any teaching context and the myriad factors that can influence the teacher's choices (Nassaji & Fotos, 2011). This acknowledgement of teaching complexities supports the view that a distinction should be made between theorists' methodology based on abstract, formal theories geared toward an idealized context, and teachers' pedagogic practices guided by their personal, practical theories and principles within a specific context. As Graves (1996) notes, "teachers plan and teach courses not in the abstract, but in the concrete of their constraints and resources" (p. 34).

2.3.3   Pedagogical considerations in language teachers' principles and practices

This section explores relationships that may exist between theorists' methods and teachers' teaching practices and pedagogic principles. It first examines scholarly views on these relationships in ELT literature, and goes on to discuss these relationships drawing on empirical studies investigating teachers' practices and pedagogical principles regarding traditional and communicative approaches.

Relationships between theorists' methods and teachers' pedagogical practices

Echoing the premise of language teacher cognition research, language teachers are no longer regarded as passive technicians who implement others' prescribed methods, but as autonomous, informed decision-makers with their own practical theories and principles. Any imposition by theorists of methods for teachers to implement is therefore regarded as neither desirable nor tenable (e.g. H. D. Brown, 2007a; Ellis, 2003; Kumaravadivelu, 2006a; Littlewood, 2014; J. C. Richards & Rodgers, 2001), and a number of arguments have been proposed that acknowledge the importance of teachers' practice-based principles in guiding their pedagogy for L2 instruction. For instance, methods geared towards idealized contexts assume a linear relationship between methodological principles, implementations and learning gains, whereas in practice, the success of language teaching rests on so many context-specific factors that no theory-based method can ever be appropriate for all learners in all contexts (Kumaravadivelu, 2006b; Tudor, 2003). Because of this complexity, teachers are in a better position to provide and adjust instruction to suit particular classroom contexts. Teachers are said to have difficulties implementing any theory-based method in ways that precisely reflects its principles, and therefore develop eclectic approaches (H. D. Brown, 2007b; G. Hall, 2011; Kumaravadivelu, 2006a; J. C. Richards & Rodgers, 2001).

This view of teachers as decision makers who negotiate competing contextual factors and devise instruction to suit a particular context is extended and endorsed by constructs such as the "post-method condition" (Kumaravadivelu, 1994), "enlightened eclectic approach", (H. D. Brown, 2007b), and "principled pragmaticism" (Kumaravadivelu, 2003). For Kumaravadivelu (1994), a postmethod pedagogy rests on three foundations: *particularity* (i.e. pedagogy that is sensitive and appropriate to teachers and learners in particular context), *practicality* (i.e. pedagogy that acknowledges teachers as theorizers of their own practice), and *possibility* (i.e. pedagogy that acknowledges teachers' and learners' identities and questions the status quo that subjugate them). Unlike *eclecticism*, which implies that teachers select appropriate methodological options from established methods, Kumaravadivelu (2003) uses the term *principled pragmaticism* to acknowledge that teachers can use their personal principles based on their own experience as learners and teachers to theorize and improve their own practice through self-observation, self-analysis, and self-evaluation. A number of empirical studies have illuminated relationships between disciplinary knowledge regarding a specific theorist's approach, especially CLT and teachers' pedagogical principles and practices, and these are outlined in the following paragraphs.

Empirical research on language teachers' principles and practices in relation to traditional and communicative approaches

CLT has been endorsed in official policies around the world. As a result, a number of studies have examined language teachers' understanding and/or implementation of CLT in Asian contexts that include China (e.g. Pu & Pawan, 2014; Xinmin & Adamson, 2003; Yan, 2012; Zheng & Borg, 2014; Zheng & Davison, 2008), Korea (Beaumont & Chang, 2011; D. Li, 1998), Japan (Sakui, 2004), Vietnam (Hiep, 2007), Thailand (Prapaisit & Hardison, 2009), Turkey (Woods & Çakır, 2011) as well as the ESL contexts (Mangubhai, Marland, Dashwood, & Son, 2005; Sato & Kleinsasser, 1999; Senior, 2006) outside this region. Most of these studies are qualitative, with interviews and/or observations as the main data collection instruments.

These studies collectively suggest that language teachers have their own teaching conceptions that may differ from researchers' conceptions. Evidence of this can be found in the fact that teachers' conceptions of CLT were found to be different in critical ways from scholarly conceptions (e.g. Sato & Kleinsasser, 1999; Senior, 2006; Zheng & Borg, 2014). For example, Sato and Kleinsasser (1999) found that teachers of Japanese in Australia rarely gave complete descriptions of CLT and held variable, broad, and fragmented views of CLT. They observed that teachers' views and actions paid little attention to scholarly CLT literature, and their personal L2 learning and teaching experience seem to exert strongest influences on their CLT

conceptions. Most teachers (Hiep, 2007; Sakui, 2004; Senior, 2006) were hesitant or reported difficulties in providing their personal definitions of CLT.

Beaumont and Chang (2011) found that teachers' categorization of communicative activities was inconsistent with that found in CLT literature, since they identified neo-behaviourist practices as communicative. This echoes the finding that teachers held pedagogical principles corresponding to both traditional and communicative approaches rather than a "pure" perspective (Karavas-Doukas, 1996; D. Li, 1998; Pu & Pawan, 2014; Sakui, 2004; Senior, 2006). For instance, Hong and Pawan (2014) found that exposure to Western-based CLT provided four Chinese tertiary teachers of English with a critical lens to question certain Chinese traditional practices, and to evaluate what aspects of CLT could be made relevant to their local context. As a result, teachers amalgamated CLT with traditional practices they highly valued (e.g. memorization, recitation, translation, and teacher authority) and used CLT-inspired teaching practices that might not be accepted as communicative from a Western-based conception. For instance, believing in the importance of teacher authority and active learning, a Chinese teacher implemented "guided student-centredness" where she encouraged students to ask questions and think actively in teacher-led activities. Pu and Pawan (2014) then argue that these teachers took ownership of Western-based CLT and localized it to suit local context. Similarly, most NESTs in Senior (2006) viewed that it was appropriate to teach in eclectic ways, held a parallel set of beliefs about language leaning, and preferred "hybrid versions of CLT". In Sakui's (2004) description, Japanese teachers also wore "two pairs of shoes" (p. 158), referring to perceived tensions between grammar teaching for grammar-based entrance examination and CLT experienced by teachers.

Mangubhai et al. (2005) and Woods and Cakir (2011) offer additional insights into how six Australian teachers of foreign languages and six Turkish teachers of English articulate their personal principles in relation to CLT that challenge and confirm previous findings. Unlike other studies suggesting teachers' inadequate theoretical understanding of CLT, both studies found that when data collection methods (i.e. a questionnaire or a sentence-completion task) elicited abstract, theoretical knowledge, teachers' conceptions were close to scholarly conceptions. However, when elicited through interviews and reflections based on actual video records of actual lessons, teachers were found to hold personal principles regarding CLT that were attuned to unique work contexts, and emphasized only certain aspects of the approach, resulting in a less expansive version of CLT. It is this more practical, streamlined version of theoretical knowledge that is believed to guide teachers' practices.

Both studies confirm previous findings that teachers' conceptions differ from scholarly CLT literature. For Woods and Cakir (2011), teachers personalized and juxtaposed abstract theories of CLT with their personal experience. Mangubhai et al. (2005) found that teachers' principles of CLT were integrated into personal beliefs about teaching and learning, and include many features from general teaching not necessarily related to CLT such as affective considerations (e.g. "students' enjoyment") and contextual considerations (e.g. numerous references regarding school, community, class and individual students). They then point out that studies to date have not investigated CLT as a part of teachers' overall teaching approaches. This is important because, as they argue, "such integration suggests that teachers' classroom actions may not be driven solely, or, even mostly, by concerns related to a CLT approach in the classroom" (p. 59). This reiterates the position that teachers' pedagogical considerations involve other considerations such as affective and contextual considerations that may not include or may be broader than researchers' sole interest in CLT.

Zheng and Adamson (2003) and Zheng and Davison (2008) emphasized the clear distinction between *methodology* constructed by theorists' theoretical knowledge and *pedagogy* guided by teachers' personal principles. These studies provided rich accounts of how Chinese secondary school teachers constructed their pedagogy and the extent to which they adapted CLT promoted in the curriculum. Both studies similarly found that teachers' pedagogies were eclectic and were affected by myriad factors such as personal beliefs, national examinations, personal experience, and time pressure. Zheng and Davison (2008) then argue for the acknowledgement of teaching complexities that goes beyond a narrow focus on a particular method:

> If we are to examine the dynamic entity of teachers' pedagogy, it is necessary to take all these influential factors into consideration. Only by doing so can we see which factors have been of most influence on teachers' pedagogy and explore it from a dialectical and interactive point of view to understand the real nature of teachers' pedagogy… (p. 71)

The argument that language teaching is inherently complex and rests on many contextual factors was a recurring theme in studies that examined (mis-)matches between what teachers understood about CLT and what they did in the classroom. While teachers' favourable attitudes towards CLT were often reported (Hiep, 2007; Karavas-Doukas, 1996; Sato & Kleinsasser, 1999; Yan, 2012a) a number of studies found considerable gaps between what teachers said, and what they did. For instance, Prapaisit and Hardison (2009) and Borg and Orafi (2009) found no evidence of communicative activities as observed from three Thai primary teachers and three Libyan secondary teachers respectively. Sato and Kleinsasser (1999), Karavas-Doukas (1996), Sakui (2004), and Yan (2012) all made the observation that non-communicative activities

largely dominated the lessons, with communicative activities playing a much less influential role. In contrast, Zheng and Borg (2014) found that three Chinese secondary teachers taught communicatively. These studies often report micro- and macro-contextual factors as a barrier to more extensive CLT implementation (e.g. students' low English proficiency, large class size, and teacher-centred culture).

2.3.4 Summary and Research question 2

The pedagogical side of the work in ELT, revolving around how an L2 should be taught, is an indispensable part of language teachers' practical, professional knowledge. However, empirical evidence suggests that teachers are not simply passive implementors of others' methods, but rather reflective decision-makers with their personal pedagogical principles that may differ in critical ways and are broader from researchers' interest in specific teaching approach. As Mungubhai et al. (2005) observe, teachers may not be driven solely or even predominantly by CLT interests. This points to the need for more studies that examine teachers' pedagogic principles and practices from their own perspectives and in relation to other considerations, especially the affective and contextual considerations. Likewise, Littlewood (2014) asks: "In the current 'postmethod' era…, in which no unified method provides principles to guide this selection [of immense range of learning activities], WHAT principles should guide it?" (p. 355). Therefore, pedagogical dimension of ELT is worthy of exploration from the perspective of NNESTs, and Research Question 2 is: *What pedagogical considerations underpin teachers' core principles and practices?* As can be seen, contextual considerations have been the important theme in this and previous sections. The role of context in shaping language teachers' decisions and practices, especially the macro-contextual influences, have increasingly been acknowledged in ELT (Alderson, 2009; J. K. Hall & Eggington, 2000; Pennycook, 1999; 2016). In recent decades, such discussion has emphasized on the problematic nature of the concept NS in light of the global spread of English and its role as an international language. The next section, therefore, explores the NES–NNES issues confronting NNESTs.

Section 3 (Macro-)contextual considerations: Exploring NES–NNES issues

2.4 NNESTs and NES pedagogical norms in the ELT profession

NNESTs have tended to be conceptualized as NNESs who are less proficient in English than NESs (Selvi, 2011). Given that NES norms serve as the dominant pedagogical model and idealized target for NNESs, this has led to an entrenched belief that an ideal teacher of English is a NS (Braine, 2010; Moussu & Llurda, 2008; Selvi, 2011). In recent decades, this view has been challenged in light of the changing sociolinguistic profiles of English and its role as an international language. This section revisits the NES–NNES debate set out in the Introduction.

It first discusses definitions of NS and NNS constructs, and examines the theoretical impetus for the questioning of NES models and the native speakerism (Holliday, 2006). Implications for ELT are explored, followed by a discussion of empirical studies on NNESTs to establish what is known about this group of teachers and their English language teaching.

2.5　Defining NS and NNS

NS is an elusive construct based on contentious rather than objective criteria. In its simplest definition, a NS of a language is one who acquires the language as first language in childhood (Braine, 2010; Davies, 2004, 2013; Mesthrie & Bhatt, 2008; Thornbury, 2006). A NS is traditionally viewed as someone who "inherited [a particular language], either through genetic endowment or through birth into the social group stereotypically associated with it" (Rampton, 1990, p. 97), and therefore has more legitimate ownership to the language (Ortega, 2014). When it comes to the English language, a NES is commonly considered as an individual born and brought up in an English-speaking country (Medgyes, 2001), while a NNS acquires English later in life and speaks it as a second or foreign language (Braine, 2010; Mesthrie & Bhatt, 2008). Nonetheless, a clear-cut distinction has been challenged, since English has become an indigenized language in many of Kachru's Outer Circle countries (1985b, 1992), and there are English users who cannot be easily categorized as NESs or NNESs (Moussu & Llurda, 2008).

Another assumption that has been challenged is that a NS possesses a superior language expertise than a NNS (Davies, 2013; Medgyes, 2001; Mesthrie & Bhatt, 2008; Rampton, 1990). For instance, Davis (2013) lists six common definitions of an NS, one of which relates to the order of language acquisition, and five others that relate to language expertise. He argues that, except for the order of language acquisition, an L2 learner can master the language intuition characteristic of a born NS. Rampton (1990) argues for the need to separate language expertise from language as a social identification, because individuals also identify themselves as NS based on the language they believe they have inherited or are socially affiliated with. At the same time, the social recognition of NS status by relevant communities can exert influences on whether individuals perceive themselves as NSs (Kramsch, 1995, as cited in Huang, 2018; Moussu & Llurda, 2008). Despite the elusiveness and objections to the NES–NNES dichotomy, the two terms are "as widely used in the professional jargon of both teachers and researchers today as ever" (Árva & Medgyes, 2000, p. 356), and many speakers and teachers still consider themselves to be either NS or NNS (Medgyes, 1994; Moussu & Llurda, 2008). As can be seen, the term NS often carries with it positive connotations of language expertise and ownership to which the term NNS is deficiently compared. It is this position that has been challenged in the NES–NESS debate.

2.5.1 The NES/NNES debate

Chomsky's oft-cited quotation (Chomsky, 1969, p. 3) that "linguistic theory is concerned primarily with an ideal speaker-listener, in a completely homogenous speech community…" has often been held responsible for endorsing the view that the NS is the only valid source of linguistic data, despite his explicit declaration that his NS is an idealized construct. The comparison between an idealized NS competence with NNS competence in the mainstream SLA research has been critiqued as indicating a monolingual bias because, firstly, through its constructs such as fossilization, error and native-likeness, mainstream SLA focuses on explaining why bi-/multilinguals fail to achieve monolingual NES-like competence. Secondly, it rests on the ideological assumption of language purity and unitary language entities, which can be challenged by the view of hybrid and dynamic language repertoires bi-/multilinguals possess (e.g. Block, 2003; Cook, 1999; May, 2014; Ortega, 2014). These scholars argue that bi-/multilingual speakers should be viewed as legitimate English users in their own right rather than failed NESs.

The global spread of English has meant that NNESs outnumber NESs (Crystal, 2008), that increasingly fewer interactions in English globally involve NESs exclusively, and that English has become an international language used most frequently as a lingua franca among NNESs (Graddol, 2006; Jenkins, 2006b, 2009b). WEs and ELF research paradigms have emerged to document English uses among NNESs. The crux of the WEs arguments is that NNESs mould English to suit their communicative purposes and local socio-cultural contexts, which create new English varieties with distinct and cultural identities. These NNES features therefore should not be dismissed as fossilization, but as a result of bilinguals' creativity and bi-/multi-lingual competence (B. Kachru, 1985a). Similarly, ELF scholars argue that these NNES forms cannot be described as deficient English uses because they are functionally effective, and that ELF users are as legitimate as other users (Mauranen, 2012; Jenkins, 2009b; Seidlhofer, 2009). WEs also promotes an inclusive and egalitarian philosophy to English variations and diversity, and rejects the idealization of English as a monolithic entity solely owned by NES (Bolton, 2006; Mesthrie & Bhatt, 2008).

This debate is relevant to NNESTs who are often viewed as professionally less credible than NESTs due to their NNES status (Braine, 2010; Moussu & Llurda, 2008; Selvi, 2011). Offering a critical perspective, Phillipson (1992, 2007) critiques the "native speaker fallacy" (i.e. the commonly held belief that the best teacher of English is the NES) as an attempt to spread dominant US and UK language and cultures around the world (i.e. linguistic imperialism). Likewise, Holliday (2006) coins the term "native speakerism" to refer to the pervasive ideology

in ELT that "…'native speaker' teachers represent a 'Western culture' from which spring the ideals both of the English language and of English language teaching methodology" (p. 385). A "NNEST movement" (Braine, 2010; Kamhi-Stein, 2016) has been established to promote a non-discriminatory professional environment for all teachers regardless of NES/NNES status, and the strengths of NNESTs have been pointed out to construct positive professional identities for this group of teachers (e.g. Braine, 1999, 2010; Llurda, 2005; Mahboob, 2010; Medgyes, 1992).

2.5.2 Implications for ELT practices: English as an International Language Approach (EIL approach)

In light of the changing sociolinguistic profile of English where learners are more likely to engage in English communications with English users from diverse linguistic and cultural backgrounds rather than NESs, many applied linguists have called for a paradigm shift that moves away from an EFL/ESL approach based on NES models towards an approach that acknowledges and represents to learners linguistic and cultural diversity embedded in English in today's globalized world. This has come to be known as an EIL approach (Alsagoff, McKay, Hu, & Renandya, 2012; Kirkpatrick, 2012a; Marlina, 2018; Matsuda, 2012c; Sharifian, 2009).

The EIL approach draws on WEs and ELF perspectives as its theoretical basis. It promotes a pluricentric view of English and an egalitarian philosophy towards English variations with assumptions that "English no longer has one single base of authority, prestige, and normativity" (Mesthrie & Bhatt, 2008, p. 3); that English belongs to anyone who uses it; and that hybrid and dynamic uses of English are as legitimate as the conventional stable norms. In short, "the literature on EIL, however diverse in opinion, is united in the desire to move away from teaching for native-speaker competence" and towards bi-/multilingual competence (Alsagoff, 2012, p. 116).

Principles of the EIL approach (e.g. Alptekin, 2002; J. D. Brown, 2012; Kirkpatrick, 2012b; Kubota & Ward, 2000; Matsuda, 2012b; McKay, 2012) have been proposed. The approach sets the competent bi-/multilingual English user rather than the idealized NES as the target and pedagogical models. Therefore, the ability to negotiate meanings and communicate successfully across Englishes and cultures is emphasized over the mastery of a single NES standard norm (Marlina, 2014, 2018). Relevant NNES varieties and NNES–NNES interactions are included alongside NES counterparts to represent the diversity of English, which benefits learners who can improve their receptive skills in processing different varieties, learn about communication strategies employed by NNES users, and have a realistic expectation of their English interlocutors with different linguistic and cultural backgrounds (McKay & Bokhorst-

Heng, 2008). Exposure to relevant cultures is provided, and intercultural communicative competence is the goal. That is, learners need to be encouraged to express their own cultural identities and critically reflect on their own and others' culture to achieve mutual, cross-cultural understanding, rather than being pressured to conform to NES cultural norms (McKay, 2003). Lastly, the political and social dimensions of language use or (critical) language awareness need to be acknowledged in the EIL approach. This ranges from a questioning of English-only policy and a teaching approach at odd with multilingualism and local cultures of learning; an awareness-raising that fosters a tolerant and egalitarian attitude toward English and cultural diversity as well as the ownership of English; and a critical appraisal of the discourse of native speakerism.

Various explanations have also been offered as to why NES–based communicative competence – which expects learners to master idealized NES standard norms and use these norms appropriately according to a NES socio-cultural milieu – is problematic. Such a model treats language and cultures as monolithic entities, and is therefore culturally and socially insensitive, since diverse communicative competence in different socio-cultural contexts exists in today's globalized English communications (Alptekin, 2002; Berns, 2006; Leung, 2005). The standard NES norms not followed by all NESs are a partial representation and may foster stereotypes (Alptekin, 2002; Leung, 2005). The model is largely irrelevant to L2 users who use English for instrumental reasons (mainly with NNESs) and downplays bi-/multilingual competence (Alptekin, 2002). Despite these critiques, many EIL scholars argue that both standard and localized varieties must be attended to because of the power and authority of standard norms in domains such as academia (e.g. Kirkpatrick, 2014; Leung, 2005; Mahboob, 2014; Mckay, 2018). This seems to suggest a weak version of EIL approach, or "the integrate option" (i.e. integrating EIL practices to existing EFL/ESL practices based on NES models) as opposed to "the replace option" (Sifakis, 2018).

Limitations of the EIL approach have also been suggested. For instance, discussions about the EIL approach often takes place at a theoretical level, rather than on practical level (Galloway & Rose, 2014; Marlina, 2018; Matsuda, 2012a; McKay, 2012). Unlike NES models, there is a scarcity of teaching resources (Galloway & Rose, 2014) and insufficient codifications of NNES English norms (Kirkpatrick, 2006). Moreover, the nature of classroom context itself is prescriptive (Mauranen, 2012; Seidlhofer, 2011). That is, learner identity overrides other social identities, and learners are committed to acquire proficiency in given standards, unlike English uses outside class where other social identities are foregrounded (Mauranen, 2012). Lastly, the EIL approach may conflict with teachers' beliefs in NES norms, and this may be one of the

reasons why the EIL approach has had a limited impact on actual teaching practices (e.g. Dogancay-Aktuna & Hardman, 2018; Jenkins, 2012; Marlina, 2018; Seidlhofer, 2011). Nonetheless, it has been acknowledged that only teachers can determine the relevance of an EIL approach because of their knowledge of social and sociolinguistic landscapes of the local contexts, and therefore, top-down prescription should be avoided (e.g. Berns, 2006; J. D. Brown, 2012; Jenkins, 2012; Seidlhofer, 2011).

2.5.3 *Empirical studies on NNESTs' self-perceptions with regard to NNES status, pedagogical norms, and English language pedagogical practices*

Research on NES/NNES issues from the perspectives of NNESTs has focused mainly on their self-perceptions (Braine, 2010; Moussu & Llurda, 2008). Many studies are based on non-empirical "think-pieces" that acknowledge unique professional contributions of NNESTs (Moussu & Llurda, 2008). Medgyes (1992, 1994) provides an important think-piece that proposes three hypotheses based on his assumption that NESTs and NNESTs are two different species: both groups differ in language proficiency and teaching behaviours; most of the differences in teaching behaviours are due to a discrepancy in language proficiency; and both groups can be equally good teachers in their own terms. He argues that NNESTs have six hidden advantages, including serving as a good L2 learner model; teaching language learning strategies more effectively; providing more information about L2; predicting language difficulties better; being more empathetic to learners' needs and problems; and sharing learners' L1. Since then, NNESTs' self-perceptions on their strengths and weaknesses in relation to NESTs have been explored in research.

A pioneer international survey was conducted by Reves and Medgyes (1994) with 216 ESL/EFL teachers in ten countries across a range of continents. Through interviews or questionnaires, many studies explored this issue with a fewer number of NNEST participants (ranging from 4 to 54) in specific contexts such as Hong Kong (Ma, 2012; Tang, 1997), Hungary (Árva & Medgyes, 2000; Barratt & Kontra, 2000), China (Barratt & Kontra, 2000; Huang, 2018), and Thailand (Phothongsunan & Suwanarak, 2008; Thararuedee, 2012). It should be noted that Árva and Medgyes recruited NEST participants in equal number to NNESTs (5 each). These studies found that the vast majority of participants could identify strengths and weaknesses of both groups, and the weaknesses of one group were often perceived as strengths of another. Their views in these respects reveal strikingly similar patterns across different groups and contexts of these studies.

The NNESTs in all studies considered English language competence as inferior to that of NESTs. NESTs were generally viewed as representing better linguistic models for learners (Ma, 2012; Tang, 1997; Thararuedee, 2012). Unlike NNESTs, NESTs were valued for their knowledge of target cultures (Barratt & Kontra, 2000; Huang, 2018; Ma, 2012; Reves & Medgyes, 1994) and for boosting learners' motivation to communicate in English (Barratt & Kontra, 2000; Ma, 2012; Reves & Medgyes, 1994; Thararuedee, 2012). Regarding perceived strengths of NNESTs over NESTs, studies reported most of these advantages: better (metacognitive) knowledge of grammar and insight into the language due to formal language learning; better ability to predict students' language difficulties and to empathize with them; familiarity with local cultures and educational systems; and a qualification relevant to language teaching. These advantages mainly came from sharing learners' linguistic, cultural, and educational backgrounds.

Perceived differences in teaching styles were also reported (Árva & Medgyes, 2000; Ma, 2012; Reves & Medgyes, 1994). Generally-speaking, NNESTs were viewed as stricter and likely to use more traditional teaching approaches than NESTs who were viewed as being casual and less committed in teaching. All participants in Thararuedee (2012) and the majority in Phothongsunan and Suwanarak (2008) rejected the claim that the NEST is the best type of teacher because other factors of professionalism had to be considered, and NESTs and NNESTs had different strengths and weaknesses. These teachers, and the majority of teachers in Reves and Medgyes (1994), agree that both groups could be successful English teachers and should cooperate so that their unique strengths could be combined.

Participants also noted that huge differences existed within each group, and that generalizations about teaching effectiveness of each group could not be accurately made (Huang, 2018; Phothongsunan & Suwanarak, 2008). This is confirmed in studies by Árva and Medgyes (2000) and Huang (2018), which compared teachers' stated differences of NESTs and NNESTs practices with observations of their actual teaching practices. Both found that while certain statements were valid, others were wrong. Huang (2018) found that many external contextual factors such as tight teaching plans and students' English proficiency shaped teaching practices, and therefore disconfirms Medgyes's (1992, 1994) hypothesis that most differences in teaching practices between both groups are due to discrepancies in language proficiency.

How NNESTs establish professional credibility has been investigated by some studies. Through a survey, Figueiredo (2011) explored how eight Brazilian NNESTs perceived their identities while working in K-12 schools in the US. It was found that bi-/multilingual identities were crucial in establishing their unique expertise, highly valued by learners, parents, and colleagues.

Such expertise includes serving as a role model and a successful language learner model, sharing linguistic and cultural background with learners and parents, and providing metalinguistic strategies. NNES status did not appear to be a major issue for these teachers. Through interviews, observations, and a dialogic journal, Reis (2011) found that the professional identity of a high-English-proficient Chinese NNEST in an American university was filled with tensions and contradictions. The teacher felt empowered by a reconceptualization of his competence from a failed NES to an expert English user, and was observed to overtly and subtly challenge NES myths in his classrooms. In contrast, he showed reluctance to position himself as a legitimate NNEST– a sense of insecurity arising from a student comment that NNESTs should not be hired, his own belief in NES authority and desire to achieve NES competence.

In an EFL context, the aforementioned study by Huang (2018) explored how Chinese NNESTs constructed their professional identities. It was found that these teachers endorsed NES standard norms as teaching models, and therefore were disempowered when positioning themselves as NNESs. Nevertheless, they could successfully construct their positive professional image by resorting to two other powerful identities: a teacher within the Chinese traditional ideology and a college teacher. These teachers also used three strategies to counteract native speakerism, including *othering* NESTs (i.e. not wanting to be a NEST and being proud of one's own English proficiency), exploring their unique strengths/roles, and establishing credibility through hard work. Most participants did not report any obvious marginalization or self-marginalization.

Some studies have examined teachers' views on pedagogical norms with participants, ranging from NESTs and NNESTs from forty-five countries (Timmis, 2002), NNESTs from different European, African, and Asian countries (Young & Walsh, 2010), Chinese NNESTs (C. J. Hall, Wicaksono, Liu, Qian, & Xu, 2015; He & Zhang, 2010), and Iranian NNESTs (Tajeddin, Alemi, & Pashmforoosh, 2018). Questionnaires and/or interviews were employed in these studies. A shared finding of all studies cited above is that participants expressed clear preference for NES norms as pedagogical models. The most cited reason was that NES norms served as the standard benchmark with desirable characteristics assigned to them such as "standard", "perfect" and "pure". These norms were believed to have high prestige and granted more access to education and careers (Tajeddin et al., 2018; Timmis, 2002; Young & Walsh, 2010). Some participants believed that NESs were owners of the language (Tajeddin et al., 2018). Contextual factors were also reported. That is, these norms were presented in textbooks they used, endorsed by language institutions they worked at, or gained political influences in their local contexts (Tajeddin et al., 2018; Young & Walsh, 2010). Participants also showed an awareness that NES

standard norms were idealized ones that not all NESs possessed them (C. J. Hall et al., 2015; Timmis, 2002).

Participants in the above studies pointed out the limitations of NES models, stating that they were unrealistic and unattainable targets (He & Zhang, 2010; Timmis, 2002). They expressed similar views that effective communication could be successfully achieved without adherence to NES norms (C. J. Hall et al., 2015; He & Zhang, 2010; Tajeddin et al., 2018; Young & Walsh, 2010). Local NNES varieties were perceived as legitimate expressions of identity (He & Zhang, 2010; Timmis, 2002), and students would feel more confident and relaxed if they were allowed to use their own localized varieties (He & Zhang, 2010). Students' preferences and future contexts of language uses also influenced choices of what varieties to teach (Timmis, 2002; Young & Walsh, 2010). These findings resonate with Hall et al.'s (2015) conclusion that all participants exhibited a mixture of monolithic (EFL) and pluricentric (EIL) views of English.

While these empirical studies offer valuable insights into how NES–NES issues can have an impact on NNESTs' professional credibility and English language pedagogy, little is known about their professional lives as English language teachers and their principles or practical knowledge required to conduct English lessons (Braine, 2010; Moussu and Llurda, 2008; Zhang & Zhan, 2014). To address this gap, Zhang and Zhan (2014) interviewed six NNESTs and six administrators in Canada to shed light on the knowledge base NNESTs require to gain access to the ESL profession. Apart from teacher knowledge about job search, high English proficiency and some knowledge of Canadian culture, teaching approaches including communicative and student-centred approaches, teachers' abilities to explain well and to be sensitive to learners' learning needs, and some knowledge of Canadian educational context were valued by participants. As can be seen in Table 2.1, the findings from these (self-)perception-based studies (e.g. Barratt & Kontra, 2000; Ma, 2012; Reves & Medgyes, 1994; Thararuedee, 2012) provide a glimpse into English language teaching repertoires the teachers seem to value, which revolves around three main considerations: affective, pedagogical and contextual considerationshows.

Table 2.1 NNESTs' affective, pedagogical, and contextual considerations

Considerations	Examples of principles and practical knowledge
Affective	• Motivating learners to communicate in English • Predicting difficulties learners face and empathizing with them
Pedagogical	• Having knowledge of language teaching methodology • Presenting a linguistic, cultural, and leaner model to learners • Having knowledge of (metalinguistic) grammar
Contextual (including NES–NNES issues)	• Being familiar with local educational systems and cultures • Having knowledge of learners' linguistic, cultural, and educational backgrounds • Having macro-contextual knowledge of the changing sociolinguistic realities of English and socio–political issues surrounding NES-NNES debates in order to establish professional credibility, acknowledge one's own strengths as NNESTs, and select a linguistic and cultural model (s) that meets learners' needs and local context

2.5.4   Summary and Research Questions 3 and 4

Empirical studies on NNESTs have shown that NES–NNES issues have remained relevant in the minds of these teachers who acknowledge their unique strengths and weaknesses as NNESs, establish professional credibility with varying degree of perceived success, and adhere and challenge NES models to a different extent. Given that pedagogical-situated studies about NES–NNES issues are rare (Rose & Montakantiwong, 2018), another research question is: *How do teachers' (self-)perceptions about NES –NNES issues inform practices?* As can be seen, the role of micro- and macro- contexts is a recurring theme. Another research question is: *What contextual considerations underpin teachers' core principles and practices?* It is evident that more studies on NNESTs that explore teachers' principles and actual language teaching practices are needed, and affective, pedagogical, and contextual considerations are key areas in ELT worthy of exploration from the perspective of NNESTs.

2.6 Research aim and research questions

This research examines principles and practices of NNESTs in order to gain an understanding of the teachers and their English language teaching. Four research questions that guide the analysis of the present study are as follows:

- What affective considerations underpin teachers' core principles and practices? (Chapter 4)
- What pedagogical considerations underpin teachers' core principles and practices? (Chapter 5)
- What contextual considerations underpin teachers' core principles and practices? (Chapter 4, 5, 6)
- How do teachers' (self-)perceptions about NES–NNES issues inform practices? (Chapter 6)

2.7 **Chapter summary**

This chapter has provided a literature review in a number of areas relevant to this inquiry, which explores principles and classroom practices of NNESTs. The first section conceptualizes language teachers as active, decision-making professionals with their own personalized principles that guide their teaching practices in complex and dynamic ways. The second section reviews the knowledge base in ELT with regard to affective, pedagogical, and contextual considerations. Literature on this topic has demonstrated the dynamism and complexities involved in meeting these three considerations from both theoretical and empirical perspectives, with emerging evidence that affective, pedagogical and contextual considerations are inextricably linked in (language) teachers' decision-making inside the classroom. The third section foregrounds the macro-contextual influences on ELT with specific focus on NES–NNES issues. Many interview-based studies focusing on NNES characteristics have been conducted, which offer insight into the NNESTs' self- perceptions regarding NES-NNES issues and the strategies they used to negotiate their NNES status. It is evident that more studies are needed that explore NNESTs' principles and actual practices inside the language classroom in order to gain an in-depth understanding of English language teaching from the perspectives of the teachers. The chapter ends by reiterating the research aim and research questions.

The following chapter explains the research methodology employed in this study to investigate teachers' principles and English language teaching practices from the perspective of the teachers.

Chapter 3
Methodology

This chapter presents the research methodology that guided this study, which explored principles and practices of NNESTs. Justifications for adopting a qualitative case study approach underpinned by an interpretivist (constructivist) paradigm are first discussed, followed by an explanation of participant recruitment and profiles of the four participants. Data collection procedures, methods, and analysis are outlined. The chapter ends with an appraisal of methodological choices and ethical considerations.

3.1   Research paradigm, methodology, and research strategy

A research paradigm refers to a researcher's ontological, epistemological, and methodological assumptions (Denzin & Lincoln, 2008; Prasad, 2005), and it has been recommended that a paradigm should be selected on the basis of its suitability for the research aims rather than being imposed from the outset of the research project (Cohen, Manion, & Morrison, 2011; Denzin & Lincoln, 2000; Seale, Gobo, Gubrium, & Silverman, 2004). It is therefore important to justify the design of this qualitative case study.

3.1.1   The interpretivist (constructivist) paradigm

The interpretivist paradigm rests on the ontological assumption that, unlike inanimate objects, human beings are capable of attaching meanings to things, events and interactions, and their actions are motivated by such interpretations (Cohen et al., 2011). Social reality is a subjective and intersubjective entity, socially constructed and actively created by social actors' consciences, and in the state of flux (Bryman, 2004; Schwandt, 2000). This leads to the relativist conceptualization of "reality" as an entity comprising local, specific, and multiple realities (Creswell, 2013; Denzin & Lincoln, 2000; Gaba & Lincoln, 1994). The agenda of interpretive research is to discover the subjective meanings individuals place onto their actions and the social world they exhibit through the eyes of these individuals (Bryman, 2004; Cohen et al., 2011; Prasad, 2005; Schwandt, 2000). This paradigm therefore suited the purpose of a study, which aimed to explore participants' principles or what they think, know, and believe in relation to their teaching practices. It was the subjective meanings participants assigned to language teaching practices and their inner experience that were of particular interest rather than a (post-)positivist research agenda of discovering objective, universal laws that predicted participants' behaviours (Cohen et al., 2011). This study also adopted the epistemological assumption that the research findings are constructions involving the researcher, participants and contexts,

rather than unmediated objective reality (Bryman, 2004; Denzin & Lincoln, 2000; Gaba & Lincoln, 1994; Schwandt, 2000).

Qualitative methodology

A qualitative methodology was adopted for two main reasons. First, qualitative research orients itself towards understanding social experiences through the eyes of participants (Bryman, 2004; Denzin & Lincoln, 2000; Flick, Kardorff, & Steinke, 2004). A more open-ended and a closer relationship between a researcher and participants allows participants' views to emerge from their own perspectives in their own words more than quantitative methodology with its closed, indirect, and remote referential analysis (Cohen et al., 2011; Denzin & Lincoln, 2005). While quantitative methodology is also used to study teachers' beliefs, its limitation is that it predetermines beliefs as fixed a priori constructs with "very little room for [teachers'] own perspectives and looking at the phenomenon very much out-of-context" (Kalaja & Barcelos, 2003, p. 2). Given that this research was interested in what happens inside a classroom from the perspective of NNESTs, a qualitative methodology was considered more suitable because it provides rich descriptions on what is happening in the context being investigated (Bryman, 2004; Gubrium & Holstein, 1997; Lincoln, Lynham, & Guba, 2011), offers a better contextual understanding of participants' insider meanings and behaviours in action (Bryman, 2004), and captures the phenomena holistically by taking into account happenings, relationships and factors of various kinds (Flick et al., 2004).

Case study as a research strategy

Despite different definitions, case study involves an intensive, holistic and complex description and analysis of each particular case in real-life contexts (Cohen et al., 2011; Simon, 2009; Yin, 2009). For instance, Stake (1995) defines case study as "the study of the particularity and complexity of a single case, coming to understand its activity within important circumstances" (p. xi). As Cohen et al. (2011) point out, case studies focus on individuals or groups of individuals, and seek to understand individuals' lived experienced of, feelings for and thought about a particular real-life situation. It was therefore suitable for a research project that aimed to explore NNESTs' principles or what they think, know, and believe in relation to actual teaching practices in particular classrooms. Yin (2009) further adds that case studies are preferred when the researcher has little control over the events, and the phenomenon of interest takes place in real-life context. This study met these criteria because this research involved studying the participants in their real-life classroom contexts where I had no control over the teachers' principles and practices they drew on and employed.

3.2 Selection of research participants and tertiary institutions

3.2.1 *Research participants*

Purposeful and convenience sampling strategies were used to recruit participants for this study (Cohen et al., 2011; Patton, 2002). Minimum criteria were set in selecting information-rich cases that offer in-depth understanding of the phenomena of interest (Dörnyei, 2007; Miles & Huberman, 2014; Patton, 2002; Rapley, 2014). These included that all potential participants self-identify as NNESs, have a postgraduate degree relevant to language teaching, are currently practising English teachers, teach credit-bearing courses with a prescribed syllabus, and have at least two years of teaching experience. These criteria were selected because they reflect the typical portrayal of NNESTs in the existing literature. For instance, Anderson (2016) found that NNESTs are more likely to have a relevant language teaching qualification and at least one-year teaching experience. Borg (2003) describes a more typical language classroom as involving NNESTs who teach a prescribed syllabus. Practicality and access also needed to be taken into account. As Rapley (2004) points out, recruitment of participants for interviews can occur on an ad-hoc basis, and Forsey (2012) reminds that participant selection in qualitative research can be opportunistic. Therefore, convenience sampling also figured in my selection of participants. The process of selecting participants is described below.

In December 2015, I contacted by email faculties of liberal arts in four public universities in a southern province of Thailand and, through a personal connection, gained access to two public universities. An advertisement (see Appendix A) with information about my research and my contact details were posted on notice boards and sent electronically to all members of staff. When I did not receive any responses, I decided to use personal networks and publicly available information to help locate potential participants, and then approached the participants in person (Roulston, 2010). The four participants recruited in for the study met all minimum criteria. While the above criteria aimed for "typicality", I also aimed at maximum variation in the participant sample. There were two reasons for this. First, in addition to insights into the uniqueness of each case, any common pattern that cuts across heterogeneity illuminated the central dimensions of the phenomena and increased the transferability of findings (Patton, 2002). Second, there has been a recent call to explore diversity within the NNS constituency (Braine, 2010; Moussu & Llurda, 2008), and this study includes Asian NNESTs who differ in terms of first language, countries of origin, whether they belong to a dominant or minority group within their respective home countries, whether they have worked in their home and a foreign educational system, and years of teaching experience. At the time, I looked only for different nationalities, and some of the differences among participants that emerged once they had agreed

to participate were quite unexpected (though much appreciated, since they added to the diversity of the sample). Profiles of the four NNESTs are presented below.

Ms. Chomkwan

At the time of the study, Ms. Chomkwan was in her early-thirties, single, Buddhist, and a Thai teacher of English. She identified herself as a bilingual in Thai (mother tongue) and English (EFL). She was born and raised in a province in the south of Thailand where Thai served as a language of home and local communities, and as a medium of instruction in the schools she attended. She studied English because it was a compulsory subject, without having any immediate need to use the language. Realizing that English could help her with future career, she decided to pursue a B.A. in English and a M.A. in Teaching English as a Foreign language (TEFL) from public universities in central Thailand. Her research interests include teaching listening and speaking skills, CLT, language learning anxieties, and strategies to promote L2 vocabulary acquisition. She had more than seven years of teaching experience. She had taught English in a vocational school for two years, and in the Thai public university for five years preceding the study period. She was the director of the self-access learning centre, and organized several projects to improve students' English proficiency. Ms. Chomkwan is a NNEST from an Expanding Circle country who works within her own educational system.

Mr. Reza

At the beginning of the study period, Mr. Reza was in his late-twenties, single, Muslim, and a Thai teacher of English. While Ms. Chomkwan belonged to the dominant group of Buddhist Thai speakers, Mr. Reza came from a linguistic and Muslim minority group of less than five percent of the Thai population (Arphattananon, 2011). He was born in one of the three southernmost provinces in Thailand where there is ongoing political unrest. Mr. Reza is multilingual in the Pattani dialect of Malay (mother tongue), Thai (a second language) and English (EFL). He went to Pondok – a private Islamic school instead of a mainstream Thai public school. He pointed out a number of differences between the two types of school: While Thai was a main medium of instruction for compulsory core subjects, half of the day was devoted to Islamic studies taught by his L1, and Islamic codes of conduct prevailed, including gendered segregation where male and female students rarely socialized with one another. He also reported that he communicated with his peers almost exclusively in his L1. However, he observed that the younger generation was much more willing to speak Thai. Although he wished to study arts and did not want to study English, his father encouraged him to study English so that he could travel the world and explore different cultures. He then pursued his B.A. in English and M.A. in Teaching English as an International Language (TEIL) from public

Thai universities in the south of Thailand. He recounted that it took him five months in his freshman year to adjust to the Thai mainstream educational system, due to cultural differences that he experienced. Although highly proficient in Thai, he did not see himself as a Thai NS, and believed that his Thai accent showed a slight trace of his L1. Reza considered himself a novice English teacher, and had worked in a public university from which he gained his M.A. for the past two years. His main research interest was individual differences and their relationships to learners' language learning strategies. Because he lived and worked outside his home town and with Thai speakers, he felt a significant shift in his language use where he used Thai most of the time and his L1 only with a few close friends and family members. Mr. Reza is a NNEST from an Expanding Circle country, who is a linguistic, religious, and cultural minority in one's own country, and works within one's own mainstream educational system – a system he found culturally unfamiliar at first, but has now become very familiar.

Mr. Dara

At the commencement of the study, Mr. Dara was in his late thirties, single, Buddhist, and a Cambodian teacher of English. He was bilingual in Cambodian (mother tongue) and English (EFL), with limited proficiency in Thai. The Cambodian language served as a language of home, communities, and a medium instruction in the schools he attended. He learned English as a school subject, and his inspiration to study English came from his uncle who worked as a translator. Having a strong passion for English language teaching, he pursued his B.A. in TEFL, and then worked as an English teacher and a teacher trainer for secondary school teachers in a regional teacher training centre in Cambodia for thirteen years. He received a Thai government scholarship to pursue his M.A. in TEIL in a Thai public university in the south of Thailand, where he had worked for one year. His research interests are teaching speaking skills, especially the use of conversation analysis as a teaching strategy within a communicative approach. Because he now lives and works in a foreign country, Mr. Dara reported that English served him as a lingua franca. Although he tried to practice speaking Thai with his local friends, he found himself ending up speaking in English because his Thai friends wanted to practice English with him. Mr. Dara is a NNEST from an Expanding Circle country, who works in a foreign educational system in a foreign country.

Mr. Ramgopal

When the study period began, Mr. Ramgopal was in his late thirties, married, Christian, and an Indian teacher of English. He came from India – an Outer Circle country where English is a medium of instruction and an important lingua franca within Indian communities. He belongs to one of the indigenous tribes in Northeast India, which is one of the most linguistic and

ethnically diverse regions in India. He considered himself a member of an ethnic and linguistic minority, and recounted an incident that Indian tourists to Thailand were surprised to learn that he came from India. Mr. Ramgopal is a multilingual, speaking five languages including Aphung/Chanta (mother tongue spoken in his village), Tangkhul (a tribal dialect), Muripuri (a state language), Hindi (a national language), and English (ESL). His interest in English was sparked by his dream to explore the world and to serve in a Christian mission abroad. Having a strong passion in teaching, he pursued a B.A. (English major and minor in religious philosophy and music) and M.A. (secondary education) from a private Christian university affiliated with an American university. He had more than sixteen years of teaching experience, working as an English teacher and "moral instructor" in a Christian college in India for five years, and as an English teacher and assistant academic dean in a Christian secondary school in Macau for four years. He had worked as an English lecturer in the Thai public university for the past seven years. Ramgopal engages in Christian missionary work off-campus during the weekends and holidays, assisting the functioning of the local and company churches in southern Thailand. He also stated that, personally speaking, English benefitted him because it gave him a career and a chance to travel the world, although he acknowledged that this came with a big cost to others who had been colonized under British rule. Mr. Ramgopal is a NNEST from an Outer Circle country, who belongs to an ethnic, linguistic, religious, and cultural minority group within his native country, and works in a foreign educational system in a foreign country.

I selected four as the final number of participants because my study is an in-depth qualitative study. I investigated a small sample size so that participants had a locatable voice and defined identity. Moreover, the small sample size also helped facilitate intensive analysis to be conducted, given the extent of the research design and the available time and resources I had. As Creswell (2013) advises, not more than four or five participants should be included in a single case study.

3.2.2 *Characteristics of the two tertiary institutions and courses*

This study took place in two public universities in an urban area in a province in the south of Thailand. Chomkwan works in University A, which has more than ten faculties and around 15,000 students. Ramgopal, Reza, and Dara work in nearby University B, which has more than thirty faculties and around 40,000 students. University A is fully funded by the Thai government and is less well-resourced than University B, which is an independent university that can rely on its own income. The official language and the main medium of instruction is Thai[3]. English

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[3] It should be noted that both universities offer degree programmes majoring in English, while University B offers six international programmes. English plays an important role as a medium of instruction in these programmes.

courses are offered for all students as generic, adjunct courses. Students are required to take three foreign language courses, and each faculty varies in its requirement of what foreign language courses have to be taken as compulsory or elective subjects. These English courses are usually co-taught by several teachers, each of whom is responsible for some sections of students. The courses are designed and prescribed for teachers, often using set commercial textbooks. On average, each section has around thirty to forty freshmen and/or sophomore students[4] of mixed English abilities from the same and/or different faculties. All participants felt that the commercial textbooks ranging from high-beginning to lower intermediate levels were suitable for the majority of their students. Different courses were selected for this study. Despite differences, the shared feature was their emphasis on listening and speaking skills. The table below provides an overview of the courses (see Appendix B for profiles of the courses).

Table 3.1. Courses selected for the study

Participant	Course	Lesson length	Commercial textbook
University A			
Chomkwan	English 2	3 hours	Four Corners[5]: Level 2
	English conversation	3 hours	Teachers' own compilations
University B			
Reza, Ramgopal and Dara	Foundation English: Listening and speaking	1 hour	Talk Time 2[6]
Ramgopal	Intercultural communication	1 hour 30 mins	Teachers' own compilations
Dara	English conversation 1	2 hours	Speak Now[7]: Level 3

The two universities were selected based on convenience sampling; however, they represented a "typical" EFL context where English is a subject with limited opportunities of English uses outside class and offer English courses that could be considered more "representative" globally speaking: ones taught by NNESTs in the state system with a prescribed syllabus. Another advantage I had as a native of south Thailand was that my familiarity with the educational and socio-cultural context allowed me to understand and interpret participants' meanings and actions more easily, especially when participants commented on Thai and ASEAN languages, cultures, and educational systems.

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[4] English courses are part of general education courses that all students take in their freshman and sophomore years. Students in a higher year are often those who have failed the courses.
[5] Jack C. Richards and David Bohlke (2012a) (upper-elementary English proficiency level)
[6] Susan Stempleski (2006) (high-beginning to low intermediate English proficiency level)
[7] Jack C. Richards and David Bohlke (2012b) (lower-intermediate English proficiency level)

3.3 Data collection procedures and research methods

The data sources for this present study were demographic questionnaires and narrative summaries, semi-structured interviews, observations, stimulated-recalled interviews, documents, and unstructured interviews. The table 3.2 below provides the overview of the data sources collected from each participant. Data collection procedures took place between January to March 2016, and justifications for research methods are discussed below.

Table 3.2. An overview of the data source

Data source	Data collection method	Participant			
		Chomkwan	Reza	Dara	Ramgopal
Demographic questionaire and narrative summaries	Questionaire and narrative summary	1 questionaire and 1 narrative summary	1 questionaire and 1 narrative summary	1 questionnaire and 1 narrative summary	1 questionnaire and 1 narrative summary
Semi-structured interviews	Audio recorded and transcribed	1 interview (approx. 35 mins)	1 interview (approx. 55 mins)	1 interview (approx. 1 hour)	1 interview (approx. 40 mins)
Observations	Video-recorded, observational notes and narrative summaries	4 times (approx. 8 hours)	3 times (approx. 3 hours)	5 times (approx. 7 hours)	4 times (approx. 5 hours)
Stimulated-recalled interviews	Audio-recorded and transcribed	4 times (approx. 131 mins)	3 times (approx. 163 mins)	5 times (approx. 245 mins)	4 times (approx. 200 mins)
Documents	Course syllabus and instructional materials used in observed classrooms	Course syllabi, commercial textbooks, PowerPoint slides, class handouts, and the feature Rio, and video clips	Course syllabus, commercial textbooks, PowerPoint slides, and class handouts	Course syllabi, commercial textbooks, PowerPoint slides, in-class quizzes, class handouts, and name cards	Course syllabi, commercial textbooks, and handouts
Unstructured interview	Audio-recorded and transcribed	1 time (approx. 33 mins)	1 time (approx. 30 mins)	1 time (approx. 47 mins)	1 time (approx.37 mins)

3.3.1 Demographic questionnaires and narrative summaries

The questionnaire was used to elicit basic information including age, nationality, teaching experience, educational background and NNES status. The information obtained helped recruit participants based on purposeful sampling and maximum variation strategies to ensure that they met minimum criteria and were not too homogeneous (Miles & Huberman, 2014; Patton, 2002). During the course of interviews, participants revealed different aspects of their personal and professional lives. I therefore constructed demographic narrative summaries based on the questionnaires and interviews, and invited participants to comment and add more information

about themselves. This was also an ethical consideration on my part to ensure that sensitive information was not disclosed without participants' consent (Seidman, 2013). Participants' profiles drawn from these two data sources are reported in Section 3.2.1.

3.3.2   First semi-structured interviews

Qualitative interviews were used to capture participants' interpretations of experiences and life worlds, rather than facts or laws (Warren, 2002), and how they understand and frame issues or events (Bryman, 2004). The first semi-structured qualitative interviews were conducted at the beginning of the data collection phase. For the initial interview, I had three main aims. The first was to explore participants' self-perception as NNESs and their experience as English language users. These questions were asked to probe into their views on NES–NNES related issues such as the perceived importance of English in a global context, perceptions on different English varieties and English users, and their views on the relevance of NES and NNES constructs. The second aim was to explore their experience as English language learners. These questions were asked to probe into their views of English language learning and teaching. The third aim was to explore their experience as language teachers. These questions were asked to probe into their views of English language teaching, and teaching approaches or theories they found applicable to their teaching during their professional training (see Appendix C1 for interview questions).

I avoided direct questioning of the issues of interest, and all interview questions were grounded in participants' reflections on their own experiences. This is because direct elicitation of teacher principles and beliefs can be ineffective and counterproductive, since it can be too abstract due to its lack of concrete contextual situations, and teachers may often be unaware of their own beliefs (Borg, 2015; Kagan, 1992). I also asked open-ended questions so as to minimize imposition of preconceived categories onto participants' responses (Patton, 2002), capturing participants' emerging meanings from their own perspectives (Borg, 2015; Patton, 2002; Warren, 2002), and generating richer data than closed questions (Borg, 2015; Marshall & Rossman, 2011). I used Thai to interview Chomkwan and Reza, while English was the only lingua franca possible for interviewing Dara and Ramgopal.

3.3.3   Video-recorded observations

While I intended to observe as many classes as possible, the actual number of observations was negotiated with the teacher participants. The strength of this data collection method was that it allowed me to elicit direct concrete evidence of the participants' teaching practices, and to move beyond perception-based data (Borg, 2015; Cohen et al., 2011; Patton, 2002), and as discussed in Chapter 2, teachers' cognition and principles need, to some extent, be inferred in relation to what they do (Borg, 2015; Breen et al., 2001; Pajares, 1992). Direct observation also helped me

gain a better understanding of the classroom context where the teaching practices took place, which is necessary if a holistic and multi-layered understanding of participants and their actions is to be achieved (Mackey & Gass, 2005; Patton, 2002).

I adopted a non-participant role (Borg, 2015) so as to disturb the research environment (the classroom) as little as possible. I arrived fifteen minutes before the lessons began to set up the video camera, and during the lessons, I sat silently at the back of the room, making brief field notes (Marshall & Rossman, 2011) using the observation guide to remind me of key aspects of interest (see Appendix D). However, I mainly employed unstructured observations without the guide, because this allowed me to directly observe the nuances and contingencies (Marvasti, 2014) and be responsive to the dynamics of situations, rather than being fixed on what I had decided beforehand would be salient (Cohen et al., 2011). Another reason for unstructured observations was that the observational data were used as the basis of stimulated recall interviews with priority placed on what the participants saw as salient in their practices. The field notes provided an initial input for narrative summaries during the data preparation stage (see Section 3.4.1).

3.3.4   Stimulated recall interviews

The stimulated recall interview is an introspective data collection method that uses a prompt to elicit participants' verbal responses on their behaviours (Borg, 2015; Gass & Mackey, 2000) and encourages them to recall thoughts they had while performing a task (Mackey & Gass, 2005). However, I was aware of the critique that this kind of interview may not capture interactive thinking, and therefore treated it as a tool to stimulate discussion about participants' intentions for their actions instead (Borg, 2015). My decision to employ stimulated recall interviews was influenced by developments in language teacher cognition research. That is, since the same practice can mean different things to different teachers, "we cannot deduce language pedagogies on the basis of teachers' accounts of how they work without reflecting with them upon actual instances of practice" (Breen et al., 2001, p. 498). It has also been argued that teachers' practical knowledge guiding their actions is more likely to be captured through reflection on actual practice (Basturkmen, Loewen, & Ellis, 2004; Basturkmen, 2012; Borg, 2015). As Borg (2015) contends, "data based on and elicited in relation to observed classroom events may better capture …[teachers'] practically-oriented cognition which inform teachers' actual instructional practices" than data collection instruments not grounded in real practices (p. 159). My intention reflected an objective of a qualitative interview, which is to capture participants' interpretations of (teaching) experience and social worlds (i.e. classroom practices), not facts or laws, (Warren, 2002), and to allow interviews to unfold, guided by the

participants' interests (Bryman, 2004; Marshall & Rossman, 2011). This corresponds to the use of stimulated recall interviews in teacher cognition research, often as part of interpretive work that allows teachers to verbalize their thoughts in a relatively free and open-ended manner (Borg, 2015).

In their private offices, I conducted stimulated recall interviews with participants by encouraging them to verbalize their rationales and principles behind their actions in the recorded teaching episodes. In the first interview, I played the video of the lesson, pausing at each teaching episode to ask open-ended questions to elicit their responses about what they did and why they did it so as to familiarize them with the process (see Appendix C2 for stimulated recall interview questions). In later interviews, the participants often led the interviews and I paused the video clips when participants started to verbalize their thoughts. I sought participants' own descriptions of the teaching episodes, avoided making any judgmental comments, and conducted member checking by asking for confirmation and clarification right away (Breen et al., 2001). Within each stimulated-recall interview, I alternated between a stimulated-recall interview style that aimed to capture teachers' interactive decision-making, and an unstructured interview style in order to follow up on emerging themes.To maximize the validity of the data, I conducted each stimulated recall interview immediately after each observed lesson, except in two instances where participants were not available and interviews had to be postponed until the following day. However, this was still within a short period of time after the event (i.e. within 48 hours limit[8]) that scholars advise (Gass & Mackey, 2000). I was aware that the teachers might invent post-hoc rationalizations (Basturkmen et al., 2004; Borg, 2015), and therefore carried out multiple observations and interviews with participants rather than a single one-off observation and interview. I also informed participants that they did not need to provide a reason for every action they did.

3.3.5 *Documents*

Documents including course syllabi, commercial textbooks, course handouts, in-class quizzes, PowerPoint slides, and commercial video clips used as teaching resources were collected to complement my understanding of interview and observational data. The documents were naturally present in the teaching context, and not specifically produced for my study. The benefits of documents are that they provide a rich source of contextually relevant and contextually-grounded information, they do not disrupt the ongoing phenomena, and they are therefore less reactive, or low inference (Bryman, 2004; Marshall & Rossman, 2011), while

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[8] Citing the work of Bloom (1954), Gass and Mackay (2000) point out that recall was 95% accurate if conducted within 48 hours.

providing information that might differ from what is available in spoken form (Hodder, 2000). However, one disadvantage is that their meaning is never transparent (Marshall & Rossman, 2011), since they may reflect the document writers' intentions rather those of the classroom teachers. Documents were therefore used as supplementary data to provide contextual information for me to better understand the teachers and their teaching; however, they were not the main focus of analysis.

3.3.6   Final unstructured interviews

A final unstructured interview was conducted to elicit participants' views and experiences as NNESTs. Two open-ended questions, including "Can you tell me about your experiences studying with non-native English teachers and native English teachers?[9]" and "What is it like to be a non-native English speaker teaching English?" were asked, without any imposition of fixed categories onto participants' responses so that how they frame the issues could emerge (Patton, 2002). For instance, I avoided leading questions such those that inquired about the strengths and weaknesses of both groups, since this might force participants to think that there were inherent strengths and weaknesses of both groups of teachers. Probes were used to elicit elaborations based on participants' initial responses. Participants sometimes drifted away from the NES–NNES theme to talk about their experiences teaching in Thailand generally. I also elicited more information about the courses they taught and the teaching context from their perspective in this last interview.

3.4   Data preparation and analysis

3.4.1   Data preparation

Preparation for data analysis involved creating written representations of the interviews and observational information sources. I transcribed all the audio-recorded interviews in full, which had two main benefits: it familiarized me with the data, and prevented premature judgement about what was important, which might have happened if only parts of interviews were preselected for transcriptions (Seidman, 2013). I included all words spoken, but omitted paralinguistic features (e.g. pauses, tone of voice, and volume). This level of transcription was appropriate, since only the substantive content of talk was the focus of analysis for this study (Roulston, 2010, 2014; Schreier, 2014). Drafts of transcripts were checked against audiotapes to ensure accuracy. While data preparation for interviews was finalized once the written transcriptions had been prepared, data preparation for observational data was a highly iterative process throughout the stages of data analysis.

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[9] Only Ramgopal had never studied with NESTs.

Preparation of the observational data began in the data collection phase when I turned my observational field notes into legible Word documents. Throughout the data analysis phase when themes from interviews started to emerge, I found that more details had to be added to the observational field notes to better capture the teachers' teaching practices. This was possible thanks to video records of the observed lessons. Therefore, data collection from observations continued after I left the field, but the approach changed from unstructured observations, to focused observations, and to selective observations (Cohen et al., 2011). The aims of the observations were guided by the research aim and approach. That is, this research did not separate teachers' thoughts and actions to find out (mis-)match between the two, but to explore the practices that teachers intended to realize their principles (Breen et al., 2001; Kubanyiova & Feryok, 2015). Moreover, the approach was to illuminate (i.e. narrative approach) rather than to quantify practices (i.e. data-mining approach), which suited the aim of this qualitative research (Derry et al., 2010; Goldman, Erickson, Lemke, & Derry, 2007).

Two strategies were adopted. First, I wrote narrative summaries (Barron & Engle, 2007; Zheng & Borg, 2014) describing what happened in the lessons. Second, I did partial transcription (Barron & Engle, 2007), noting down the teachers' words spoken that conveyed their principles and beliefs. These narrative summaries were revised many times throughout the research processes in light of analytic questions emerging from the data analysis (see Appendix E for an example of a narrative summary). I agree with the scholars (e.g. Braun & Clarke, 2006; Marvasti, 2014; Roulston, 2010, 2014; Thornberg, 2012) who point out that the process of producing interview transcripts and narrative summaries is an interpretative act; I actively created data inevitably influenced by research purposes and my prior background knowledge. Table 3.3 shows the interview and observational data prepared for subsequent analysis.

Table 3.3. Interview and narrative summary word counts

Participants	Interview transcripts	Narrative summaries
Chomkwan	32,634	16,157
Reza	45,777	10,671
Dara	43,358	15,033
Ramgopal	31,600	13,434

3.4.2 Data analysis

Thematic analysis was adopted because of its theoretical flexibility (Braun & Clarke, 2006; Mann, 2016; Roulston, 2010), which allowed me to follow generic, method-independent procedures as well as coding techniques from grounded theory (e.g. Charmaz, 2006; Corbin & Strauss, 2008). With NVivo 11 software and manual coding, my analytical approach was

primarily inductive and comparative and aimed to identify thematic representations that captured the essence of the data sets. Steps that were taken for analysis of the various data sources follow. It should be noted that the actual processes were more iterative and non-linear than the following description implies.

Analysing interview data

With the research interest in NNESTs conceptualized as NNESs, I started exploring segments of interview data related to NES–NNES themes. While I coded interview transcripts in NVivo 11 inductively, my familiarity with this literature facilitated my coding and, in hindsight, the coding process could be considered as a deductive strategy in its later stage. Once this was done, I shifted my conceptualization of NNESTs to English language teachers and their complex, personalized principles. Given that little was known about the knowledge base of NNESTs and the complexities of teachers' principles and beliefs, I started by coding interview transcripts inductively without any pre-determined categories, using NVivo 11. The aim was to capture a rich description of participants' core principles embedded in the whole data set, rather than sifting through the data to locate specific issues of interest. I found that this resonated more with the metaphor of opening up the data (i.e. open coding in grounded theory) than data reduction. To code the interviews, I assigned codes at the word, phrase, and paragraph levels, which generated an overwhelming number of initial codes. I followed the advice of a number of scholars (e.g. Braun & Clarke, 2006; Holton, 2007; Merriam & Tisdell, 2016) who recommend coding as expansively as is necessary during initial rounds of coding.

I then categorized initial codes into larger meaningful units, collating similar codes under the same categories. Thanks to NVivo 11, I was able to compare and contrast similar statements made by the same individuals at different times and across the group of participants and to trace coded extracts back to their original source with ease. In other words, the software facilitated constant comparisons or "the analytic process of comparing different pieces of data for similarities and differences" (Corbin & Strauss, 2008, p.65). I often took notes of my reflections to stimulate my thinking about the data. The coding processes then moved from descriptive focus at the earlier stages towards interpretation at the later stages. That is, I started to look for overarching themes that connected different categories in organized and meaningful ways. In other words, I actively searched for "a thematic map" (Braun & Clarke, 2006) or "a story line" (Creswell, 2013). I now elaborate how one of the three overarching themes were derived.

One of the overarching themes I detected was that participants gave serious considerations to affective dimensions in ELT. This realization served as an analytic tool for me to re-examine, re-organize, and re-code the data in order to follow up this theme in a more nuanced way. It

also raised new analytical questions. For instance, I was interested in the affective terms the participants assigned to teaching practices. Then, all interview extracts in which these terms were embedded were re-examined for its content. Guided by questions of "why" and "how", I looked for reasons suggested by participants' interview statements, which generated three parent nodes, as well as practices the participants reported to achieve this goal, which generated nine parent nodes. I was also interested in the teacher roles the participants explicitly assigned to themselves, and teaching skills they mentioned. Below are the nodes for the affective theme from NVivo 11.

Figure 3.1. NVivo screenshot for the affective theme
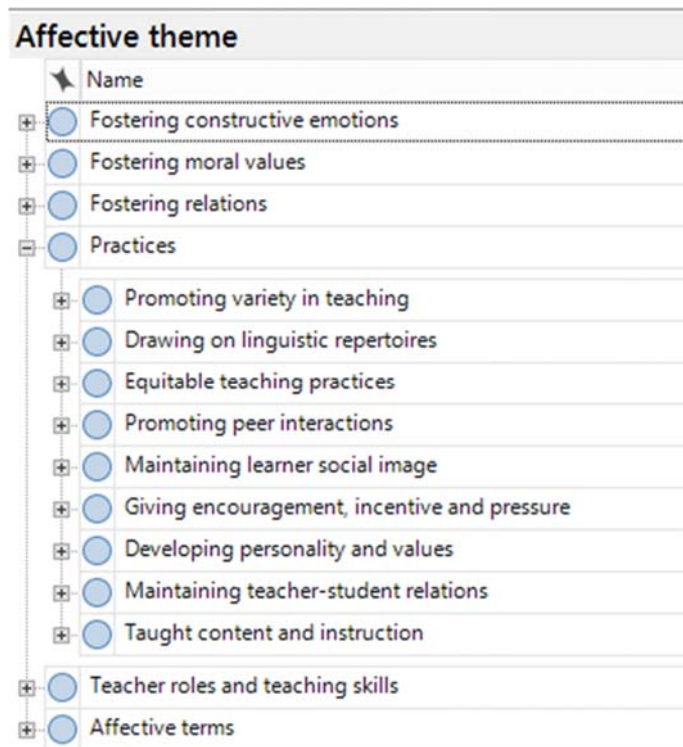
I frequently coded manually and created matrixes to display my data (Miles & Huberman, 2014) because I felt that it helped me connect with my data more than the NVivo 11 software, particularly at the later stages. These matrixes can be considered memos that extend further analytical reflections.

Analysing observational data

A number of scholars (e.g. Barron & Engle, 2007; Cohen et al., 2011) recommend analysing observations with clear research purposes and good orienting questions in mind, since rich details from video records can lose the researcher in the details. Given that the primary aim of this study was to explore what teaching practices meant to the teachers and what principles teachers intended to achieve with these practices (Breen et al., 2001; Kubanyiova & Feryok,

2015), I analysed narrative summaries in light of themes and categories based on interview data described above. To do so, I first revisited the coded interview excerpts in each NVivo 11 node and identified teaching practices teachers reported, especially during stimulated recall interviews. I then compared these reported practices with observed practices in the narrative summaries, and coded them side by side under the same nodes in NVivo 11. In this way, the connections between the principles and teaching practices teachers made during stimulated recall interviews could be preserved. For example, the table below compares a stated practice (underpinned by an affective principle) and the observed practice drawn from the NVivo 11 node "discussing the topic".

Table 3.4. A comparison between interview and observational data on the same classroom event

Stimulated recall interview data	A narrative summary extract
I'm just trying to motivate them right here. It's not in the textbook, right? But I'm just trying to drive into the textbook so they will be motivated and ready to learn. So, like, like, I just try to tell them so they know also that how and which part of a body feels. Just to try to drive into the text; get them to talk.	He then introduced the topic "Feelings" and had students repeat after him once: "Feelings. Come on!" He then asked "Alright, how do you feel? Do you feel with your eyes? Do you feel with your skin? Do you feel with your head? Do you feel with your heart? Come on! How do you feel? When something happens to you, which part of your body feel? Anyone? ไหม When you feel sad right? When you feel happy, when you feel bad, which part of your body feel? Is it your brain or your hand or your heart?"

Next, I coded similar teaching practices that seemed to represent teachers' principles. For instance, I coded all examples of teachers' uses of L1 in the narrative summaries in light of teachers' reflections on this issue. Lastly, I coded explicit statements teachers made in the classroom that revealed their principles and beliefs. I also coded narrative summaries manually for discernible, broad patterns in the observed lessons. Because these patterns relied on my interpretations rather than those of the teachers, I used the patterns as background information that show readers how the lessons were unfolded. As already stated, the purpose was to illuminate (i.e. narrative approach) rather than to quantify teaching practices (i.e. data mining approach) (Derry et al., 2010; Goldman et al., 2007). Relevant documents such as curriculum documents and textbooks were frequently consulted to help me better understand teachers' practices and teaching contexts when analysing interview transcripts and narrative summaries.

However, except when teachers made comments about them, I did not analyse these documents in detail, since their meanings were often not transparent.

Refining themes and sub-themes

To test the "plausibility" of my interpretations and ensure a good match between analysis and data, I invited my supervisor to cross-check a sample of themes and sub-themes at the later stage of the analysis. A coding scheme was first developed with descriptions of each codes given (see Appendix F). To make coding manageable, only codes at the higher level of the hierarchy in NVivo 11 were included. A sample of four interview transcripts and four narrative summaries from two of the participants were given to my supervisor to code. Blind coding was performed by both of us, and comparison of the results led to minor modifications in the existing codes. Similarities and differences were then discussed. The goal was not to arrive at exact codes being applied (i.e. a "realist" assumption that there is a single, accurate reality in the data), but to ensure that "plausible" and "robust" interpretations were derived and grounded in the data. At the end of this process, my supervisor considered that the coding scheme adequately captured the essence of the whole data sets. Appendix G provides an example of how I coded interview data using the coding scheme. As can be seen, I alternated my research interest from NNESTs as NNESs and as language teachers. Particularly for the latter, I started my data analysis with reasonably open-minded attitudes on what might be found in the data. When I identified emerging themes that captured the essence of the whole data sets, these themes served as an analytical tool for me to re-analyse, re-examine, and re-organize the data in greater depth. These emerging themes provided a sharpened research focus for this study and led me to review relevant ELT literature in order to deepen our understanding of English language teaching of the NNESTs, given that this part of the findings could not be satisfactorily explained through NES–NNES lens. The emergence of sharpened research focus at the later stage is common in qualitative inquiry as J. D. Brown (2014) points out: "…because qualitative research is more **hypothesis forming**, that is, at least one major purpose of the research is usually to explore the data to see what hypotheses may be developed…Such hypothesis forming research may also lead to the formation of more formal and precise [research questions] later in the study as hypotheses are formed" (p. 24, emphasis in the original).

3.5 Evaluation of the methodology

Unlike quantitative research, criteria for judging the trustworthiness of qualitative research are more contested and heterogeneous. A pragmatic approach was therefore taken for this study. That is, instead of strictly applying the abstract benchmark of trustworthiness, criteria were flexible and contextually situated, and took into account factors such as the nature of research, the paradigms employed, the research purposes, and practical issues (Cho & Trent, 2006; Creswell & Miller, 2000; Ellingson, 2009; Seale, 2002). Strategies adopted to increase the trustworthiness of this study are now discussed.

3.5.1 Credibility

Credibility is analogous to the criteria of internal validity in quantitative research (Dörnyei, 2007; Lincoln & Guba, 1986). Because this research aimed to understand participants' subjective meanings in relation to actual practices, I needed to ensure that participants' relevant accounts were elicited, understood, and interpreted appropriately. Several strategies were consciously adopted. During the data collection, I built and maintained empathetic rapport with participants by being respectful, polite, and sensitive (Cohen et al. 2011; Seidman, 2013). I conducted interviews in participants' own private office, brought some drinks, and started interviews with small talk in order to create a relaxed and non-threatening atmosphere. Another advantage of interviewing participants in their universities was that their work setting foregrounded their professional lives of interest to this enquiry (Edwards & Holland, 2013). I placed semi-structured interviews exploring participants' personal and professional lives at the beginning, which gave me a chance to show interest in them and stories they told (Forsey, 2012). I followed general advice for qualitative research such as asking open-ended questions, attentive listening, and probes (Cohen et al., 2011; Forsey, 2012; Rubin, 2004I) to better capture participants' insider meanings. To address member checking (Cho & Trent, 2006; Marshall & Rossman, 2011), parts of interview transcripts and narrative summaries were sent to participants electronically for them to check for accuracy on a voluntary basis. I also kept contact with participants through Facebook and contacted them after the data collection period when I need clarification on some parts of interview transcripts.

I spent twelve weeks at the research site and joined events organized by the faculties, which helped build rapport with the participants and reduced the likelihood of presentational responses as participants become used to discussing their principles and practices with me. Although the number of observations conducted may not be considered as a prolonged engagement, my familiarity with Thai and ASEAN educational context and cultures facilitated my understanding of the teachers and their teaching. My attempt to familiarize myself with the data by transcribing

the interview data and writing narrative summaries could be considered as "prolong engagement with the data" (Nowell, Norris, White, & Moules, 2017). Another important strategy was triangulation, defined as "a validity procedure where researchers search for convergence among multiple and different sources of information to form themes or categories" (Creswell & Miller, 2000, p. 126). This study used source triangulation, since there were four participants with different linguistic and cultural backgrounds as well as methods triangulation by comparing interview and observational data, supported by documents and demographic questionnaires (Patton, 2002). As already discussed, I also invited my supervisor to code the data and check for the plausibility of my data interpretation.

3.5.2 Dependability

Dependability is analogous to reliability in quantitative research (Dörnyei, 2007; Lincoln & Guba, 1986). However, this criterion in a strict quantitative sense runs counter to the constructivist paradigm this study adopted, where exact replication is not possible, since findings are co-constructed by the researcher and the participants (Dörnyei, 2007). However, I found consideration of dependability to be useful to address one disadvantage of thematic data analysis, since its inherent flexibility can make data analysis unsystematic and incoherent (Holloway & Todres, 2003; Nowell et al., 2017). This issue was addressed by the use of NVivo 11, which allowed me to store and analyse the raw data in a much more organized way. As already stated, I developed a coding scheme based on the hierarchy of codes in NVivo 11, and invited my supervisor to recode and cross-check the data. This helped increase the systematicity and coherence of my data analysis. I also provide details of how I conducted and analysed the data so that certain aspects of this project can be replicated. An audit trail technique (Bowen, 2009; Creswell & Miller, 2000) was used in that participants' statements and quotations were tagged with data sources, including SS (semi-structured interview), SR (stimulated recall interview), UI (unstructured interview) and OB (observation). This is necessary because it helps distinguish between a reported practice and an observed practice on one hand, and between what teachers said in interviews and what they said and did in the classroom on the other.

3.5.3 Transferability

Transferability is analogous to generalizability in quantitative research (Dörnyei, 2007; Lincoln & Guba, 1986). While the critique that findings from a case study cannot be generalized statistically is valid, it is not the intention of this case study to achieve statistical generalizations. However, I aim to generalize my findings in other ways. First, internal generalization (Maxwell, 1992) can be achieved by generalizing the findings to the particular context of the study. Secondly, the findings from case studies are strong in reality and may resonate well with the

readers' experiences, or what Stake (1995) calls natural generalization. Third, the findings can be generalized in theory, rather than to some defined population, or what Yin (2009) calls analytic generalization. Lastly, it may be feasible to transfer the findings to other teachers and contexts that share similar characteristics with the cases described in this research. To facilitate the generalizations, I gave rich detailed characteristics of the participants and settings for this study, and I will link my findings to prior theories and empirical studies (Miles & Huberman, 2014).

3.6   Presentation of participants' quotes

All interviews with Chomkwan and Reza were conducted in Thai, and interview excerpts selected for quotations in this thesis were translated by me. Around ten percent of the quotations were checked for their accuracy by a Thai-speaking friend with an M.A. in TESOL, who expressed satisfaction with the translation. Because the focus was on the content, the quotations were rendered into a more readable text, and therefore, unnecessary paralinguistic features such as false starts and repetitive same words were deleted from the excerpts (see also Section 3.4). Minor modifications were also made to participants' function words including prepositions, articles and tenses. In the case where participants used Thai or other languages in the classroom, an English translation will be put in <…>.

3.7   Ethical considerations

My ethics application was approved by the University of Auckland Human Participants Ethics Committee (Appendix H). Respect for participants was upheld through valid consent processes through written consent forms. That is, a participant information sheet with sufficient information concerning the aims, research procedures and participants' rights was explained to all participants so that they could make informed decisions whether to participate in this research. I also told them that they could withdraw from the study any time, and therefore their autonomy in the research process was respected. The heads of the department and universities also signed consent forms and agreed that participation or non-participation in this research would not lead to any employment consequences. Pseudonyms were used for participants and universities to protect participants' confidentiality and privacy. The number and timing of interviews and observations was also negotiated with the teachers to suit their availability.

3.8　Chapter summary

This chapter has discussed and evaluated the research design and methods of data collection used in this study. A qualitative case study research underpinned by a constructivist-interpretivist paradigm was used to gain insights into the participants' insider meanings (i.e. principles, beliefs and knowledge) assigned to their teaching practices. Profiles of the participants and research context have been described, followed by data preparation and analysis. The chapter ended with a discussion of criteria for trustworthiness and a description of how the study took into account ethical considerations.

This study explores NNESTs' core principles and classroom practices in order to gain an understanding of them and their English language teaching. Towards this end, the next chapter reports on core principles and practices underpinned by teachers' affective considerations in ELT. Evidence is presented to show that the teachers conceptualize English language learning as an emotional and relational undertaking, and teachers' ability to meet learners' affective needs is a crucial component of the practical, professional knowledge of these language teachers.

Chapter 4
Affective Considerations in ELT

> Emotions are like "the elephant in the room". Everyone is aware of them but they reflect an unspoken truth.
>
> (Swain, 2013, p. 195)

This chapter examines participants' affective considerations in the English classroom. Affect here refers to feelings and emotional reactions that may influence language learning and language use, and includes motivation, language anxiety, attitude, willingness to communicate, and a wide range of emotions (Gass & Selinker, 2008; Nation & Macalister, 2009; J. C. Richards, 2015). The recent affective turn has prompted a call for researchers to shed light on how (language) teachers attend to learners' affect in practice (Lamb, 2017; Pavlenko, 2013; Rosiek, 2003). Within teacher cognition research, the importance of teachers' ability to accommodate affective issues is heightened by the argument that affective knowledge about teaching and learning is a fundamental part of teachers' practical knowledge (Hargreaves, 1998, 2000; Rosiek, 2003; Zembylas, 2005, 2007). This study found that, for all participants, affect was a key consideration guiding a number of practices, and was certainly not "the elephant in the room".

This chapter addresses Research Question 1 that answers how participants' core principles and practices are underpinned by their affective considerations. It also addresses the part of Research Question 3 by showing how contexts shape teachers' affect-related principles and practices. The data reported here emerged inductively from stimulated recall interviews and observations. Participants were not directly asked to comment on affect in order to minimize the risk of sensitizing them to the interests of the study or of eliciting presentational affect-loaded episodes (Lamb, 2017; Rosiek, 2003; Zembylas, 2007). This chapter first describes three principles that underpinned the connections the participants made between affect and language learning, classroom relations and moral values. It then examines the teaching practices in which these principles were operationalized. A discussion of these findings in relation to the existing ELT literature is presented at the end of the chapter.

4.1 Three principles of teachers' affective considerations

This section examines three principles the participants followed regarding affect and its role in their teaching practices. They were: fostering affect to promote English language learning, fostering supportive classroom relations, and fostering moral values (see Appendix I for examples of participants' affective terminology).

4.1.1 The principle of fostering affect to promote language learning

All participants believed that affect could both promote and impede language learning. First, they all made a facilitative claim that affect could influence student engagement and participation. This was evident in the fact that emotions such as "shy" and "afraid" were believed by all participants to cause some reluctance to participate in speaking activities. For instance, Chomkwan stated that "because of shyness, some students are not confident to answer. If the classroom atmosphere is stressful, those who know the answer might not answer because they are scared" (SR1). She also reflected on her past experience as a learner wherein she did not feel bored and could become so immersed in study that she lost a sense of time in a fun lesson (SR4). Likewise, Ramgopal believed that his group presentation task could potentially make his students serious and nervous (SR2). In contrast, the emotional states described as "interested", "fun" and "motivated" were perceived to enhance engagement and participation.

Second, statements by all participants indicated a direct reciprocal relationship between affect and cognition. Citing Krashen's Affective Filter Hypothesis (Krashen, 1982), Dara believed that people learn better if they feel happy, motivated, ready to accept new ideas, and with fresh minds (SR1). Chomkwan, Reza and Dara pointed out that lesson incomprehensibility could lead to unproductive affective states. For example, Chomkwan stated that it was important to ensure that all students kept up with the content of any lesson, since they would lose motivation if they fell behind the rest of the class (SR3). Reza made a similar comment that students would not continue to pay attention if they perceived the lesson to be beyond their abilities (SR2). Furthermore, Chomkwan, Dara and Ramgopal agreed that humour could boost students' attention and focus, and draw inattentive minds back to the lesson. Taken together, these statements suggest the view that affect and cognition have a close and reciprocal connection in (language) learning. Third, while positive affect tended to be viewed as usually productive, negative emotions were not always perceived as unproductive. Reza was very explicit on this topic when he argued:

Actually, when we learn, we need to come out of our comfort zone, but for some groups [of students] it does not work like that. Some still need to preserve their comfort zone in order to learn. People have different characteristics…so I try to strike a balance between preserving and pushing them out of comfort zone. I don't want to push them out too much- just a little bit (SR1).

Furthermore, all participants believed that the anxiety that resulted from being called on to speak could encourage students to expend more effort. For instance, Ramgopal stated that the anxiety could make students alert (SR2). Both Reza (SR1) and Ramgopal (SR1) went on to claim that subjecting students to a manageable level of anxiety during a public speaking activity could help them overcome their fears and develop self-confidence. It seems therefore that both positive and negative affect were viewed as productive if they opened up learning opportunities. Neither overly positive affect (i.e. students staying too safe in the comfort zone) nor excessively negative affect were considered very productive.

Some participants' statements showed that negative affect was illegitimate. Dara recounted his response to a student's comment on his fear of making speaking mistakes that "fear is not real. You need to speak. Don't be shy. You must overcome your shyness" (SR1). This statement suggests that fear and shyness needed to be eliminated. However, the purpose of the comment could have been to provide encouragement rather than reflecting the teacher's true beliefs. In contrast, both Chomkwan and Reza made the point that anxiety might legitimately be a result of negative past experiences such as failing an English course or getting a bad grade. For instance, Reza reflected on his past teaching experience:

Some students have failed English courses a few times. This make them not dare. For example, there is a student in this class [who failed both courses Reza taught]. He has a rather bad attitude towards English. When in the classroom, he does not dare to speak or do anything at all. When asked, he is silent and mumbles (SR1).

Dara also believed that some Thai students were not motivated to learn English because, unlike Cambodian students, they did not need English to get good job prospects in the Thai EFL context:

Why aren't they motivated? Because after they graduate, they still get a job, but in Cambodia, no! If you don't know English, you don't have a chance to get a good job and also good salary…That's the main reason why Cambodian students are more motivated. They are not as silent as these Thai students (SR1).

While the teacher's role of fostering affect could be implied from statements by all participants, Ramgopal and Dara explicitly assigned themselves these roles. Ramgopal stated that "a teacher has to create some kinds of suspense – some kinds of surprises" (SR2). Dara reported taking on the role of actor and joker to provoke laughter when he thought the lesson was becoming boring (SR4). On several occasions, he described himself as "a cook who spiced up the lesson" (SR1; SR2). Both Ramgopal and Dara highlighted the required teaching skills of flexibility, creativity and a cheerful demeanour as essential. Flexibility in teaching was considered necessary when they made use of humour since it could result in deviation from a lesson plan. Creativity was noted by Dara as being necessary to the design of an interesting lesson (SR1; SR2; SR3; SR4). The teacher's personality was believed to play a role, and Dara questioned that "if they [teachers] don't have fun themselves, how can they make students happy?" (SR1) Dara prioritized fostering affect over teaching procedures, stating that "I like teaching. I live off my teaching and I make my teaching interesting and fun…and meaningful. [These] are the most important things – more important than teaching procedure" (SR1). All these roles had language learning as an end goal. Both Ramgopal and Dara stated explicitly that an interesting, fun, surprising or suspenseful lesson could help attract and maintain students' attention.

4.1.2   *The principle of fostering supportive classroom relations*

All participants considered that affect was dependent on classroom relations, and shared two assumptions. First, they believed that classroom relations could influence learners' affect and create classroom atmosphere that was conducive to language learning. Second, they believed that relations are grounded in moral values such as respect, empathy, patience, equity, and care, which suggests beliefs about how human beings should treat each other within the power–relations that operate in the classroom. The influence of relations on language learning is discussed first, followed by value-laden relations.

Classroom relations and language learning

All participants advocated reducing the teacher–student gap (i.e. social distance due to status difference). They believed that doing so could lessen unproductive emotions such as anxiety, fear and dislike directed towards the teacher, which would enhance student engagement with the teacher and teaching. For example, Chomkwan recounted, from her past experience as a learner, that studying with a teacher she liked was more enjoyable, and she believed that if the teacher was serious all the time, students might not dare to answer because they were afraid of being reprimanded (SR1). She added that the teacher should not be so distant that students would not interact with her (SR4). Similarly, Ramgopal pointed out that if students were frightened of the teacher, they might forget everything after they left the classroom (SR1). Dara

cited his teaching experience that many students came to study with him and recommended his courses to their friends because they found him a source of fun and humour and did not like other teachers. Furthermore, Chomkwan, Reza and Dara reported adopting the teacher role of "a friend", to which Reza added the role of "advisor".

Nevertheless, it appears to me that what teachers referred to as the role of a "friend" should not be taken literally, since it was also clear that they believed that teacher authority was essential. Chomkwan, Dara and Ramgopal contended that teacher authority was needed for classroom management. For instance, Chomkwan believed that if she was too close to students and regarded as a friend, this would make it harder for her to manage the class (SR4). In contrast to other teachers, Reza saw himself as a novice teacher, which was a status that he found problematic. He therefore asserted the need to maintain his status as a teacher, gain student respect, and create a zone for students to respect him (SR1). Additional evidence of the shifting distance between the two non-Thai teachers (i.e. Ramgopal and Dara) and their students comes from the fact that they reported that they added to their knowledge of the Thai language by interacting with Thai students and using them as teachers and conversation partners for their own learning of Thai.

Reza, Dara and Ramgopal perceived the local culture as being responsible for supporting a substantial social distance between teachers and students. Reza critiqued that "we [Thai teachers] are infamous for creating the barrier between teachers and the students. Teachers are on a pedestal" (SR1). Dara reported attempting to change the culture a little as he believed that students could not speak what they wanted to speak if they treated him as superior (SR3). While Reza and Dara reported being familiar with the local cultures, Ramgopal reported adjusting to them as he stated that "…now I begin to understand [why students are silent]. It's part of their culture…they are being polite…they do not want to confront [the teacher]" (SR1).

Equally important in their thinking was student–student relations, since all participants appreciated the importance of building group cohesiveness. Both Chomkwan and Ramgopal commented that peer support helped to create a positive classroom atmosphere and motivation. For instance, Chomkwan believed that if there were some confident, outgoing students in the classroom, the atmosphere became more interesting and motivating than if there were none (SR2). Ramgopal believed that since most Thai students were not confident to speak in front of the class, being able to stand beside friends during group presentation was very supportive and reassuring for them (SR2). Chomkwan also cited negative past experiences such as not liking former teachers or getting teased by friends as a potential source of language anxiety (SR4).

Value-laden classroom relations

The ways the participants discussed the topic of classroom relations above shows how power–relations between teachers and students are grounded in moral values or evaluative personal beliefs about what is right or wrong (Johnston, 2003). Respect and fairness were mentioned by all participants as indispensable to teacher–student relations. Reza, Chomkwan and Ramgopal also revealed their value of care broadly defined here as teachers' concerns about emotional and interpersonal well-being of students (Wright, 2005). For instance, Reza stated that "I expect students to succeed. It is not like I give them an exercise and expect them to fail and feel satisfied. I have never had such thought" (SR1). He therefore clearly believed that the teacher should never take pleasure or satisfaction from seeing students struggle with assigned work. Both Chomkwan and Ramgopal viewed negative teacher feedback as potentially insensitive to students and reported being careful not to hurt students' feelings when they gave feedback. The reference to particular cultural values of maintaining teacher–student distance and respectful behaviours (e.g. silence rather than confrontation) confirms the value-laden nature of teacher–student relations in these Thai classrooms.

Reza and Chomkwan showed how values were grounded in student–student relations. Reza reflected on the dilemma of whether he should focus on a few more capable students or the weaker, less capable majority of the class. The latter option prevailed as Reza stated that he wanted them to "work together" and become friends (SR2). The implied value here is that what is good for the whole community takes priority over the needs of the individual (Crookes, 2009). Chomkwan emphasized that the need to maintain a positive self-image among peers could discourage students from answering, since those who knew the answer might not want to appear to show-off or create peer envy, while weaker ones were afraid of being wrong and appearing unintelligent (SR1). The Thai cultural value of behaving in a way that will not appear boastful or unintelligent underpins how Chomkwan perceived certain student behaviours.

4.1.3 *The principle of fostering moral values*

Reza, Dara and Ramgopal showed some attempts to develop positive values and emotional states as an end goal. Reflecting on assessing student achievement, Reza expressed a wish that scores could be given for ethics, morality and student effort. While asserting that this would be beneficial, he said he had not yet decided which value-based components should be included in the assessment, whether the subject of English could play any role in nurturing morality and ethics, and how values could be developed in the classroom (SR1). He also noted the teacher's role as a moral guide providing similar moral support to that which is provided in temples or mosques:

> Teachers should have a role in building society like temples or mosques in the past, right? …We are an institution everyone has to go through before becoming an adult…They are raw materials. Those who sculpt them are the most important (SR3).

Dara reflected on values encoded in language when he taught the function of offering, accepting and declining help. He then elaborated on the socio-cultural norm underlying this language function:

> ...my purpose is that because usually you work together with human beings, we have to share and give and take something…we have to help each other so this is the language that you can use if…you see someone has a problem then you can offer...it is compassion; we have to help each other….It's a very meaningful life (SR4).

As can be seen, Dara was describing the value-laden function of sharing, helping others and showing compassion. Unlike Reza and Dara, Ramgopal explicitly stated that this was his mission, and a core value of his teaching. He stated that in every lesson, he tried to look for some "ethical values" he could impart to make students know that they needed to be "a good person", "a good student" and "a better person" (SR4). Moreover, he saw the importance of developing student confidence and character. He believed that character and culture were entwined, and desired that students would gain something useful from learning about "good" cultures in the course. He also reported challenging cultural norms no longer applicable in "a modern society", including the tradition that a woman, whether rich or poor, had to give dowry to her husband, and the belief that a baby girl is a curse (SR4). Reza, Dara and Ramgopal all revealed one of the teacher's roles was a moral guide, a role that goes beyond simply teaching a foreign language to include the wider educational goals of making the student a better person for improving Thai society.

4.2   Affect-related teaching practices

Most studies exploring affective concerns in teaching practices rely on teachers' verbal reports (reported practices) rather than direct observations (observed practices), since these considerations are not easily observable. This study therefore drew on stimulated recall interviews in which the researchers and teachers identified affect-laden teaching episodes. It responded to the call by Lamb (2017) to capture interactive teachers' decision-making related to affect in actual teaching practices using stimulated recall techniques. This section groups diverse teaching practices into three main categories according to the three principles discussed in Section 4.1. The categories and sub-categories are not clear-cut and often one practice appeared to serve two or three principles. Some overlaps and repetitions in the reporting of these findings is therefore inevitable. For readability, the term "reported" is reserved for

reported practices not directly observed by the researcher, while the term "observed" is omitted when referring to practices that the researcher observed.

4.2.1 Practices fostering affect to promote language learning

The teaching practices presented in this section explore the principle of fostering affect to promote language learning. The practices are categorized into two main themes. The first theme presents how affective considerations shape content and methodology to promote positive affective responses. The second theme explores teaching practices that make use of pressure and incentives to gently push reluctant students to participate.

Affective considerations in content and methodology

Promoting variety in teaching

Variety was believed by all participants to promote constructive affect such as alertness (Ramgopal, Reza), surprise (Ramgopal, Chomkwan), interest (Ramgopal, Dara), suspense (Ramgopal) and excitement (Chomkwan), while deterring unhelpful feelings such as boredom (Dara, Chomkwan), pressure and stress (Reza) from too much predictability, repetition or prolonged engagement with a difficult task. Teachers used two main strategies. First, variety was created by the teacher, and all participants highlighted the need to vary instruction from time to time. For instance, Ramgopal reported asking students to change their group leader so they would work with a variety of leaders and assume different group roles both as leader and follower, and alternated between group and individual presentations and assessment (SR2), confirmed by observation data (OB2; OB4). He also praised the textbook for its integrated-skill content with vocabulary, grammar, speaking and listening sections. He believed that students might get bored if only one or two areas were taught (SR1).

Ramgopal, Dara and Reza described different activities that they had used. Ramgopal reported changing from a "research and presentation activity" (OB2) to making a cultural video clip at home and presenting it in class (OB4). Dara noted the different warm-up activities he used (SR4), ranging from asking questions about the book he held (OB1), teaching conversational moves (OB2) to a listening comprehension activity (OB4). Reza reported his intention of not asking the same questions again in the next class to make the lesson unpredictable (SR1). He reported bringing some games to give students a break from a lesson that he perceived to be likely to be stressful (SR2). Both Dara (SR3) and Chomkwan (SR1) commented on observed episodes where they had asked students to achieve variety in student pairings.

Another strategy used by teachers to promote variety was giving students independent choices when possible. Chomkwan asked students to devise their own role-play situations for the function of apologizing to ensure a variety of situations would be covered, and that there would be some surprises for the class audience (OB3; SR3). Likewise, Ramgopal allowed students free choice of any cultural value as a presentation topic, since this could bring up topics that would be a surprise for class members (OB4; SR4). However, reflecting on the student presentations, he commented that some students brought in repetitive topics and he would thus restrict topics next time to ensure variety. He saw this as an experiment and noted that "this is just a trial, right?...So the next time round, I can as a teacher do better" (SR4). Ramgopal also emphasized the value of freedom of choice that guided him to allow students to choose their own presentation topics:

> I believe in freedom of choices but I also believe in the teacher giving the right instruction and not being restricted to only the teacher's way of thinking. If it is right…let students do as they'd like, but if they are in a wrong path, we lead them to the right path. So, I ask them [to choose any cultural value] freely. They can surprise me… (SR4)

This statement shows the balance that the teacher tried to achieve between withdrawing teacher authority to allow students' free choice, and asserting authority to ensure appropriate topic choices. The boredom from knowing "what is to come" in the lesson deterred Ramgopal from restricting topics. Dara added another dynamic by reporting that a student had been the one to demand more variety:

> I also got feedback from the student that okay, your style is only one [way]…One class they said that. Other classes they said they liked my style… Now I changed…One style is not good…Repetition, yeah, too much is not good. So, we have to change to be more meaningful, more interesting…As one proverb goes…variety is a spice of life and it's true (SR3).

Using affectively appealing materials

All participants perceived some taught content and activities as affectively stimulating. Ramgopal organized the whole class to sing and act out a song before inviting four students to represent four different countries to compete against each other as they acted out the song (OB2). He believed that this left students refreshed, relaxed, motivated and interested (SR2). Dara also played English songs before and after each lesson, although he did not state a reason for this practice. Chomkwan arranged for students to watch the animated feature *Rio* (OB3; OB4) and commented that students laughed and were emotionally engaged with the movie (SR3). Dara, Reza and Chomkwan highlighted game-like activities. Dara described a "fun" and

"interesting" memory game in which students sat in a group of six and took turns saying vocabulary about jobs without repeating what others had said. Those who could not come up with a new word or repeat a word already mentioned had to stand up (OB4; SR4). Chomkwan noted that a crossword activity in the textbook had been more fun and challenging for students than a word–definition matching exercise (OB1; SR1). Reza reported searching on the Internet for games to be used in his classes (SR2). Chomkwan lamented that her self-produced black and white photocopied teaching materials were not as attractive ones in colour (OB3; SR3), and Dara used different colours to make his PowerPoint presentations more interesting. He reported that this was in response to negative student feedback that his PowerPoint presentations were dull (SR4).

Adding humour

Ramgopal, Dara and Chomkwan believed that humour could help boost student attention, induce emotions such as fun, happiness (Dara, Ramgopal), joy (Ramgopal) and interest (Dara), deter boredom (Dara), and create a relaxed atmosphere. The quotation below from Chomkwan captures these points succinctly:

> …if students feel relaxed, they can continuously listen to the lecture…some students might lose focus, but when I say something funny, their minds come back…I have to periodically activate them like that to let them learn. If it [the classroom atmosphere] is too serious, students are unlikely to be motivated to learn…I try to adjust my teaching strategies to create what we call a friendly atmosphere (SR4).

Dara intentionally added humour to taught content and reported using incongruous examples such as "Do not close your eyes when you sneeze" and "Do not shed tears when you cry" to teach how to state a rule (SR4). Although not observed, these examples were written in the PowerPoint presentation from a previous class. He also reported asking students to act out vocabulary, which created laughter (SR1). For the most part, these teachers improvised humour in response to the taught content or what occurred in the lesson. For instance, Ramgopal explained that he mimicked gestures of the comedy character "Mr. Bean" in response to a listening track referring to Mr. Bean to make students laugh (OB3; SR3). However, his comment that there should not be too much humour during lessons indicated that he viewed classroom instruction as a fundamentally goal-oriented endeavour.

My own observations reveal some interesting features of humour in the classroom. First, humorous comments were usually made in response to or as part of taught content rather than stand-alone jokes. For example, Dara often described the final pair in a matching task as homework (OB4; OB5). This is humorous because there was only the last pair left by default

after Dara had told the class about the other pairs and therefore the answer was self-evident. In a speaking activity about "what job is boring?", he offered the answer "teacher" - before adding "I lied" (OB4). Chomkwan used acoustic links (Atkinson, 1975) to make jokes; that is, she used a Thai word that was similar in sound to a spoken target word in English, which could potentially serve as a mnemonic device. The humourous effect was therefore achieved through puns. For instance, she stated that "I see. ไม่ใช่ ICU อยู่ในโรงพยาบาล <Not ICU/ I see you in a hospital> and "You're welcome. ไม่ใช่ your เวรกรรม มาทำให้ฉันลำบาก <Not your Wenkam/ Welcome (Bad Karma) that gets me in trouble.>" (OB4). Third, Chomkwan's jokes provided an indirect Thai translation for English utterances in the textbook. For instance, she joked "Thank you for giving me cosmetics. ขอบคุณที่ให้อุทัยทิพย์มาทานะค่ะ <Thank you for giving me Utaitip[10]> and "Thank you very much for inviting us to your birthday party ขอบคุณมากเลยในชีวิตนี้ไม่เคยมีใครมาเชิญหนูเลย <Thank you so much. No one has never ever invited me before in my entire life.>" (OB4). The humorous effect for the former example was achieved through an anecdote suggesting students' mischief and defying school policy regulations, while the latter example used irony and sarcasm.

Deterring or responding to negative responses

All participants attempted to deter negative affective responses from students. They predicted and devised instructions that addressed these negative responses. For example, Dara and Chomkwan stated that already known vocabulary should not be repeatedly practiced as it could lead to boredom. While Chomkwan reflected that she quickly checked which words were unknown to students and spent more time teaching these items (OB2; SR2), Dara (SR2) added more unknown words to "spice up" all the observed lessons. With past teaching experiences that students often found grammar difficult, Reza reflected teasing students by uttering "ไม่ต้อง ทำหน้าตาเบื่อ จะคุยนิดเดียวเอง เรื่องแกรมม่าร์ นิดเดียวนะ นิดเดียว <Don't make a bored face. I will teach it briefly. Grammar. Just briefly>" to deter boredom and maintain their attention (OB1; SR1). However, he was not detecting bored facial expressions on the faces of any students in the class when he made this remark.

Chomkwan and Reza revealed how affective considerations influenced homework assignments. Chomkwan assigned parts of the exercises covered in the lesson as homework because she thought that, at this particular stage of the lesson, some students might no longer be in the mood to think, and that repetitively eliciting answers for each item one-by-one was boring (OB3;

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[10] A red herbal drop some Thai students use to make their lips red since wearing make-up is not allowed in Thai primary and secondary schools.

SR3). Both Chomkwan and Reza believed that too much workload could create resistance to study. Reza emphasized:

> Everything has an effect. Although I think that it *[giving too much homework]* is trivial,…but as time passes, it could turn into a big issue for some students…I think this is a reason why some students do not like to study English (SR3).

All participants gave students encouragement at particular times. They made similar statements to their classes in which they prioritized participation over right or wrong answers. However, only Ramgopal and Reza revealed that these statements were intended to give emotional support. For instance, before a group presentation task, Ramgopal stated that "…it doesn't matter whether you do well or not. It matters how you participate. Don't worry. Be happy" (OB2). He then explained that he wanted students to "do their best with ease [and in a] relaxing manner". He added that students might not like to come to class if he had conveyed a high expectation that "you have to do it well and no script" (SR2). Similarly, Reza announced that "…ลองเล่นขำๆ พยายามตั้งคำถาม…ไม่ต้องไป mind มากเกี่ยวกับ grammar เอาเป็นว่าถามให้เพื่อนเข้าใจหรือตัวเองเข้าใจ…ให้การสื่อสารเราไปถึงก็โอเคแหละ <Just do it for fun. Try to make a question. Do not mind much about grammar. Just make sure your friend and you understand it…It is okay as long as the message gets across…>" (OB2). He explained that expressing lower expectations could "console desperate students"[11] (SR2). He also reported telling students it took time to improve listening skills, in order to encourage them to persevere (SR2).

Ramgopal was observed explicitly endorsing certain affect or values including confidence, and positive attitudes towards error and effort, as shown in the two quotations below. The first statement was made after a pair of students had finished speaking practice before class, which conveys that making errors in speaking provides a valuable chance for teacher feedback that helps students improve. The other was made after a student had commented that she felt anxious presenting before the camera (i.e. a reactive effect) in order to convince the class that their anxiety would subside if they persisted in practicing speaking in public:

> Thank you, gentlemen, for your big hearts. Come and try, right? ... Don't be afraid. Just speak out so when you speak loud, your teacher can listen and note the wrong and right and the teacher can correct you…so you must know where you are and try to improve (OB3).

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[11] This is Reza's own words, since he code-switched into English.

> …so maybe next time, you have to face the camera…It's nothing. It's just a camera…You have to dare to face it….Just imagine people like Tata Young[12]; Tony Jaa[13]… You know what? Like Tony Jaa, not just in one night. Director. Again. Cut. Again. Cut. They tried again and again and they became famous. But you just one hour and thirty minutes. You have done a better job. So, what can you do? Practice!...Next time, put more effort to improve…(OB4)

While all participants uttered a statement signalling the final activity of the lesson, only Reza revealed its affective significance. He believed that such a statement could motivate students to make a final effort even as they visualized getting out of class at the end of the lesson. Yet he stated that he applied it selectively (SR4). He reported that he got this strategy from "a research article" but was not able to recall the name of the article. More than other participants, Ramgopal was observed to probe students' emotional states during speaking activities. For instance, he stated, "Relax, okay?", "So don't get nervous, alright?" and "It will come as easy, don't be afraid okay?"

Successful completion of tasks

Participants all attempted to prevent negative affective responses from students by ensuring that learning tasks were not too difficult. Reza used the pictures to elicit known vocabulary, but did not instigate a communicative discussion because he perceived that students had rather negative attitudes towards English, and he therefore wanted to make the task more achievable (OB2; SR2). He remembered curtailing some demanding grammar instruction because he perceived it was too difficult for students to manage (SR2). He also reported probing for more detailed answers to listening comprehension questions from proficient students, but not from less proficient ones (SR1). It is within this context that the value of care mentioned previously (see Section 4.1.2) emerged as Reza stated that he expected students to succeed in doing the exercise and that he never took pleasure from seeing them struggle. This value influenced his decision to distribute the audio script to let weak students read along as they listened (OB3). He explained that this was not his customary practice and added:

> …when they didn't understand, they were not interested….I was thinking whether I should distribute it. But if I did not distribute it, only one student, compared to his peers, he was much more proficient….But should I emphasize quantity or quality? I want my students to work together…I want them to be friends. I want to give them the room to breathe. If they do not understand, they are suffocated…(SR3)

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[12] An internationally famous Thai female singer.

[13] An internationally famous Thai martial art and stunt male actor.

This statement shows the teacher's responsiveness to an unfolding situation and his on-the-spot decision-making based on the need to preserve the interest of weak students by making the listening task easier, his value of care as he did not want these students to be "suffocated" (i.e. to fail), and his value of prioritizing the benefit to the whole class over consideration of a few individuals. Other participants also provided examples of how they tried to ensure task success. Ramgopal asked students to make a video clip at home using pantomime to convey any cultural values of their choice rather than asking them to make speeches, because having students present their video clips followed by Q & A sessions in class made the tasks more manageable for them and therefore supported their learning (OB4; SR4). Chomkwan highlighted that conversation models could boost students' confidence to participate, as they provided some speaking patterns without which students might be afraid to answer (OB1; SR1). She reflected that there was a need for preparation time for students before they were asked to speak and to also make sure they were willing to communicate (SR4). Reza noted that he did not compel students to repeatedly practice pronouncing difficult words, and sometimes glossed over their incorrect pronunciation of English words in order to foster positive attitudes to the target language and the learning processes (SR1).

Making taught content relevant to students' lives

All participants discussed how they made lesson content relevant to students' lives. Ramgopal and Chomkwan believed that giving students choices for their own presentation topics or role-play situations allowed them to connect their learning with their lives outside the classroom. Ramgopal explained that this reflected "what they want, not what I want" (SR4). Chomkwan added that this could foster creativity, and stated that "I want them to apply what they have learnt and sometimes this leads to creativity in different forms. I don't want to control them" (SR3). She often began teaching a language function by eliciting its purposes and situations of use in the belief that "if an expression is too distant from their lives and they don't see its purposes: no purpose, no motivation to learn" (SR4). For instance, in a lesson on the topic of "My Interests", Chomkwan asked what students liked to do in their free time (OB1). She explained that this could raise their awareness of how the lesson was relevant to real-life situations and help her adjust subsequent discussion questions so that they better suited students' genuine interests (SR1).

Ramgopal explained that he did not teach grammar in depth in his listening and speaking class because he believed that students' main interest was to learn English for basic interpersonal communication (SR1). While Ramgopal and Reza seemed to view grammar lessons as potentially boring, Dara reported adding more grammar content because his students liked

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grammar, and there was insufficient grammar content and too few examples in their course text (SR1). This corresponded to my observation in which the teacher added many more examples to exemplify a grammar point. Furthermore, Dara added lexical items including "play truant", "unrequited love", "have a crush on" and "honey" to sentence examples demonstrating questions in the past simple tense (OB2). He believed that this made the lesson more interesting because these expressions reflected students' real-life situations and they would relate to them. These words and expressions could also provoke laughter and make learning more fun (SR2). Both Ramgopal (SR3) and Dara (SR2) reflected that they skipped some content dealing with world historical figures in the belief that students could not relate to these people, due to their silence when asked what they knew about them. They asked students to discuss their own heroes instead. Dara commented that "I don't use this one. It doesn't match student situations [and] interests so no need. Think about the film stars, Korean bands,[14] their fathers and their mothers, kings [and people] like that…" Dara added that teachers should teach what was applicable and interesting to students' lives (SR2).

Using L1 to induce emotional connection and for a humorous effect and novelty

Reza, Ramgopal and Dara revealed how the L1 was used to connect students emotionally with taught content. Reza explained that he translated conversation models for pair-work speaking practice to ensure that students understood their meanings (SR2). Correspondingly, he announced to the whole class during speaking practice that "ให้มันมีอรรถรสหน่อย รู้ความหมายมันแล้ว < Speak like you emotionally feel it. You've already known its meaning>" (OB1). The point that he implied was that students would find it hard to emotionally connect with meaningless L2 utterances. With their very limited Thai proficiency (a foreign language for both teachers), Ramgopal and Dara sprinkled Thai words into their lessons. Both Ramgopal and Dara perceived that their foreign accents were humorous to Thai students and regarded student laughter positively as helping to create a relaxing classroom atmosphere. For example, Ramgopal stated: "Let them have some fun. Laugh at me…when they feel relaxed, they listen to the teacher…but not too much" (SR1). Dara added:

> Sometimes I cannot pronounce [Thai] clearly…The students laughed. Sometimes it's kinda creating a…friendly [and] relaxing atmosphere…they laugh at my pronunciation, my tone, like that. It's fun. I cannot speak Thai correctly. Students laugh a lot. But I find it okay. Let them laugh. No problem (SR2).

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[14] Korean pop culture, including music and drama, is well-known in Thailand.

It is clear from the study data that Ramgopal believed that laughter was beneficial for classroom atmosphere, as it made students feel relaxed and more likely to listen to him (i.e. classroom management). He consistently took the position that there should not be too much humour (i.e. similar to his position in the "Mr. Bean" episode). Compared to Ramgopal, Dara tended to have a more relaxed attitude to being viewed as "an actor" and "a joker". He also revealed that he did not intentionally make his Thai accent funny, but in this case, it could have a desirable effect. Both participants also drew on their first and second languages. Realizing that there were Cambodian loan words in the Thai language, Dara uttered Cambodian words (his L1) to see if they accidentally corresponded to Thai words (OB1; OB2). He pointed out that this was interesting, surprising and at times funny, which helped keep the class interested (SR4). The excerpt below provides an example of this teaching practice:

> Librarian. បណ្ណារក្ស [Students repeat the word back]…Oh. I'm talking about my language. Okay. បណ្ណារក្ស My language and your language? [Students state the same word] Oh! Similar! (OB4)

This excerpt shows Dara playfully uttering the Cambodian equivalent to the word "librarian". Students corrected his pronunciation, thinking that he said the Thai word, to which he responded "I'm talking about my language" and elicited "your language" before expressing surprise about the similarity between the two languages. Prompted by a conversation model that mentioned Gandhi, Ramgopal (who was of Indian ethnicity) recounted a story of Gandhi, which contained words including "ahimsa" and "satyagraha" (his L2) (OB3). However, unlike Dara, Ramgopal saw these Sanskrit terms as irrelevant to his English classrooms, since the students were not Indian and did not want to learn this language (SR3). It seems therefore that Dara saw his Cambodian L1 as having a more central role and able to be used in many lessons due to similarities between Cambodian and Thai, rather than the content of a single lesson in the case of Ramgopal.

Using pressure and giving incentives to participate

While all participants believed that negative emotions by students should be discouraged, they used them to create learning pressure to promote participation. For instance, all four participants were of the opinion that calling on individual students to contribute could make them more alert, and oblige them to expend more effort. Chomkwan believed that the anxiety that may result from the punishment of requiring students to dance if they were the last pair to finish the interviewing activity could help make them alert, deter boredom and speed up the activity. However, Chomkwan did not punish anyone (OB1; SR1). Dara reflected on why he called on a student to answer because he observed the student talking to others and not completing the

task (OB1; SR1). Both Ramgopal and Reza reported that they routinely called on individual students, in the belief that students' mild anxiety from the possibility of being called on could make them try harder. For example, Ramgopal explained that he called on particular students to act out the song "so next time they will be alert and this also shows that people who are watching can be called out anytime" (OB1; SR1). Likewise, Reza commented:

> I've done this from the first class I taught to make them alert so they would do the task. They will try harder and harder. They will try to get at the correct answer…I will be called out for sure. They will be in this mood (SR1).

Teacher criticism of students' lack of participation was another way of encouraging students to contribute to the lesson. For example, Dara met with student silence during a realia activity requiring students to ask him questions about the book he was holding. He then commented: "Very good. No one answers. I told you a thousand times you needed to answer. Yes, sir. No, sir. Goodbye, sir…. Why don't you do it, huh?" (OB1) Likewise, when Ramgopal invited students to reflect on what they could improve for the next presentation and was met with silence, he commented, "I want my class to think, you know, think. Not just simply accept and eat…What if you eat poison, you know?" (OB4). Ramgopal also revealed the danger of direct critique, as it could lead to feelings of shame and annoyance in students. Teachers therefore needed to be careful and tactful in applying this strategy (SR2). Their critical comments often contained an element of humour or irony to lessen the negative impact on students' feelings. For example, building on a previous student comment that the weather was hot, Ramgopal commented on students' silence by saying: "Ah, this class is good, huh? You're feeling hot. That's why you're quiet, huh? I see" (OB4). He explained that he did not want to embarrass or put students down by saying, "You're shy. You're afraid", and therefore used the hot weather as an explanation for students' lack of involvement (SR4). Here his decision was guided by the moral value of not wanting to make a disparaging comment about the class.

Similar reasons were given for the preference expressed by Ramgopal and Dara for a diplomatic approach rather than a confrontational one when dealing with disruptive behaviour. For instance, Ramgopal reflected that he praised students who were punctual rather than chastising late students because praise could serve as an indirect warning for late students without making them feel ashamed or embarrassed, and also as an incentive for punctual students to "keep doing what you're doing" (OB3; SR3). Other observed teaching episodes that appeared to be guided by this principle included when Ramgopal commented on a student's phone ringing during the lesson with a humorous comment: "That's a call from Jamaica" (OB2). He also enacted the

Wai[15] to a late arriving student while saying "สวัสดีครับ <Hello>" (OB3). Similarly, Dara woke up an inattentive student and, prompted by the taught content, which was a discussion about a party, joked that she must have been to a party the previous evening (OB2). He then explained that "teachers have to create a friendly relaxing atmosphere in the room and safe too and students, you know, don't feel upset at all…She just smiled and laughed" (SR2).

Another source of pressure highlighted by Ramgopal was warning students about negative consequences of lack of participation and hard work. He reported telling students in an orientation class that "if they haven't learned how to speak, how to talk, how to talk to me, they will face the problems and fail in exams." He believed that this could motivate students to speak English in class (SR2). Only one related teaching episode was observed. However, he emphasized positive consequences rather than negative ones after a group presentation activity:

> Thank you everyone for doing your best… For those of you who take this privilege as a chance to exercise your ability, I tell you by the end of the course, you will not only learn English but you learn to be confident. You will also learn to be brave and please continue to say yes when I give you chance to speak…Once again, I appreciate your participation. And listen to the teacher's instruction always and you will never be sorry when you complete the course (OB2).

This statement shows Ramgopal pointing out English learning gains and confidence as positive consequences of taking up learning opportunities offered in the class. Negative consequences could be implied in that students might well be sorry if they did not listen to the teacher. Furthermore, both Dara and Ramgopal reported using scores as a motivational incentive. For instance, Dara reflected the observed practice of administering a mini-quiz that doing so made students came to class prepared (OB4; OB5; SR5). Ramgopal gave bonus points to students asking a question to a presenting group (OB5). He found this strategy effective for pushing reluctant students to participate, as can be seen in the excerpt below:

> Nobody dared to ask questions at first and I was struggling. What should I do?...But I also understand that they were preparing for…their turn [to present] so they were worried …I understand that so I had to open up and slowly I had to say, okay, I would give you a bonus…something just to motivate. It really worked (SR5).

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[15] Wai is a Thai way of greeting, which involves the palms pressed together in a prayer-like fashion with a slight head bow. To foreigners, the cultural information often missing is its hierarchical nature and therefore those placed hierarchically lower (i.e. students) should initiate the Wai to those higher (i.e. teachers) who then enact the Wai back or nod their heads. During observations, I did not feel that he broke this cultural norm, but I realized afterwards that he had. However, the sight of foreigners breaking this cultural norm is not uncommon and Thai natives would probably not expect cultural outsiders to conform rigidly to its protocols.

Ramgopal, Dara and Reza expressed different attitudes towards the use of scores as motivational incentives. As the above statement shows, Ramgopal used bonus points as a last resort after several invitations to the class to ask questions were unsuccessful. This was in contrast to Dara, who administered a mini-quiz at the beginning of every lesson in one of his courses. Reza explicitly disapproved of an exam-oriented mindset, which he believed forced students to study English and made them feel stressed (SR1). He therefore had a relaxed attitude towards checking as to whether students had actually done the homework from the previous class. Dara acknowledged and addressed the same problem in a different way by using a mini-quiz.

4.2.2 *Practices fostering classroom relations*

This section presents practices foregrounding the principle of supportive classroom relations. The diverse practices are organized into two themes regarding student–student and teacher–student relations. The relations are also shown to be grounded in moral values.

Practices fostering student–student relations
Using learning activities that promote peer interactions and bonding
All participants described a number of practices that were intended to promote positive peer relations. Dara assigned classroom seating by randomly placing name cards onto chairs (OB1; OB2; OB3; OB5) to disturb students' tendency to interact with the same classmates and to ensure that they got to know a variety of their fellow students (SR1). Each student's name card contained a photograph, a name, a nickname, a student ID number, a major, a class section and a year of study. Chomkwan's request for students to interview six friends from different majors for their personal information (OB1) had a similar aim, which was for students to become acquainted with as many of their classmates as possible. She added that this was more interesting and informative than interviewing familiar peers (SR1). Ramgopal believed that students felt at ease when practising speaking with their friends rather than with him, and therefore asked students to practise in pairs before calling on them to contribute in whole class sessions (OB1; SR1). Reza asked students to work in pairs to exchange known vocabulary at the beginning of lessons to promote peer interactions, since they would be working together for subsequent activities (OB1; OB2; SR1). He also reported using ice-breaking activities to bond students from the very first orientation lesson. He actually used the term "ice-breaking activities" to refer to any activity that took place at any time in the course that pushed students to speak, reduced their inhibition and made them "feel at home" in the classroom (SR2).

While pair and group work were common teaching practices that all participants believed had a positive effect on peer interactions, only Ramgopal described in detail the group dynamics

and supportive relations that were the key to the success of group work. He commented on an impromptu group presentation activity on a range of cultural topics (OB2):

> They will organize. They need to keep in sequence who should be first, who speaks what. So, this helps them think and team up. Without teamwork, they cannot really work out this one so this kind of activity helps them to know who should come first,…second,…should be respected…when to be quiet, when to talk. Unless these things take place, there will be no order in presentation…If there is unhealthy competition, then they may never come up with a group presentation like this one (SR2).

As this quotation shows, successful group relationships rest on such values as respect and cooperation that require students to negotiate their roles (e.g. when to listen and when to talk). Ramgopal consistently stated a belief that students needed to have mutual understanding, respect and a sense of team responsibility in order to perform their roles adequately when giving a group presentation (SR5). He also reflected that peer cooperation when groups competed in answering a cultural quiz about Vietnam could help deter "negative competition where they may hate each other [and] where there could be jealousy" (OB2; SR2). It is evident that positive values including respect, cooperation and responsibility were promoted, while negative emotions such as hatred and jealousy were strongly discouraged.

Spatial proximity among peers was highlighted by Ramgopal who believed that standing during a presentation was important because students felt that they were together as a group. His view seems to reflect a belief about collectivist Asian cultures as he explained that "if you single out most Asians…Thai especially, they will not be confident enough to speak [or] come up front one by one and speak". Because of this, he arranged group presentations, in the belief that they were more encouraging and motivating than individual presentations (OB2; SR2). It should be noted that he stated an intention of gradually adding pressure by withdrawing this support and organizing individual presentations as the course progressed. Chomkwan pointed out that the numbers of students in the class and their personal characteristics could influence the classroom atmosphere. She commented that one of her classes had too few students with the same quiet demeanour (six students) and believed that students with different characteristics including "good at speaking" and "good at thinking" could make a classroom more dynamic and motivating for everyone (SR2).

Maintaining students' positive self-image

Chomkwan and Ramgopal pointed out the need to allow students to maintain a positive self-image in front of peers. Students' silence could be due to politeness, and Chomkwan commented that some students might not want to appear to show off to their peers, and might therefore be reluctant to answer. However, she was uncertain if this was the case in this particular lesson (SR1). To address this learning need, she described an observed episode where she had selected particular students to answer questions, since she perceived that these high-proficiency students may prefer to be silent rather than appearing to be showing off (SR1). She added that weak students might be silent because "they are afraid to be wrong and to look bad. They might get teased or feel that they are incompetent" (SR1). To address this, she explained that she asked for contributions from willing volunteers or the whole class before pinpointing students (SR2), giving time to prepare (SR4), and providing support in the form of patterns so that students had some models to guide their speaking practices (SR1). The aim of this practice was to provide support in the form of initial practice or models to ensure that students would be successful before calling them out individually. All participants were observed to use these practices.

For Chomkwan and Ramgopal, error correction could negatively affect students' self-image if not done with consideration. Chomkwan reflected that she avoided blunt feedback such as "You're wrong" and instead gave feedback directed at specific individuals only when it was not face-threatening (SR2). Similarly, Ramgopal was careful of how he passed judgment:

> Correction is always good but it also hurts. The truth hurts, you know. More so when it is open. More so when it is in front of their friends…This is culturally not ethical to do that. Open some kind of insulting…I'm considerate of correcting them right there in the class in front of everyone (SR4).

As this statement shows, Ramgopal was careful about giving feedback that could potentially hurt students' feelings and damage students' self-image, especially in front of their peers. The moral value was foregrounded when he explicitly stated that a teacher should not insult and hurt students. However, Ramgopal also stated that some students who continued to disrupt class needed to be "taught in a hard way"; that is, these students would receive direct criticism (SR2). He then highlighted skills for teachers to navigate the moral terrain of error correction including being "tactful", "calm" and "humble" (SR2). Because of this, Ramgopal reflected that he did not provide any corrective feedback to presenting groups in his culture classes, which corresponded to the observation data (OB2; OB4). However, he gave corrective feedback in other two observed lessons when giving explicit grammar instruction, probably because

feedback after explicit instruction is likely to be less anxiety-inducing than negative feedback after a presentation activity, and also because of an explicit goal of grammar teaching, which requires that correction of errors takes place.

Practices fostering teacher–student relations

Smalltalk and teasing

All participants acknowledged the need to narrow the social distance between teacher and students due to status differences, and small talk was therefore a practice highlighted by all teachers in the study. While all observed classes began with a simple greeting, only Reza reflected its importance of reducing student anxiety due to the social distance between him and his students (SR2). When Chomkwan met the students in her class for the first time, she introduced herself, expressed an interest in getting to know the class, and elicited students' majors (OB1). She reflected that this helped to relax students and gave them a chance to observe her teaching style (SR1). Both Chomkwan and Reza reported chatting with students when they encountered them outside the classroom, suggesting that friendly interactions inside and outside classes could help them bond with their students. Interestingly, Ramgopal emphasized the value of empathy that underpinned basic classroom conversational exchanges. Ramgopal greeted students and asked how they were feeling, to which a student responded that she felt hot. He then elicited what students should do, and responded that they should be quiet, focus their minds, not move around, and not think too much (OB4). Not only was this believed to relax students, but also to convey empathetic rapport, and he stated that "just as I myself am feeling the weather, the heat, the humidity…so I just want them to feel that *I'm with you* even though I won't say that so they could focus [and] relax" (SR4).

These conversational exchanges sometimes took the form of light-hearted teasing. Chomkwan, Reza and Dara agreed that such teasing could create a relaxing and fun classroom atmosphere and help convey an image of a friendly, supportive teacher. For example, Chomkwan stated that such teasing could convey that "the teacher can be your friend. Do not be afraid. Do not worry. They can approach me and ask" (SR4). All three participants described teaching episodes when they teased students. For instance, with the lesson topic "My Interests", Chomkwan elicited what students liked to do in their free time, to which a student responded that he liked watching movies. She then made an ageist joke: "What type of movies do you like most? ชอบหนังประเภทไหน <What genre do you like?>", "Drama?...ดาวพระศุกร์ <Dao Prasuk[16] >", "เกิด

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[16] A famous Thai soap opera in 1994.

หรือยังตอนเรื่องนี้มี <Were you born yet when this movie was first shown?>…”, “แสดงว่ารุ่นเดียวกับครูนะ เนี๊ยะ <So we are in the same generation>” (OB1). It should be noted that Chomkwan was around ten years older than her students, which made the joke more appropriate. Reza also viewed his comment to students that they should not have bored expressions during an item of grammar instruction as teasing. Dara woke up a sleeping student and later teased her by remarking that she must have been to a party the previous night, as prompted by the taught content, which was talking about a party (OB2; SR2). As discussed earlier, this type of teasing was used to manage class and add pressure in a friendly manner rather than a confrontational one, which helped the teacher to maintain a friendly, positive image for students.

Drawing on cultures and languages to bond with students

Ramgopal, Dara and Reza revealed how shared cultures could be used to strengthen a teacher–student bond. For instance, when Ramgopal was observed enacting the Wai to his students (OB1; OB4; OB5), he explained that “I'm trying to tell them that I respect you. So, when I Wai, they also Wai back at me…When you Wai each other [and] respect each other, you don't fight” (SR5). It is evident here that Ramgopal viewed teacher–student relations as resting on the moral value of mutual respect. Dara reported encouraging students to address him as Dara rather than Ajarn Dara <Teacher Dara> or Professor Dara. He viewed this as a challenge to both Thai and his own Cambodian culture, which did not address a teacher as one would a friend or acquaintance (SR3). However, my observations revealed the opposite. For instance, he announced: “if you are not sure, come ask me. Teacher… okay… professor” (OB1). However, this does not conflict with Dara's view that a teacher must also exert authority. The appropriateness of such an address in both Thai and Cambodian cultures might make it unproblematic and too trivial to be worth much attention. It should be reminded that all participants regarded cultural beliefs as a potential cause of students' silence. While Reza and Dara blamed the local cultures for positioning teachers too distant from students, Ramgopal saw students as being polite and not wanting to confront him.

Ramgopal, Dara and Reza pointed out that shared languages could be used to bond with their students. Aware that English-only policy could be threatening for some students, both Ramgopal and Dara used Thai to deter students' negative responses to their English-only policy. Ramgopal commented that “they feel at home when we talk a little bit about their language…If I speak only English, they may never talk… When you mix with their language, they feel: Oh, the teacher is coming down to our level” (SR1). Both Ramgopal and Dara believed that interspersing some Thai words into their English could alleviate student anxiety and made them less afraid of the teacher, especially when an English-only policy was in place. As can be seen

from the excerpt above, Ramgopal used Thai to "come down" to students' low English proficiency level and to express empathy in the hope that students would open up and talk to him. This was important for students they perceived to not be used to speaking English in the Thai EFL context, and who might be feeling uncomfortable and unwilling to speak English in class (SR4). As Ramgopal pointed out:

> …even though I have told them to speak only in English, they are just used to talking in their own language…I shouldn't say [it's] culture, but [it's] Thai way of being attached to the [Thai] language… They aren't not used to it [speaking in English]. I don't blame them because, from childhood, they talk only in Thai…They feel a little bit uncomfortable speaking in English… we should understand that it is their natural instinct to talk in Thai so we need to consistently remind them to be patient, more calm [when speaking in English]…(SR2)

Dara expressed a similar view but added that his slightly comical Thai accent could create a friendly atmosphere and make students "not afraid of me so they approach me. They ask me" (SR2). What is interesting is the apparent contradiction between using Thai and having an English-only policy. However, this seems no longer contradictory when Ramgopal stated that "we have to let them know that this is English class, not Thai class, but we add some Thai [words] like that to motivate them" (SR4). Likewise, Dara commented that "I want to speak Thai a little bit so that I can talk to you because you always want to speak in Thai. ใช่ไหม <right?> เรียนภาษาอังกฤษ พูดภาษาไทย < Learn English. Speak Thai >" (OB1). Although the message conveyed seemed ambiguous with regard to whether he approved of the use of Thai or not, it seems likely that this was uttered ironically as he questioned the advisability of speaking Thai when studying English (SR1). Chomkwan reported that she forced[17] students to speak English when students were on a speaking task but allowed them to speak Thai among themselves when off-task because "it feels weird if Thai people speak English to one another" (SR1).

Reza reported using Thai slang to bond with specific groups of students whom he assumed were likely to use such language. He added that he did not use these words indiscriminately, but merged them with the examples he gave, prompted by taught content (SR1). In addition, Ramgopal regarded proximity as conducive to closer teacher–student relations, and therefore invited students to move forwards to the front seats: "You can come inside…Don't worry…Relax…สบาย สบาย < relax; relax>. Come on…That's better now so I can see all of you face - to- face. No more hiding, right? " (OB1).

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[17] This is Chomkwan's own word since she code-switched into English.

Asserting the teacher's authority

In contrast to the need to close the teacher–student gap, all participants viewed the authority of the teacher as being indispensable to successful teaching. For instance, Reza reflected that although he used slang to build rapport, he needed to create a zone where students respected him. He gave as an example of his success in doing this students' respectful behaviours in Thai culture such as addressing him as พี่ <brother> or อาจารย์ <teacher>[18] and doing the Wai (SR2).

He also revealed how typical teaching practice can be embedded with the aim of maintaining students' respectful attitude toward him. He explained why he pointed out to students the phonetic description for the entry "refrigerator" in an on-line dictionary in order to assert his authority of knowledge (OB1):

> I am a novice teacher…With the way I pronounce it, I heard some students say [to their friend] hey, it is pronounced like this… We should maintain our status as a teacher…The student had doubt in me for sure. It was a way I protected myself (SR1).

As can be seen, Reza not only intended to teach pronunciation, but also to confirm that he had pronounced the word correctly after overhearing the student's comment. He therefore asserted the authority of his knowledge in an implicit way to clear students' doubts, especially in the light of his "novice teacher" status. Chomkwan also reflected that some distance between her and her students needed to be maintained for effective classroom management. She stated that if she had a too close and friend-like relationship with them, "it is so tiring for the teacher before they stop talking. They will compete in speaking with the teacher…It is not that they are being disrespectful but they have a lot of ideas they want to share…it takes a long time to get their attention back to the lesson" (SR4). Once again, the moral value of respect emerged. It is interesting to note that neither silence due to too distant a relationship nor over-participation due to too close a relationship was desirable for Chomkwan.

Teaching practices focusing on fairness

All participants described a number of teaching practices underpinned by the value of fairness. While they often talked about it as a self-evident principle without giving any justification, Ramgopal revealed how it affected teacher–student relations when he reflected on why he had asked the whole class to vote for the best group presentation (OB4):

> If I give my own judgement, some could be upset or they feel like the teacher is biased…I can also just skip them….but it is also important to students to know to acknowledge that my friends appreciate my acting…The teacher does not simply

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[18] It is impolite to address the teacher only by their names. The term Ajarn - literally translated as teacher - is often used before the name.

pinpoint and choose his or her own so I allow them to choose which group they think is best for today so I think it was fair. I don't want to suppress anyone in a way but there should be first, second, third, right? (SR4)

In the excerpt above, Ramgopal suggested that there is tension between giving an evaluation that inevitably suppresses someone, the importance of congratulating those who perform well, the importance of friends appreciating each other, and the need to maintain fairness on the part of the teacher. To resolve this, he therefore asked the whole class to vote to avoid appearing biased, which could have harmed students' sense of unity. Another shared teaching practice by all participants was rotation - for example, asking students to pass a microphone or pinpointing different students to contribute answers or suggestions. However, only Chomkwan and Ramgopal explicitly stated how rotation was meant to give everyone an equal chance. Chomkwan (SR1) and Ramgopal (SR4) explained that they pinpointed particular students to give everyone an equal chance to participate. For the same reason, Ramgopal asked presenting groups to select a new group leader (OB2). He also announced that, for the group presentation activity, "each member has to take an equal role" (OB2).

Randomness was highlighted by Ramgopal, Dara and Reza, and also had the aim of ensuring fairness. For example, Ramgopal instructed each group to pick a presentation topic at random (OB2). Dara required students to draw a group name or number sight unseen to decide the order of presenting groups for the upcoming role-play examination (OB3). They all pointed out that this was fair to students. Dara and Reza added that a random draw could deter student complaints, implying its role to sustain healthy teacher–student relations and for classroom management. Furthermore, Reza and Dara reflected how fairness underpinned checking class attendance practices. Reza called out students' names to check class attendance early on in the lesson, rather than the customary circulation of an attendance sheet for students to sign (OB4), because he believed the latter was unfair, since late students could still sign their names (SR4). Similarly, Dara reported making efforts to catch students who cheated by signing class attendance sheets for their friends (SR1).

4.2.3 *Practices fostering moral values as an end goal*

Ramgopal, Reza and Dara revealed attempts to foster certain desirable values and emotions such as self-confidence, responsibility and ethics. For instance, Ramgopal and Reza believed that subjecting students to a manageable degree of anxiety could help students overcome it. Ramgopal reflected on observed episodes that he called on particular students to answer questions in class, and organized a group presentation activity in order to develop their confidence, leadership qualities and personality (SR1; SR4). Likewise, Reza wanted to

encourage his students to become less shy, and therefore called some of them out to speak to the whole class (OB2; SR2).

All three participants commented on a number of moral values. Reza saw giving class attendance scores as a way of acknowledging student responsibility (SR2). It is within this context that Reza stated that he felt the subject English could do more to develop human qualities, ethics, and morality, but that he was uncertain how to implement this. While teaching the language function of offering, accepting and declining help, Dara highlighted that "So here. This is we call sociocultural norms. Okay? Because it is [our] culture. If someone offers something, you should say thank you. Here either accept or decline…" (OB4). It was also within this context that Dara reflected how compassion and the value of helping others underpinned this language function. Yet, he did not explicitly point out the encoded moral values, possibly because they might be well developed in adult learners and therefore the task was to teach the language to do this, as is implied by Dara's statement that "that's the way people do it".

In contrast to the other teachers, Ramgopal saw the imparting of moral values as the absolute core of his teaching and his mission, and the observational data provide evidence for this viewpoint. For instance, prompted by the vocabulary "happiness", Ramgopal added "so happiness. So, make people happy. Do smile. Do give good comments. So, if you're happy, make others feel happy" (OB1). In a listening and speaking class on the topic "People We Admire", he introduced six historical figures who were "admired the world over even after they died". He then encouraged students to do good things so that they would be remembered. In the last communicative speaking activity, Ramgopal chose Princess Diana to model the discussion about historical figures prompted by the textbook that "She is beautiful, not just on the face. She is beautiful also inside. So I admire her…She went to Africa, everywhere in the world, and helped people…talked and helped people with HIV…orphans…prostitutes…That's why the whole world mourned her death…" (OB4). In a culture class on the topic of Vietnam, Ramgopal greeted students, complimented them on looking handsome and beautiful, asked about the world's population, and endorsed the value that "among those, there is only one - that's you and so you are very, very special. That's why you ought to take yourself that you are special and never put yourself down…so today you need love." He then linked this to the topic of Vietnam by stating that Vietnam lost love during the Vietnam War, before asking students to sing and act out the song "L.O.V.E.", which promoted love (OB2). He revealed the reason why he chose Vietnam War as the topic of the lesson- a topic perceived as appropriate to discuss in the classroom but potentially inappropriate outside class:

Talking about the weakness [or] the bad experience happened to each country is not good. But if we teachers do not tell them, how will they know?...it is not good to talk about Vietnam War, but the whole world know. So I need to remind and tell them so they think oh they feel that it could happen to us. [Students feel] so sorry it happened to them so they will sympathize. They have love, you see. Care and the nature of being so lovely to others. In fact, we [teachers] should show them. Don't tell. Show them with love and care…It's best to tell them in the class – black and white…it's important for teachers to integrate the right message [and] the right content…and instruct them what to do, what not to say, what to say outside (SR2).

4.3   Discussion

Affective considerations were found to be a central concern in the conception, organization and delivery of L2 instruction by all four teachers in the study. Addressing affective issues was a complex, interactive process. Teachers constantly evaluated teaching from the viewpoint of learners by predicting and interpreting their affective responses. Although complex and dynamic, their considerations in this area can be discussed under three main headings: *the principle of fostering affect to promote language learning*, *the principle of fostering relations*, and t*he principle of fostering moral values*. These principles individually and in combination underpinned myriad teaching practices. This section discusses the key findings in relation to existing literature in ELT.

4.3.1   *The importance of accommodating learners' affect in ELT*

Whose responsibility it is to motivate learners is a valid question (Dörnyei, 2001) and teachers' beliefs will possibly influence their motivational teaching practices (Lamb, 2017). In this regard, all four participants held complex beliefs about the roles of affect in L2 learning and teaching, and were willing to take on the responsibility for promoting productive affective states in learners. They did not just passively observe, but actively facilitated the development of learners' productive attitudes and feelings in various ways. It can therefore be inferred that they did not have "a fixed mindset" (Lamb, 2017) or the belief that learners' affect was not amenable to teachers' influences. Along with previous studies (e.g. Breen et al., 2001; Richards, 1996; Senior, 2006; Wette, 2009), this study adds further evidence that language teachers think a great deal about learners' affective responses to language instruction and learning and attempt to promote affect conducive to language learning – a teaching principle recommended by a number of scholars (e.g. H. D. Brown, 2007a; Ellis, 2005; Nation & Macalister, 2009; Tomlinson, 2013).

Teachers' frequent comments about learners' negative affective responses are perhaps unsurprising, since it is generally accepted that many aspects of language learning can create anxiety (e.g. Arnold & Brown, 1999; Ellis, 2012; Tudor, 1996; Wright, 2005). It is also evident that they were aware of a wide range of positive and negative emotions affecting learners in the course of their lessons. They looked for positive emotional cues such as laughter, fun, surprise and relaxation that suggested that instruction was being positively received. They also detected negative emotional cues that might explain learners' silence and withdrawal such as boredom, anxiety and shyness. These emotional cues provided them a window to assess their learners' engagement with the learning process, learners' success and struggles in learning, and when and how they should intervene in the learning process and adjust instruction to better suit learners' affective needs (Nunan, 1988; Swain, 2013; Tudor, 1996, 2003; Wette, 2009).

The study found that all teachers considered a wide range of immediate contextual factors in the classroom that might have an impact on learners' affect, such as teaching materials, learning activities, classroom procedures, and classroom atmosphere. However, they also attended to more distal factors that shaped learners' affect such as personality traits, and negative past language learning experience. This resonates with the recommendations that teachers should prioritize transient influences in the classroom, while not neglecting distant factors that are more resistant to change (Dörnyei, 2001; Gregersen & MacIntyre, 2014; Williams & Burden, 1997). Because teachers have autonomy and control over the instructional level of curriculum more than other components of the course (Dörnyei, 2001; Nation & Macalister, 2009), this may explain why they focused a great deal on the immediate classroom environment when accommodating learners' affect. They also showed an awareness that affect could be shaped by the social context (Benesch, 2012; Ushioda, 2009), and took into account social and relational factors such as teacher–student and student–student relations, local Thai cultures and social values such as respect. Therefore, it can be said that the teachers treated learners as human beings and responded to them as "emotional, moral, social, and cultural as well as cognitive beings" (Rosiek, 2003, p. 411). Within language teaching, the importance of treating learners as more than just cognitive beings has long been advocated by the humanistic movement (Stevick, 1990), learner-centered approach (Nunan, 1988; Tudor, 1996), and ecological and social perspectives (Breen, 1985, 2003).

A more comprehensive understanding of language teachers and teaching can be achieved if teachers' own conceptions of language learning as emotional undertaking are taken into account. This is particularly important when teachers' knowledge about students' emotions (i.e. affective considerations) can mediate and be inextricably linked to what may be perceived as

the cognitive side of teachers' work such as taught content and curriculum (i.e. pedagogical considerations), to the extent that the emotional and cognitive dimensions of teaching are inseparable (Hargreaves, 1998, 2000; Rosiek, 2003; Zembylas, 2007). A prime example is when Reza oriented students' attention to the phonetic description of the target word "refrigerator" in order to dispel a student's doubts about his own pronunciation as the teacher and to maintain professional credibility (i.e. an affective goal) rather than to teach the class pronunciation explicitly (i.e. a pedagogical goal). Ample evidence has also been provided to show that participants adjusted instructional content to help students connect emotionally to it, or what Rosiek (2003) calls *emotional scaffolding*, which can be defined as an attempt by teachers to influence students' emotional responses to some aspects of the subject matter to promote learning. I now discuss the three main principles that capture the essence of the participants' beliefs about the roles affect plays in language learning and teaching.

4.3.2   *The three principles of attending to learners' affect*

Despite the complexities of the beliefs and knowledge participants held about the roles of affect, my analysis revealed three main principles that guided their affective teaching practices: the principle of fostering affect to promote language learning, the principle of fostering classroom relations, and the principle of fostering morals as an end goal. The first two principles held by all participants reflect a "weak" version of affect in educational practice because they aim to create optimal emotional conditions that facilitate effective language learning and teaching (Wright, 2005). The latter held with different conviction by Ramgopal, Reza, and Dara reflects a "strong" version, because it aims to foster human values so that students can reach their full human potential (Wright, 2005).

The principle of fostering affect to promote language learning

All participants similarly viewed positive emotions as far more productive in language learning and teaching than negative ones, and therefore attempted to promote the former and reduce the latter. They all wished to create a relaxing, secure, and supportive learning atmosphere – a view resonating with previous findings (e.g. Senior, 2006; Wette, 2009) and general scholarly recommendations that endorse the benefits of positive affect (Arnold & Brown, 1999; Dewaele, 2012; Gregersen & MacIntyre, 2014). This seems unsurprising since a relaxed and supportive classroom atmosphere is considered as a basic condition of any motivating language classroom (Dörnyei, 2001). Nevertheless, they all showed a nuanced understanding of affect that does not exactly equate to fostering positive emotions to language learning in general.

Participants described facilitative and causative roles of affect that are supported by existing literature. For example, they believed that anxiety and shyness can make students become

reluctant to speak in front of the class (Gregersen & MacIntyre, 2014). They also believed that affect can reciprocally interact and interfere with mental/cognitive functions such as retention and attention, and that negative feelings/emotions can be both a possible cause and a consequence of cognitive difficulties and poor language performance (H. D. Brown, 2007a; Gregersen & MacIntyre, 2014). For instance, all believed that students' low proficiency or their inability to comprehend the lesson could cause them to feel anxious, while anxiety could also be an emotional response to many triggers such as error correction or an overly demanding task.

However, participants in this study did not regard having fun as an essential pre-requisite for an instructional event and for language learning to be possible. Evidence of this belief is their awareness that learning involved venturing out of one's comfort zone (Swain, 2013), and they utilized facilitating anxiety (H. D. Brown, 2007a; Ellis, 2012; Oxford, 1990, 1999) to gently and sensitively push reluctant students to participate and expend more learning effort when a lot of support was already in place. For instance, all participants set an achievable challenge by providing conversation models and sufficient practice and wait time were given before students were called on. Reza and Chomkwan also showed sensitivity to students' negative past language learning experience as a factor to determine how much they could pressure students to participate. As Reza made clear, not all students enjoyed being pushed out of their comfort zone to the same extent, and a balance needed to be struck so that students were not pushed too far. With direct contact with students, these teachers had the advantage of being able to directly observe students' immediate affective responses when negative pressure was applied, therefore adjusting their instruction sensitively to learners' subjective needs.

The principle of fostering relations
All participants in this study acknowledged the importance of positive relations in sustaining a productive classroom atmosphere for effective language teaching and learning – a shared view that echoes previous findings from language teachers across different contexts (Cheng & Dörnyei, 2007; Dörnyei & Csizér, 1998; Guilloteaux, 2013; Senior, 2006; Wette, 2009) and scholarly recommendations (e.g. H. D. Brown, 2007a; Dörnyei, 2001; Gregersen & MacIntyre, 2014; Lamb, 2017; J. C. Richards, 2015; Wright, 2005). Regarding teacher–student relations, they all stressed the need to close the social distance due to differential teacher–student status by conveying approachability and friendliness, since their higher status could trigger learners' anxiety. Lamb (2017) agrees, pointing out that a distant teacher can be a demotivating presence in the classroom. In contrast, all participants emphasized the need to keep some social distance and assert teacher authority for effective classroom management (J. C. Richards, 2015) and the maintenance of professional credibility. Once again, teachers in the study strove for an optimal

balance, which confirms previous findings (Johnston, 2003; Senior, 2006) that language teachers trend a careful line between displaying approachability to build solidarity with their students, while maintaining professional credibility and students' respect. The episode where Reza attempt to dispel a student's doubt in his pronunciation is a reminder that teacher authority is not only a given, but also something a teacher cannot take for granted, but must strive to achieve and maintain.

Similar to Senior's (2006) and Wette's (2009) findings, positive peer relations and group cohesiveness were perceived by all participants as equally important to fostering a supportive classroom atmosphere (Gregersen & MacIntyre, 2014; J. C. Richards, 2015). They believed that positive peer relations could motivate students to speak more since it increased a sense of security and decreased communication apprehension. Interestingly, teachers' belief in unity and group cohesion did not always mean that there should be no competitiveness in this group of young adult learners. Ramgopal explicitly endorsed "a healthy competition", while others used different kinds of competitive, game-like activities. An optimal balance between cohesion and competition was once again the goal that teachers tried to achieve. This resembles the kind of "competition within cooperation", which has a high motivational value (Lamb, 2017).

My analysis revealed that when the participants talked about classroom relations, they often referred to moral values such as trust, friendliness, cooperation, respect, care, equity, empathy and fairness that they wished to convey to learners. This relational, moral-laden view finds support from humanistic principles (Stevick, 1990), and the literature on values in ELT, since Johnston (2003) contends that language teachers rely on these subtle moral values conveyed to students to be liked by them. They also revealed that their personal qualities such as humour, tact, calmness, patience, and humbleness could help them establish ties with learners (Lamb, 2017; J. C. Richards, 2015; Wright, 2005). Furthermore, participants paid attention to how local culture shapes classroom relations, especially when they attributed students' silence to asymmetrical teacher–student relations and a sign of respect and politeness. Silence was interpreted by the participants as a face-saving strategy for weak students who did not want to appear to be poor learners, and for strong students not to appear as show-offs, dominating or challenging the teacher. This view is supported by scholarly literature in which teachers are advised to consider how different cultural contexts differ in the ways that respect, submission to teachers and politeness are expressed (Arnold & Brown, 1999; H. D. Brown, 2007a; J. C. Richards, 2015) and to be aware that the relationship between learning activities and students' affective responses involves the concept of "face" (Wright, 2005). It is interesting to see that

participants both accommodated and gently challenged perceived local culture to push reluctant students to break silence.

The principle of fostering moral values

Participants revealed attempts to build personality factors such as self-confidence and responsibility that would be conducive to language learning. Echoing previous findings (Le Ha & Van Que, 2006; Mangubhai, 2007), Ramgopal and Reza explicitly endorsed the teacher role as a moral guide to help learners become ethical and compassionate human beings, while Dara seemed to view this role peripherally. However, only Ramgopal was observed to implement the goal and departed moral messages such as one should love and make others happy, one should not look down on one's self, and that one should help others – especially vulnerable others. This finding and the moral-laden relations discussed in the previous section confirms the view that language teachers' personal moral values can exert influences on English language teaching (Crookes, 2009; Johnston, 2003). In ELT, the "strong" version of affect can find support from humanistic and critical approaches to language teaching. For instance, Arnold and Brown (1999) recommend teachers to attend to both affective and cognitive needs in order to "educate learners to live more satisfy lives and to be responsible members of society" (p.3), while Byram (2002) states that both political and moral education should be incorporated into language classrooms for the betterment of society.

4.3.3   *Affective teaching practices*

This study describes how the three principles underpinned myriad teaching practices in great detail. It confirms scholarly speculation that accommodating learners' affective needs in actual practice are complex, dynamic, and not straightforward (Tudor, 1996, 2003; Ellis, 2012; Lamb, 2017). Dynamism comes not only from a wide range of factors to be considered and various teaching practices deployed to better suit learners' shifting emotional states, but also from their attempts to strike an optimal balance between facilitative positive and negative affect and appropriate teacher–student social distance, which requires flexibility and recognition of human differences on the part of the teachers. These negotiations for optimal balances were documented by Senior's (2006) "principle of balance" and Johnston's (2003) "dilemmas". While this study confirms the perceived utmost importance of positive affect, which should always be present, it does not sit well with the recommendations that categorize affect into fixed categories of good and bad emotions, and endorse teaching practices that have the exclusive aim of fostering positive affect as the only condition for language learning to take place. Some scholars (e.g. Benesch, 2012; Swain, 2013) have critiqued the idea of sorting emotions into fixed categories of "good" and "bad" emotions for language learning.

The study also confirms speculation that, unlike researchers, language teachers approach affective aspects of teaching holistically (Ellis, 2012; Gregersen & MacIntyre, 2014; Tudor, 2003). It is therefore difficult to trace back specific affective constructs to examine how they are reflected in particular practices. Interestingly, the dividing line between the more "rational" conception of affect and the more "philosophical" and "value-laden" conceptions of affect merged in the actual practices of these teachers. On the one hand, they held personal, practical theories that rationalize the interplay between learners' affect, teaching, and language learning outcomes. On the other hand, they adhered to moral values that learners should be treated with care. Teachers' "rational" and "moral" decisions merged and exerted strong influences on their affective teaching practices in complex and dynamic ways.

Rosiek (2003) categorizes emotional scaffolding practices into explicit and implicit categories. The study found that all participants primarily attended to affect implicitly through identifying (un)productive emotional triggers, and adjusting instructional practices to maximize productive ones and lessen unproductive ones. Teachers made explicit comments about learners' affect in the classroom only when they wished to raise students' affective states (e.g. Reza teasing students not to make a bored face) and when they wanted to impart certain values or beliefs (e.g. Ramgopal's ethical lessons). Nevertheless, in both cases, these implicit and explicit practices were closely tied to or prompted by the taught content and lesson goals. The teachers did not invite learners to talk about their own emotions and share them with others in a separate session, as recommended by scholars such as Gregersen and MacIntyre (2014), who recommend an activity where learners are asked to rank anxiety triggers from high to low, practice relaxation techniques, and imagine being exposed to these triggers while trying to be relaxed. In light of previous studies (e.g. Senior, 2006; Wette, 2009), study findings show that implicit means were preferred by these language teachers.

Most of the observed teaching practices confirm scholarly recommendations (see Appendix J). However, insights about teaching practices that emerged from this study provide evidence of how the teachers drew on their own and students' linguistic and cultural repertoires to bond with students. For instance, Reza reported using Thai slang to bond with specific groups of students. Both Ramgopal and Dara perceived their "humorous" foreign Thai accents positively because it made students laugh, feel relaxed, and not afraid of the teachers. Dara also drew on his own L1 (Cambodian language), while Ramgopal drew on Thai culture to enact the Wai. Shared cultures were also drawn on by Chomkwan to make jokes. These examples clearly show that teachers drew on their knowledge of their own and students' specific local contexts in attending to affect.

4.4 Chapter summary

This chapter has demonstrated that the teachers conceptualize English language teaching and learning as an emotional and strongly relational undertaking. They considered it their responsibility to enhance learners' emotional responses to English language learning with three main guiding principles: fostering affect to promote language learning; fostering supportive classroom relations; and fostering moral values. These principles underpinned teaching practices in complex and dynamic ways. The account offered in this chapter goes beyond teachers' rational and objective calculation of how to attend to learners' affective needs, and includes their moral values such as empathy, cooperation, and respect. Attending to affect also requires knowledge of the local context, ranging from a good understanding of students as unique individuals and as a collective group to a knowledge of socio-cultural norms operating inside and outside the classroom, especially in Thai and Asian contexts.

Evidence of how teachers' affective considerations are inextricably linked to their pedagogical considerations has been provided. The next chapter moves on to examine core principles and practices underpinned by teachers' pedagogical considerations. It reveals their assumptions about the subject matter of English and how to teach it to optimize L2 learning. Teachers' ability to meet learners' language learning needs is therefore another fundamental component of the practical, professional knowledge of these language teachers.

Chapter 5
Pedagogical Considerations in ELT

> I cannot imagine how any teacher could operate without taking into such [language] classrooms a set of understanding and beliefs not only about how languages can be and are learnt, but also how and what teaching is all about.
>
> (Harmer, 2003, p. 288)

This chapter further explores participants' pedagogical considerations concerning how an L2 should be taught and presented to learners. In addition to affect-related pedagogic principles discussed in the previous chapter, participants revealed cognitive and other principles that aimed to facilitate students' L2 learning, including assumptions about the nature of language, teaching approaches, and contextual awareness. This resonates with Harmer's assertion (2003) above that their beliefs about "how languages can be and are learnt" and "how and what teaching is all about" remain essential aspects of language teachers' professional lives.

This chapter addresses Research Question 2 that focuses on how the participants' core principles and practices are underpinned by their pedagogical considerations. It also addresses part of Research Question 3 by showing how contexts influence teachers' pedagogic principles and practices. The data reported here emerged inductively from semi-structured interviews exploring participants' past L2 learning experiences, stimulated recall interviews eliciting rationales behind their practices, and observations. Participants were free to articulate any principle guiding any aspect of their practices with no requirement to reflect on any pre-constructed frameworks or established teaching methodology since, as Borg and Burns (2008) point out, theorists' formal frameworks mapped onto teachers' pedagogies "may very often not be isomorphic with the personal practical pedagogical systems through which teachers make sense of their work" (p. 480). This chapter first presents participants' principles, followed by descriptions of the observed lessons and the principles guiding each stage of the lessons. It ends with a discussion of the findings in relation to the existing ELT literature.

5.1 Principles aimed to facilitate L2 learning processes

Participants reflected on various aspects of their teaching practices. Despite some idiosyncrasies with regard to the principles that teachers emphasized, participants shared many pedagogic principles, and these can be grouped under five major themes: those regarding traditional, communicative, and contextual approaches; linguistic accuracy and message comprehensibility; L2 cognitive learning processes; cooperative learning; and active involvement in learning.

5.1.1 Principles regarding traditional, communicative, and contextual approaches

Participants' views about traditional, communicative, and contextual approaches can be inferred from their accounts of objectives of the observed lessons and their past language learning and teacher training experience. All participants reported having learned English through both traditional and communicative approaches, expressed more favourable attitudes towards communicative approaches, and regarded instruction as being shaped by and needing to be responsive to learners and the local context. Since only Chomkwan and Dara explicitly referred to established methodology such as *CLT, grammar-translation* and *audio-lingualism*, the researcher was obliged to make inferences from interview statements and observed practices in order to map the descriptions onto the traditional–communicative approach continuum.

Assumptions about the nature of language

Participants often described the objectives of particular observed lessons in terms of target language forms (e.g. grammar and vocabulary) and/or language skills (e.g. listening and speaking) required to perform communicative functions (e.g. describing clothes and talking about one's interests) and/or in a situation (e.g. at a supermarket). This can be seen in these two examples:

> This one is about supermarket, right? This lesson tries to teach and connect learners' linguistic knowledge to the theme of supermarket, like what we can say in English in the context of supermarket. It tries to link language with learners' knowledge about vocabulary or situations related to the supermarket (Reza, SR1).

> I want the students to know basic sentence structures so that, in the end, they can apply them in communication…this gives them knowledge that they can put to use in the future when they meet a similar situation…[the lesson topic is] my interests with embedded grammar like Wh-questions and yes/no questions with the verb to be (Chomkwan, SR1).

It can reasonably be concluded from these excerpts that participants regarded the English language as both a linguistic system and a means of communication. While all participants emphasized contextualizing language lessons in terms of real-life situations, only Chomkwan explicitly referred to a functional, communicative view of language. She asserted that teachers should tell students what they could and could not say in a certain situation so that they "see both functional and grammatical aspects. Students must know that this sentence is used for what purpose [and] in what situation, what they should say in formal and informal situations" (SR4). Participants also described certain parts of the lesson as being related to teaching "culture" (Chomkwan, Ramgopal and Reza), "politeness" (Ramgopal and Chomkwan), and "socio-cultural norms" (Dara). This reveals an awareness of the communicative aspects of norms of usage and appropriateness for specific social contexts.

Attitudes towards traditional language learning and teaching approaches

Chomkwan, Dara, and Reza recollected that English was largely taught traditionally in their primary and secondary years in Thai and Cambodian EFL contexts where English was a school subject. Unlike the other teachers, Ramgopal was educated in an Indian ESL context where English was the medium of instruction for many school subjects; however, he pointed out that the language components of the subject English were taught traditionally. Ramgopal, Chomkwan and Dara reported that grammar was the main focus of these lessons, while for Reza, speaking drills were heavily emphasized. Chomkwan, Dara and Reza noted that local languages were often used as the medium of instruction, and speaking and oral interaction skills were largely ignored. Statements by Reza and Dara implied that rote and passive language learning featured strongly in these lessons:

> During my secondary years, it was more about drilling. It was not interactive English communication, but rather repeating everything after the teacher. It was rare for me to think. I mean…there was no discussion…just drilling…listen and repeat after the teacher for the whole semester... (Reza, SS)

> Teachers taught me…[using a] traditional method. I just learnt and copied. No speaking at all…In Cambodia, teachers they just, you know, followed the lesson. They're kinda slaves to the book. So, they followed every step in the lesson and without taking more activities to explain…or to get students to speak…and the students were very passive…passive means the teachers they just followed all the steps and finished. They didn't get students to speak, or to move around the class, or work in groups or in pairs… (Dara, SS)

All participants expressed unfavourable attitudes towards these traditional approaches to language learning. Dara was the most explicit, labelling grammar translation as "traditional", "very old", "ineffective", and "outdated" (SS). Ramgopal described his past learning experiences with grammar as difficult (SS), and Reza stated he found drilling very boring (SS), although both participants pointed out that these methods could be beneficial in certain areas such as pronunciation and grammar. Chomkwan (SS) and Dara (SS) similarly emphasized that traditional methods did not offer students opportunities to apply what they learnt into authentic communication through speaking. For instance, Chomkwan stated that "if CLT is not used, students have to learn English through grammar translation or audio -lingual. They don't have a chance to practice speaking – real speaking" (SS). Reza reflected that learning through drills had caused him to rely on memorization:

> I used to rely on what they call memory strategies, which mainly involved memorization…Then I realized that I had a lot of weaknesses because I used only memory strategies so I had to compensate this by incorporating other strategies like planning my learning to progress through each proficiency level… (SS)

Dara and Reza revealed that traditional types of pedagogy were influenced by socio-economic and socio-cultural contexts. Dara expressed dissatisfaction with his past language teachers who "just follow the way they learned from their old teachers" and "didn't care" about students' progress, but also expressed sympathy for their situation, noting that, "I would not blame them because, in Cambodia, teachers are low paid, and they have another job on the site…". He also pointed out that teachers in the capital city of Phnom Penh used English more as a medium of instruction than those working in remote areas (SS). Drawing on his past experience and his Master's thesis, Reza commented extensively on the unique situation of linguistic and religious minority teachers and students in *Pondok*, the non-mainstream Muslim school he had attended. He believed that these students relied on memory strategies to learn English because of the difficulties involved in learning English through a second language (Thai) rather than their first language (the Pattani dialect of Malay language), as well as memory strategies that were promoted when they studied the Quran. He also added that the teachers were poorly paid and had to work on the rubber plantations to supplement their income, since they were obliged to share their salaries with Islamic Studies teachers who did not receive any income from the Thai government (SS). These accounts revealed the extent to which socio-cultural and socio-economic inequities can affect language teachers' experiences as language learners, as well as their professional commitment and their pedagogical choices.

Attitudes towards communicative language teaching and learning approaches

Dara, Reza and Chomkwan recounted that English was taught communicatively at the tertiary level in their home countries. Dara reported that, during his teacher education, he was trained in communicative approaches, combined with elements of the audio-lingual method. Chomkwan and Reza described the learning activities employed in these more communicative classes:

> During my university years, most assignments were presentations, right? Presentations through role-plays or using PowerPoints…there were written reports…If it was a writing course, topics would be assigned for us to write. If it was a translation course, the teachers asked us to read a lot of books to learn different language styles and then we had to translate a whole book…English was used as a main medium of instruction… (Chomkwan, SS)

> When I entered university, learning activities changed. There were class discussions. We had to discuss with friends. There were debates and the like. I feel that the learning style changed into that direction (Reza, SS).

When asked what they liked about their language classrooms as learners and how they practiced their English, all participants expressed a preference for communicative activities. Ramgopal enjoyed when his English literature teachers brought in "poetry…short stories, which are very inspiring, lively, and it brings us joys and our minds wander in the jungles" (SS). Chomkwan commented that: "I like it when teachers gave us a chance to express our creativity and ideas, and to practice speaking a lot" (SS). Similarly, Reza reported liking discussion activities in particular, since he was able to express his ideas (SS). All participants reported practicing English through authentic sources such as listening to news and watching TV programs. Reza remembered feeling that he needed to change his learning style from memory strategies to communicative ones:

> When I entered university, I started to feel that I could not cope. I could not catch up with my friends. So I changed my learning strategy. I liked to wake up in the morning to watch news for three or four minutes a day. It took me a year to catch up with my classmates (SS).

Dara explicitly described the communicative approach as "modern" and "more effective", stating a belief that "if I were taught in the way that I am teaching now, I would learn a lot more because in Cambodia, teachers taught me in a traditional way" (SS). Chomkwan noted that CLT mimicked authentic communication in real lives where a message was sent and received by two parties (SS; SR2). She also pointed out that CLT offered students speaking practices, and helped them to see a purpose for learning English (i.e. to communicate).

Attitudes towards "context-appropriate" approaches

All participants reported the need to adapt instruction to suit the local context. Chomkwan and Dara pointed out limitations of CLT with regard to context appropriateness: Chomkwan stated that CLT was appropriate only if teachers used it at the right time, and considered that it was less appropriate for weak students who "could not even form a sentence" (SR2). She also expressed a desire to be trained in teaching approaches that would suit local students since "there are many different approaches, right? But some are not suitable to Thai context" (SS). Dara recommended teachers to "localize, personalize and contextualize" (SS). He reported critiquing CLT in his MA thesis on account of its inappropriateness to Asian contexts, and argued for the incorporation of conversation analysis to address this limitation (SS). In his view, conversation analysis can serve as an instructional tool to raise students' awareness of moment-to-moment, genuine nature of interactions, which better prepared them to deal with "speaking problems" more effectively[19]. Dara also supported eclecticism in language teaching, as the first quotation shows. On more than one occasion, he reflected on using "a flexible teaching approach" that took context into account when designing one of the observed lessons, as the second quotation shows:

> CLT: some parts are good, but the thing is they [teachers] do not contextualize because most teachers are kinda slaved to the methods too…CLT in some countries is not effective…If teachers are not aware [and] if they just use it blindly, it is not good so that's why we have to use other methods to complement…I still remember what Nunan says – that CLT doesn't cover every context…so far there is no best approach. So a combination of approaches is the best method (SS).

> My approach is very flexible…I look at the goals and the purposes…the aims of the lesson and then I design…I take context into account…I know students' purposes and needs so I just expand from that and if I think that the activity in the lesson is not interesting, not really meaningful and doesn't apply to the context, students' needs…then I change it. I always change it according to the situations…always do and then it takes me a long time to prepare the lesson. It's not easy to come up with a good lesson or meaningful…and interactive activity. So, I have to think a lot and sometimes I consult many books – many teaching books… (SR4)

Reza, Chomkwan and Ramgopal all felt that each class of learners was different, and could not be taught in the same way. Reza reported as a problem the fact that some teaching techniques that worked well with one group of learners were quite ineffective for another, and he acknowledged the importance of the ability to "read" each class of students (SR2). Similarly,

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[19] This view is developed in a paper that he published with his supervisor, and he confirmed in a follow-up interview that he still holds this view. The paper cannot be cited due to confidentiality.

Chomkwan reported sensing a different dynamic in each group of learners, which prompted her to use different teaching techniques for the same topic (SR1). Ramgopal reflected that: "I may have a lesson plan but my lesson plan could change in the classroom depending on the students' behaviours and students' understanding level" (SR1). He also observed that in each class of learners there were different levels of responsiveness to taking up speaking opportunities, and compared the present observed lesson with "other sections [that] will gradually answer at the beginning of the class. They won't delay…It [responsiveness] also depends on the [proficiency] levels of students and the background [knowledge] also" (SR4). Another example of adjusting instruction to suit students can be found in teachers' consideration of their English proficiency levels. All participants stated that learners in different streams, majors, or within a particular class differed in terms of their English language proficiency, received instruction in different ways, and had different abilities to understand instruction. All teachers stated that this was an inherent feature of their lessons. For instance, Ramgopal reflected on his grammar instruction that "not all [students] will understand of course because they don't have the strong English background" (SR1). Dara expressed that this was an inevitable consequence of mixed-ability classes:

> I'm very happy [with how the class went] even though some students they cannot do [the activities]. I think, in general, it's like that, you know. Every class, there are some good students, some bad students. We cannot expect that all students get it all. I think this is a mixed ability…some students are very good. Some students are not that good. In general, however, I can see their improvements and students are learning…(SR4)

Instead of accepting this situation, all participants reflected on how to adapt their instruction to suit students' different levels of proficiency or understanding.

5.1.2 *Principles regarding linguistic accuracy and message comprehensibility*

Another issue raised by participants was the relative importance given to accuracy and message comprehensibility. While all participants attended to both, Dara, Reza and Chomkwan explicitly stated that they regarded message comprehensibility as more important than accuracy in speaking. Dara believed that vocabulary, pronunciation and grammar "must co-operate" when speaking (SR1; SR3; SR4); however, he attached the utmost importance to vocabulary and pronunciation because "without words, there is nothing to be said" and "if you pronounce it wrong, no one can understand you", while grammar mistakes could be tolerated since "if you make a mistake, in some cases, they still understand you" (SR1). He therefore prioritized message comprehensibility when he instructed students: "Don't let your mistakes break your conversation down" (OB1). Similarly, Reza believed that communicative goals could be

achieved when students "speak in whatever ways that send comprehensible messages to their peers without having to worry much about how to construct a sentence" (SR2). With regard to pronunciation, Chomkwan, Reza and Dara expressed similar views that prioritized intelligibility rather than a high degree of accuracy, as the quotations below shows. This belief is closely related to NES norms, which are explored further in the next chapter.

> …It is not necessary to pronounce like a native speaker, right? But we should emphasize to students that they pronounce correctly so that foreigners understand the word they pronounce. They should pronounce in a way that is intelligible (Chomkwan, SR4).

> …I am not serious about it [accent] *as long as it could promote comprehensibility among two interlocutors so it is not a big deal at all*[20]… (Reza, SR2)

Participants also revealed how contextual factors shaped this principle. Chomkwan noted the unique role of instruction, which set accuracy as a learning objective, and of her role as a teacher to offer this learning opportunity for developing accuracy. This is in contrast to how learners may use English outside the classroom: "it is their business when they use it in the future. I will not correct them like that outside [class]" (SR2). Similarly, Dara revealed how a shift of emphasis towards accuracy could occur within a single lesson; he stated that "first, when we teach [grammar], we have to put emphasis on accuracy, but when we speak, [it's] not really important" (SR1). Ramgopal and Reza took into account learners' proficiency levels and their purposes for learning English to determine how much emphasis should be placed on grammar. Ramgopal reflected that, unlike English majors, his students did not need grammar to be strongly emphasized (SR1), while Reza stated the opinion that the priority for low-proficient students who did not use English outside the classroom should be message comprehensibility rather than accuracy, since it took a long time to develop accuracy (SR1). Dara viewed mistakes as unavoidable, and believed that it was therefore unrealistic for teachers to "demand you have to speak 100% correct. No!" (SR1).

5.1.3   *Principles concerning cognitive L2 learning processes*

Cognitive principles relate mainly to intellectual and mental functions involved in L2 learning processes (H. D. Brown, 2007a). Participants believed that background knowledge, attention, revision, repetition, practice, L1 influences, exposure to English, peer cooperation and active involvement in learning could affect L2 learning.

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[20] The italicized phrase is not a translation since Reza code-switched into English.

The importance of background knowledge

All participants acknowledged the important role of background knowledge in language learning. Chomkwan and Dara pointed out that content that connected with students' background knowledge was easier to learn and retain. For instance, Chomkwan reflected with regard to de-contextualized grammar content that "students won't absorb it" and proposed that "we must link it to relevant [real-life] situations" (SR1). Similarly, Dara noted that target words that matched learners' real-life situations were easier to remember (SR2). Moreover, Ramgopal, Dara, and Chomkwan believed that whether students participated in a learning task also depended on their background knowledge. They pointed out that students were likely to be silent and unwilling to speak if topics were too unfamiliar. Reza (SR3) and Chomkwan (SR4) went on to highlight that activating students' background knowledge facilitated retrieval of relevant background knowledge, especially on topics that were rarely spoken about and were in danger of being forgotten, as can be seen in the two quotations below. Chomkwan also believed that differences in students' repositories of background knowledge resulted in different rates of language learning.

> I believe that many students have learnt it [the theme of hobbies] before. They already have *schema*[21] for it, but this part of their memory may not be retrived for a long time. This may be the case so I just activated their memory about hobbies a little bit (Reza, SR3).

> For some words or grammar points students already known or some sentences they can still remember, I just revise them a little bit, and some students could come right up and speak because of this long-held background knowledge. But when this background knowledge is rarely used, it may take time for them to think. Some students cannot remember anything at all (Chomkwan, SR4).

The importance of maintaining students' attention

All participants revealed that they had attempted to initiate and sustain students' attention and cognitive states such as focus, alertness, wakefulness (Ramgopal; Dara) and concentration (Ramgopal; Chomkwan) as well as to avoid learning distractions. Dara maintained that this principle was fundamental to his teaching, and stated that "this is my method. I always keep students…attentive" (SR1). In this context, participants were referring to general attentiveness to ensure that students were ready to learn, which was closely linked to learners' emotions and feelings, as can be seen in Ramgopal's reflection on a warm-up activity:

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[21] This is Reza's own word and is not a translation.

It [the activity] has much to do with attention [and] motivation and getting their thought straight…to let them be mentally prepared for the topic so they just came in the morning so I just want them to be awake, refreshed and relaxed. And get them into the topic. Just as a booster for their interests (SR2).

Another kind of attention refers to the selective awareness that directs learners to notice specific language items. While all participants talked about emphasizing and highlighting certain language items in the lesson, Dara and Chomkwan provided an explicit reason: that this helped students notice them, especially items that were easily overlooked. For instance, Dara reflected on conversational moves to make small talk that "this one you often see, but you don't take notice of it…Now I raise their awareness" (SR2). Similarly, Chomkwan decided to point out a rule about the use of a particular preposition because: "I predicted that students would make this mistake. From my own experience, I would not have known this if my teacher had not told me" (SR4).

The importance of revision and repetition

From participants' perspectives, what differentiated revision from repetition within a lesson was the time interval. Dara, Chomkwan and Reza similarly noted that revision aided retention of previously learnt material and was necessary, since students were required to take in and process a lot of information from other subjects within a week. In this regard, Reza reflected on his past learning experience:

…after my teacher taught me a lesson, I needed to wait for a week before I met the teacher again but [once met] it was a new lesson already. Within these six days before meeting the teacher again, our lives were bombarded with a wide range of things…I think my students will forget something, so I want to revise it (SR1).

Similarly, Chomkwan considered revision important because she observed that, although students could put a learnt expression into use within a lesson, they would forget about it in the next lesson (SR2; SR4). She asserted that "to learn English is to retain it and use it repeatedly so that you can remember it" (SR4), and pointed out that revision provided another learning opportunity for those who could not catch up with the lesson the first time (SR2). Dara highlighted that revision should also be a learners' responsibility as well when he stated that "they have learnt so they have to read it again. They cannot just come and study and then throw it away" (SR4).

All participants commented on repetition as a teaching strategy, and both Dara and Chomkwan explained its benefits. Similar to revision, repetition was believed by both participants to aid retention and improve fluency in speaking. For instance, Dara stated that "repetition makes them remember more. Okay. Make them fluent too, and it's very important" (SR4). Chomkwan added that repetition of target language items facilitated easy retrieval of these item for later use, and she stated that "some students might know them [target words], but they could not retrieve them, so I said these words repeatedly so they retained them in their head for easy retrieval" (SR1). She also added that repetitions could make certain aspects of language items salient and increase the chances of students noticing them (SR3). As discussed in the previous chapter, all participants believed that repetition needed to be balanced with variety to deter boredom.

The importance of practice

Practice was viewed by all participants as indispensable to language development. Ramgopal endorsed the view that learning English necessitates practice (SR4), and Dara stated that "I'm sure this is the best way to learn English – by introducing more examples and more practice" (SR2). Dara and Chomkwan believed that practice aided retention and increased fluency in speaking. For instance, Dara recommended that teachers ask students "to practice again and again so that they can remember… [and] improve fluency too" (SR2). Similarly, Chomkwan reported that "I got students to practice speaking because this helped them remember. Once they remember and continuing practicing it, this will turn into a skill" (SR4). She also noted that practice provided students with a deeper understanding (SR1), and that teachers could monitor learners' understanding through practice output (SR2).

Participants referred to both traditional and communicative practices. Chomkwan was the most explicit in comments about her lessons, which differentiated controlled from free activities (SR3). Dara appeared to be referring to controlled practice when he stated that the aim of practice was to familiarize students with the target form and "when they know this…they should be independent so they should do it without looking at it" (SR2). Less controlled, communicative practice was also implied when Dara stressed the importance of personalizing conversation so that students could use language creatively and be able to talk about themselves and others in situations relevant to their real lives (SR1; SR4). In the same way, Ramgopal commented that practice should not be "just one-sided with reciting and [memorizing] script", which implies the need to complement traditional practice with communicative opportunities (SS).

Chomkwan and Dara reported on the influence of their past learning experience and the Masters' programmes they had completed. Chomkwan reflected on her positive past experience with role-play practice and believed that students should gain some benefits from it the same way that she had, for example, being able to remember some sentence patterns and apply them when meeting a similar real-life situation (SR2). She also cited CLT (SR1) and the PPP cycle (SR3) as an influence on the move from controlled to freer practice. Dara (SS; SR4; SR5) reported adopting a "learning by doing approach", which emphasizes practice opportunities for students and discourages a teacher-centred approach where students sit silently with little involvement in the learning process:

> …I follow the philosophy learning by doing, yeah. That's one. I think it's very good because in the past, teachers, you know, just threw them [the taught content] like that. Just showed students like that and then students kept silent. But now I don't do that. I ask students…so they practice a lot more…(SR5)

The importance of the use of students' L1

All participants agreed that use of students' first language could facilitate English language learning. Translation of target vocabulary was viewed by all participants as an efficient means for low-proficient learners to grasp word meanings. For instance, Dara stated that "it can help the students too because sometimes if I explain in English all the time, some students, you know, their English levels are so low so the fast method is to translate it" (SR3). Similarly, Chomkwan explained that translation of target words could save time because it "makes students understand the meaning clearly. It is better than using an English definition because students may still not know what it means" (SR2). Dara stated a belief that a comparison between English words and the equivalents in the students' L1 could lead to deeper processing that aided retention, and stated that "students remember forever. They don't forget at all because we compare Thai and my language and then English" (SR1). Dara also used his native Cambodian language to compare and explain word meanings, on account of some similarities between Cambodian and Thai languages:

> I use Cambodian words too but they lead to the translation in Thai. So I think it's useful. Sometimes, I try my first language. Sometimes a little bit different, but it still makes sense. It's interesting, you know (SR4).

Chomkwan and Reza both pointed out that grammatical concepts were complex and difficult to comprehend, and therefore explanations of grammar in Thai were beneficial. Chomkwan believed that it was unnecessary to explain grammar in English, and reflected on her past teaching experience that "even with Thai explanations, some students still did not understand.

It would have been worse if I had explained it in English" (SR1). Reza expressed a similar view, but added that he wished to make grammar lessons easier to understand by using Thai, especially when difficulties from learning grammar could provoke anxiety:

> …Thai students feel most anxious about grammar…when we focus too much on grammar, we will go nowhere. It is as if we were locked in the cage. It will make us not confident to speak or do anything…I try to make grammar easiest although I know that grammar is not easy…I think that if I use two languages [Thai and English], students will understand better. (SR1)

Dara utilized positive transfer between Thai and English when he highlighted similar conversational moves in English and Thai (SR2). In contrast, all participants acknowledged negative transfer, especially concerning pronunciation and accent. Ramgopal was the most explicit when he stated that "the role of it [mother tongue] places an obstruction at times because of the accent" and recommended that "the sooner we understand the differences between our mother tongue and English when it comes to pronunciation, the better it is" (SR1). Chomkwan added that prepositions could be confusing for students because Thai and English prepositions were often different (SS). Beliefs about negative transfer are also closely linked with beliefs about NES norms – that is, it is assumed that bi-/multilingual English users should speak like NESs.

Participants commented on some of the contextual factors that guided their decision to use students' L1. First, it was preferred by all participants for teaching the subskills of grammar and vocabulary, but not for skills such as speaking. For instance, Chomkwan stated that "I think Thai language is beneficial to grammar instruction because students can understand the taught grammar immediately, but when it comes to the production stage, we can gradually switch to English. It's better" (SR2). Second, learners' low level of English proficiency clearly encouraged teachers to use their first language. For instance, Chomkwan stated that although she used translation to explain word meanings for weak students, she would use English definitions for English major students (SR2), and Thai for both groups to explain grammar (SR1). With mixed-ability classes, Chomkwan and Dara used Thai along with English to ensure that weaker students could catch up with the lesson:

> There are both strong and weak students in this room. If I speak English, okay, strong students can understand, but the weak ones will be puzzled because they cannot understand. I use translation to ensure that everyone understands and both [groups of students] can benefit from the lesson (Chomkwan, SR1).

I want to check [word] meanings…A number of students may know but some may not know so I try to emphasize by, you know, using the first language too so other students know (Dara, SR2).

Explicit and implicit feedback from students appeared to have reinforced teachers' beliefs. For example, Dara reported receiving written feedback asking him to explain more, which prompted him to reflect that "…because at the time I explained to them in English so they could not understand so I need to use more Thai" (SR5). Reza noticed that students immediately wrote down word meanings when he translated them, which encouraged him to do more as he reflected that "my intention is to let them learn some vocabulary. Many students wrote the words down" (SR4). Lastly, the non-Thai teachers' limited proficiency in Thai restricted its use in the classroom. Both Dara and Ramgopal (Cambodian and Indian in origin respectively) expressed a desire to have a good command of Thai. Both found it difficult at times to provide English definitions for the target words that were comprehensible to learners with limited proficiency:

Sometimes they could not understand and then I tried to come up with other words. It's difficult, you know. That's the problem I also have. I think I should know some Thai…more Thai language…to help my explanation (Dara, SR5).

I think it's best if we [English teachers] understand at least 40% of Thai because there are some terms where it is hard for them to understand so we have to use ภาษาไทย <Thai language> (Ramgopal, SR3).

The importance of exposure to English

All participants acknowledged that the amount of exposure time to the English language and opportunities to use it were crucial to language development. They all expressed the view that students lacked opportunities to use English outside class in the local Thai EFL context. For example, Reza emphasized the importance of exposure when he stated that "in just two hours [of an English lesson] a week, students will not acquire English at all. Once they step outside, they will forget. They don't have the context [to use English outside class], which is the most important factor". He also drew on his belief that his own English became "rustier" and less fluent when he did not use it for a week or so (SR3). Ramgopal also believed that students would forget what they had learned after a few weeks without continuing to practice (SR2). Chomkwan added: "my purpose in the classroom is to encourage them to participate in class [role-plays] as much as possible because of the Thai [EFL] situation, right? I can only maximize it [English use] in the classroom right? They will use Thai outside class" (SR3).

Dara and Ramgopal believed that they could create English immersion opportunities in the classroom through their English-only policy. Dara explicitly endorsed this as the best way to teach English, and hoped that "once they [students] are in the classroom, they feel as if they were in English environment in an English [-speaking] country". He pointed out that this helped students to pay attention to English rather than to their first language, and helped improve their listening skills as they needed to listen to his instructions in English (SR1). While Dara doubted if students would continue speaking English outside class (SR2), Ramgopal believed that this was possible if teachers exerted control of language use in the class:

> We should encourage them to speak English, not just in the classroom but the campus if possible…but it should start from the classroom. I believe that, if you cannot control students in the classroom talking English, you can never expect them to speak [English] after class. But if they have learned to …speak English only in the class, you and I will be surprised. Gradually, you will see them just having fun and talking outside in English (SR2).

Chomkwan also acknowledged the benefits of using English as a medium of instruction, but took a more nuanced position that "we have to consider which group of students, what subject, what topic, and what to emphasize. So I try to use both English and Thai" (SR1). Both Ramgopal and Dara also showed sensitivity towards the English-only policy in the classroom, since, as discussed in the previous chapter, they were aware that this could be a threatening experience for some students. Dara also believed that his English-only policy helped prepare his students to integrate into ASEAN community: "I don't see any reason why we cannot speak English in the classroom because ASEAN is coming so we need a fast approach to make them speak in a shorter time. That's one way we can do – use English in the classroom. It's the best thing" (SR1).

5.1.4 Principle of cooperative learning

Students' cooperation was viewed by all participants as facilitating English language learning. Chomkwan highlighted students' diversity as a strength rather than an obstacle when she stated that "there are different kinds of students, right? Some students may be good at speaking, while others are good at thinking and so on. Students can learn from these different peers" (SR1). All participants considered classroom interactions in which students learned from each other; for example, correcting each other's errors, sharing information, and exchanging opinions to be beneficial. While cooperative learning suggests interactions within smaller groups of students, Reza, Dara and Chomkwan pointed out that this could also take place as a whole class. For example, Reza directed the attention of the whole class to a picture on a PowerPoint slide and reflected that "I don't want students to pay attention to their textbooks only. For now, I wanted

the whole class to brainstorm [known words to describe the picture] and look at the same thing; the same focus" (SR1). Dara and Chomkwan suggested that cooperative learning could take a form of peer modeling, or using a student's contribution as a correct or inaccurate model for others. For instance, Dara, reflecting on learning opportunities afforded by learners' correct and incorrect answers, stated that "the whole class can understand this is the way they do…okay this is the correct answer and then if someone makes a mistake, okay, the same way the whole class will understand that this is wrong" (SR1).

5.1.5   *Principle of active involvement in learning*

All participants expressed views that favoured students' participation over non-participation and active learners over passive learners, defined as students who were cognitively engaged with a particular learning task. For instance, Reza expressed his concern about passive learners by saying that "the only thing I'm afraid of is that students will not think" (SR2). At other times, active learners were portrayed as those exhibiting extroverted behaviours such as not being silent, or being afraid of making a mistake, which suggests teachers' beliefs in the link between learners' affect and their language learning engagement and participation. Descriptions of more outgoing, risk-taking behaviours emerged most clearly when Dara and Ramgopal compared passive Thai students with the more active Cambodian and Indian students they had taught:

> Most [Thai] students were very passive…They never answer…Most of the time, you know, they keep quiet. They sit silently and then just listen. If they understand, they just nod their heads and sometimes shake [their heads] like that. No! You need to speak…Cambodian students are more active and more motivated. They tend to speak a lot and they kind of talkative. Sometimes they make mistakes but they don't care. They just speak it (Dara, SR1).

> …for Indians, they don't care about face, huh. Saving face. Sometimes, they will challenge the teacher. They even dare to raise their hands and they ask questions to the teacher but here you wouldn't find that… In fact, the teacher has to ask them. Go on. Ask questions (Ramgopal, SR1).

Participants also showed an awareness that students' passivity does not necessarily mean they are disengaged. For instance, as seen in the quotation above, Dara noted students' nods to signal their understanding of the lesson. Similarly, by looking into the eyes of these silent students, Ramgopal stated that "it's not that they don't know anything. I realize that they know but they just keep it to themselves" (SR1). However, participants also conceded difficulties of making valid generalizations about nationality groups or classes of students. For example, Dara hedged that "I don't know if it is typical for Thai students or not [to be passive learners]" (SR1), while

Chomkwan reflected that even within a single lesson, "there are some active learners and those who are more afraid" (SR4).

Only Ramgopal explicitly described active learners as those who directed their own learning. He reflected that although his students were cooperative, "they tend to stick onto the instruction", "prefer to be led [by the teacher]", and "don't want to explore and take initiatives or do by themselves" (SR2). He believed that instruction played a role in turning students into passive learners, especially when teachers "gave too many instructions that made students become robots" (SR4), and he endorsed activities-based teaching alongside what he called "the lecture method" (i.e. teacher-centred approach) as the first quotation shows. Dara also revealed his adherence to the maxim of promoting active learning as the second quotation shows:

> ...there should be an activity where students are made to have their groups...and let them do things by themselves...I like that method more than a lecture method [which] they [teachers] will tell the content. They will just explain the passages...and they will not give time for students to respond or to give a feedback or to ask question...but my way of teaching is a little bit of a mix because a lecture is very important. If we don't lecture, how can students understand?...But it should be more based on activities. (Ramgopal, SS).

> I follow Benjamin Franklin. He says, "tell me and I forget. Teach me. I may remember, but if you involve me, I learn"...I use that approach so in the class, students never keep silent. They need to talk to each other. They move around in my class. They speak all the time (Dara, SS).

In summary, teachers viewed an L2 as both a linguistic system and a means for communication. They emphasized accuracy, message comprehensibility, and fluency when teaching speaking skills. Analytical learning strategies such as explicit attention to language forms and rules, memorization, and repetition were deemed as facilitative to L2 learning, which could be consolidated through practice. Both controlled and free practice opportunities were viewed as useful for learners. All teachers anchored lessons within learners' background knowledge to create meaningful learning experience and to deter rote learning. While teacher authority and direct instruction were regarded as indispensable, active and cooperative learning were also deemed important. They attempted to maximize the advantages of using L1 and L2 in the classroom. All teachers highlighted the importance of adjusting instruction to suit a particular group of learners and local context. Their principles can be described as "eclectic" in the sense that they cannot be neatly mapped onto a single teaching method.

5.2 Pedagogic practices

Two broad patterns emerged when observed lessons were considered in relation to the analytic-experiential continuum (Littlewood, 2011, 2014; Stern, 1992; Tudor, 2001). Two lessons were examples of experiential L2 learning akin to a strong version of communicative approach, with an exclusive focus on communicating messages in English through tasks. The rest exemplified analytical L2 learning with a smaller proportion of experiential opportunities. Presentation, practice, and production sequences (P-P-P) underpinned these lessons in which English language system features were presented and practiced, with less emphasis on the production phase. Because teachers' principles cannot be inferred from observed practices alone, nor can stated principles accurately predict actual classroom behaviours (Breen et al., 2001), this section summarizes teaching practices alongside participants' principles revealed through stimulated recall interviews. Experiential, task-based lessons are presented first, followed by the more analytic, P-P-P lessons.

5.2.1 Experiential, task-based lessons

An experiential, task-based approach was evident in Ramgopal's two lessons for *International Communication* (OB2; OB4). This corresponds to his descriptions of the lessons' objectives:

> It's a culture course, but it's more on how to speak, talk English well by using or studying about the culture. It's not just about understanding the culture. It's more on how to communicate well in English (SR2).

Group presentations on the lesson topics of Vietnam (OB2) and Cultural Values (OB4) provided opportunities for genuine English communications. There was no prescribed textbook. Ramgopal adopted the role of negotiator, stating "I'm just there to facilitate" (SR2). The instructional sequences followed a pre-task, task, and post-task cycle.

Pre-task stage

Ramgopal introduced the lessons by stating lesson topics and/or aims. For instance, he introduced a cultural value pantomime presentation:

> This is the first time of its kind in this course where I ask my students to do a kind of pantomime. It is a kind of acting without talking…we are having this kind of presentation, not just to learn the culture, but also to learn how to be equipped with manner… (OB4).

He gave background information about the country of Vietnam: "This is one of ASEAN nations. It becomes very strong. It is about to compete even with Thailand" (OB2). Warm-up activities were used, which included singing and acting out the L.O.V.E. song and a cultural

quiz where groups competed to answer questions about Vietnam (OB2). Ramgopal reflected that he was preparing students to be ready for the upcoming lessons. He attempted to capture their attention, and "let them be ready mentally for the topic". Acting out the song was believed to make students alert, and the cultural quiz served as a "starter" for the upcoming activities and learners' cooperation (SR2). Therefore, the principle of maintaining learners' attention and the principle of cooperative learning underpinned this introductory stage.

Task phase

Group presentations took place in both lessons. Each group conducted research on a different topic about Vietnam, shared information within the group, and presented it before class (OB2). In another lesson (OB4), each group presented a pantomime video clip in which they acted out cultural values, followed by question and answer sessions (Q & A). The principles of cooperative learning and active involvement were major influences. Activities were designed to promote cooperative learning, since Ramgopal reflected that group members would have a variety of information about the topic to share and work together to come up with a presentation (SR2; SR4). This could prompt them to evaluate their own learning, as Ramgopal observed that "each student will understand where they stand. 'Oh, I'm weak so I'm better quiet and let's listen'" (SR2). He also adopted a facilitative role to promote active, autonomous learning. Viewing that his "passive" students "don't want to explore" (SR2), "take initiative" (SR2) and "do things by themselves" (SR2; SR4), he asked students to prepare presentations on their own, and observed a positive, gradual change towards more active learning (SR2). He associated passive learners with rote learning, and reported encouraging analytical thinking through Q&A sessions (SR2). Correspondingly, he recommended that students ask "something sensible and make your friends think and say", and encouraged cooperative learning that "ask[s] them [your friends] questions. Help your friends to develop so when you come here [to present], they will ask you, so it's like exchanging, right?" (OB4).

A communicative principle was enacted when Ramgopal reminded students not to rely on script memorization, but on communicating messages "as if it's like a story" (SR2). Correspondingly, he gave advice before the presentation task:

> Now I want you to try to learn to say as if you are telling a story, not as if you're trying to memorize what is in your script, okay? So whatever you have in your mind– the ideas – just say it out. Don't try to depend on the notes… (OB2)

Ramgopal prioritized message comprehensibility over accuracy in the belief that students' concerns about accuracy might make them worried and reluctant to participate as discussed in

the previous chapter. Ramgopal implemented the principle of English exposure by warning students not to speak Thai (OB2):

> I want to encourage students to start speaking in English in the classroom, and once they know how to discuss, how to share opinions in English, that's how the best English can start from there. If not [speaking English] after class, no way. I think they forget after a few weeks… (SR2)

Pantomime was used because students were "not up to that [proficiency] level where they can create and compose the script" in a short period of time (SR4). This may explain why he expected each presenter to say only a few sentences rather than speak in the long turns that are usual in formal speaking (Nation & Newton, 2009). The contextual principle was therefore in operation, since Ramgopal adjusted his instruction to suit students' proficiency.

Post-task stage

Feedback was given by Ramgopal (OB2) and elicited from students through a classroom vote for best presenting group, based on the criteria of clarity and content value as well as self-reflections on areas for improvement (OB4). He believed that feedback helped learners know whether they had done well and what they could improve (SR2). His feedback aimed at the content and style of their presentations without any attention to grammatical forms. He also gave a hand-out with information about Vietnam, (OB2), and explained that "I do not let them read and do in the class and waste time" (SR2). Class time was therefore devoted more to improve speaking skills and less on cultural content that learners could read on their own.

5.2.2   More analytic, PPP lessons

Based on prescribed commercial textbooks, these lessons had language-focused objectives aimed to develop speaking and/or listening skills and organized around themes, speech settings or language functions (see Table 5.1). As seen in Section 5.1.1, all teachers described lessons' objectives accordingly.

Table 5.1. Lesson topics and prescribed textbooks

Teachers	Topics	Textbooks
Ramgopal	Feeling (OB1) People we admire (OB3)	Talk time 2
Dara	People we admire (OB1) On vacation (OB2) Entertainment (OB3) That would be great. (OB4) Can I please…? (OB5)	Talk time 2 (OB1; OB2; OB3) Speak now: Level 3 (OB4; OB5)
Reza	At the supermarket (OB1) Clothes and colour (OB2) Hobbies (OB3)	Talk time 2
Chomkwan	My interests (OB1) Shopping (OB2) Apologizing (OB3) Thanking (OB4)	Four corners: Level 2 (OB1; OB2) Teachers' own compilations without identifying sources (OB3; OB4)

PPP underpinned the lesson structure. Presentation stage with explicit instruction of micro-language skills (e.g. vocabulary, grammar, pronunciation, and spoken expressions) and practice stage with controlled exercises dominated at the expense of production with independent activities. These lessons therefore offered an analytical language learning experience rather than an experiential one. Teachers followed PPP flexibly since they frequently changed the conventional sequence or skipped stages. For instance, rather than following a linear PPP when teaching vocabulary, teachers might begin with a word-definition matching exercise (i.e. practice) prior to explicit instruction of target words (i.e. presentation) followed by a tightly controlled speaking practice instead of proceeding to a production stage. Because language features and skills were often simultaneously taught or embedded in one another, it is difficult to demarcate precisely when instruction for a particular language feature or skill started and ended. However, it is possible to roughly determine what was being prioritized by relying on textbook content and teachers' signposts (e.g. "let's look at the grammar part") triangulated with stimulated recall interviews. Despite idiosyncrasies inherent in each class, these lessons can be divided into introduction, main lesson, and closing stages. Teaching practices in each stage are presented alongside principles participants attributed to certain practices but not others.

Introduction stage

All teachers introduced the lessons by stating the topics and aims, and directing learners' attention to language features of key terms especially topic titles. With regard to pronunciation, Ramgopal (OB1), Chomkwan (OB1) and Reza (OB1) asked students to listen to the teacher and then repeat the titles, while Reza first elicited which syllable was stressed (OB1). They all taught meanings of key terms. While Ramgopal offered English definitions, other teachers often relied on Thai translations. Dara was unique in contrasting English, Thai, and Cambodian equivalents. For instance, he elicited the meanings of "heroes" before noting the similarity between Thai and Cambodian words: "My language វីរបុរស. Your language បុរុស, right? Okay. Similar" (OB1). All teachers led discussion on unit themes. For instance, Dara (OB2), Chomkwan (OB3), and Reza (OB3) elicited learners' leisure activities. Unlike other teachers, Dara presented conversation models he had written himself to guide discussions by first having students worked in pairs reciting the models before encouraging them to personalize the models.

Dara and Chomkwan briefly revised past lessons. While Dara used controlled activities including a verb-subjugation exercise (OB1) and a definition-word matching exercise (OB5), Chomkwan took a more communicative approach, asking learners to compare Thailand and Singapore to review comparative adjectives (OB2) and greeting them with "How is it going?" to review it (OB4). Dara gave mini-lessons called "small talk". This involved realia (a novel) about which students asked questions (OB1); conversational moves of small talk, introduced and compared with Thai, followed by a controlled speaking practice (OB2); and a listening comprehension activity where learners transcribed parts of the dialogue and discussed speakers' implied intentions (OB4). Language features such as politeness (e.g. "you should end the conversation in a polite way) and discourse markers (e.g. "if you want to change the topic, you can say by the way") were explicitly taught. Dara also imparted his L2 learning beliefs:

> Have you read a book like this?...To improve vocabulary, you need to read (OB1).

> You know the structures (conversational moves) here…start speaking in English...Most of you always speak in Thai in the classroom. Your English is good, but the problem is you rarely start conversation in English (OB2).

> So, a little listening. You should try to understand and train your ears (OB4).

Participants described preparing learners for upcoming activities at this introductory stage. They all wanted to anchor the lessons in learners' background knowledge, and attributed topic discussion to this principle. For instance, Reza believed that it activated relevant "schema" (SR4), while Chomkwan stated that it created "a link" between the lessons and learners' daily

lives (SR1; SR2; SR3). For example, a discussion of situations requiring requests "make them realize that requests surround them. They make requests everyday" (SR4). Chomkwan (SR4), Ramgopal (SR2) and Dara (SR1) took this opportunity to evaluate learners' prior knowledge and adjust lessons accordingly. This also helped Chomkwan save time because she could skip some familiar content (SR4). Furthermore, Ramgopal and Dara wished to push students to speak early on. While Ramgopal referred to a topic discussion (SR1), Dara reflected using "different techniques to activate them [and]…make them speak" (SR2), which implied all activities eliciting learners' spoken outputs.

The principle of maintaining learners' attention manifested in the belief that lesson introductions helped learners focused on or prepare for subsequent lessons. Chomkwan explained that a topic discussion about apologizing made learners aware immediately that the upcoming video clip exemplified apology, without any confusion on what to focus their attention (SR3). For Dara, telling "today's goals" served as "a sign" so that "their mind will not wander" (SR2). Ramgopal began the lesson with a topic discussion because he wanted learners to "know what is to come so they can prepare from the initial stage" (SR2). Furthermore, Chomkwan (SR2; SR4) and Dara (SR1; SR4; SR5) revised past lessons in the belief that revision helped learners retain what they learned. While all teachers taught language features, only Reza and Dara talked about this. Reza elicited word stress because he believed that stress was vital to intelligibility, and observed that most students did not stress words correctly (SR1). The principle of English exposure drove Dara to teach students conversational moves so that they started greeting each other in English, while the principle of the importance of L1 made him compare these moves with those in Thai:

> It is very important to familiarize students with everyday conversation. Most of them don't know how to start the conversation. Usually when they meet each other in the classroom, they speak in Thai, and now I want to change their habits by teaching them this one…I want them to reflect how they do it in their first language…and to remind them that in English, we have to do the same thing (SR2).

Despite these language-learning goals, Dara revealed that small talk activities primarily aimed to grab learners' attention, with lower expectations for L2 learning outcomes:

> The small talk activity…it's like a warm-up activity, and it is very important to wake them up. Sometimes…they feel tired…their mind is away so I'd like to draw their attention to the lesson…Not really serious (SR4).

Main lesson stage for skills and sub-skills

Participants generally relied on prescribed textbooks for content and activities, although they also adapted, supplemented, and skipped certain elements. The observed lessons focused on sub-skills of vocabulary, pronunciation, grammar, and spoken expressions and the skills of speaking and/or listening as required by the prescribed curriculum. This explains why reading and writing skills were not taught. Main teaching practices are presented alongside participants' principles.

Vocabulary and Pronunciation

Most lessons began with vocabulary sections in the textbooks where all teachers explicitly taught aspects of target words (i.e. pronunciations, meanings and word grammar) and used similar teaching practices during a presentation stage. They all taught pronunciation implicitly through listen-and-repeat, while Ramgopal, Dara, and Reza sometimes contrasted incorrect with correct pronunciation and briefly explained their differences. Regarding word meanings, Dara, Chomkwan, and Reza often used translation, while Ramgopal used it only once. Ramgopal elicited the Thai equivalent for the word "surprise", learned that this was an English loanword, and shared that there were some loanwords in his native language too (OB2). Like Ramgopal, Dara shared his L1, contrasting between English, Thai and Cambodian equivalents. Ramgopal, Dara, and Chomkwan sometimes highlighted word grammar explicitly. For instance, while Ramgopal pointed out a suffix that "when we have –tor, a person right?" (OB3), Chomkwan emphasized a prefix: "ใส่อันเข้าไปเป็นรูปปฏิเสธ" < Add –un to make it negative> (OB2). Unlike other teachers, Dara added many more words to target words offered by the textbooks. All participants led some discussions prompted by target words. For instance, while Ramgopal elicited when feelings words occurred in real life (OB1), Chomkwan asked if students were interested in any hobbies (OB1).

A practice stage could precede a presentation stage. That is, while Chomkwan (OB1; OB2) followed the textbook offering a word–picture matching exercise and a gap-filling exercise (i.e. target words were selected to fill in phrases that best described pictures), Reza adapted and complimented the textbook by having students work in pairs to come up with words that described pictures from the textbook and outside sources (OB1; OB2). Moreover, Ramgopal, Reza and Dara provided practice opportunities after the presentation stage. Ramgopal elicited other known feeling words and asked students to freely construct sentences using them (OB1). Dara used a picture–definition matching exercise and "a memory game" where each group member uttered a learnt word related to a lesson theme without repeating other group member (OB4). Dara (OB2; OB4; OB5) and Reza (OB1; OB2; OB3) provided pair-work speaking

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activities. Dara showed conversation models he had written himself that contained target words, explicitly taught some language features, had students do dialogue practice, and encouraged them to personalize their conversations by stating that "It's up to you, okay? You can change it in any way you want" (OB2). Reza's activities were less controlled. Although he sometimes presented possible questions and answers, he hid them from students while they were engaged in speaking. Furthermore, pronunciation was taught as a separate section in only one observed lesson. Dara explicitly highlighted reduced speech forms (i.e. "gimme" and "lemme") and had students practice reading three sentences containing the forms (OB5). As can be seen, all teachers presented vocabulary and its features explicitly, and provided some controlled practice with varying amount of free production practice. Dara and Reza also imparted similar beliefs regarding accuracy and comprehensibility during speaking practice:

> The more words you know, the better you can speak…Grammar you may make some mistakes. No problem. They still can understand you but without words, nothing is spoken. (Dara, OB4)

> แค่ตั้งคำถามให้เพื่อนเข้าใจก็พอ ไม่ต้องถูกก็ได้ เข้าใจก็พอล่ะ แค่นี้ก็สื่อสารกันได้ล่ะ <Just ask questions in a way that your friends understand. It is okay if it is not correct as long as it is understandable. That's enough for communication.> (Reza, OB3)

All participants described drawing learners' attention to pronunciations and definitions of target words. For instance, Chomkwan reflected on listen-and-repeat: "I read these words for them to listen once because some students might not know how to pronounce them" (SR2). Reza (SR2) and Ramgopal (SR4) added that this provided an opportunity for teachers to step in and correct pronunciation mistakes. The principle of the importance of L1 and the contextual principle were in operation when Ramgopal, Dara, and Chomkwan highlighted the benefits of L1 for teaching word meanings for low-proficiency students. Being aware that students could not come up with an English definition, Ramgopal elicited the Thai equivalent for the word "surprise" instead (SR1). Dara used Thai to ensure that even the weakest student understood target word meanings, and reflected translating certain words (e.g. "pretty") because of their possibilities for confusion (e.g. "very" versus "beautiful") (OB2; SR2). As discussed above, he believed that contrasting English, Thai, and Cambodian equivalents led to a deeper processing that helped students retain target words. Chomkwan considered that translation helped weak students grasp word meanings quickly and was therefore useful for instructional time management. She believed that students would have been more confused if English definitions were given because "they did not master even basic words" (SR2).

Participants reported different rationales underpinning their decisions to implement teacher-led discussions. Enacting the principle of the importance of background knowledge, Ramgopal elicited real-life situations where feeling words occurred so that "they will know how to use these feeling words" and see their relevance (SR1). Dara implied the contextual principle of monitoring students' understanding since he led discussions to check if students understood word meanings by judging from their responses (SR3). Enacting the principles of repetition and the importance of English exposure, Chomkwan elicited students' interests in order to familiarize them with the target sentence pattern: *Are you interested in…?* so that they could retrieve it more easily in the production stage (SR1).

Dara added more target words and used a memory game in the belief that students should know as many words as possible (SR4), that vocabulary learning relied on memory (SR4), and that students' proficiency was higher than that targeted by the textbook. Reza had students exchange known vocabulary in pairs to promote cooperative learning and activate their background knowledge (SR1; SR2):

> I want them to recall vocabulary they have learned…they may call the same items using different words. Some are wrong. Some are right….some students may pronounce it this way, while others disagree (SR2).

Dara (SR4; SR5) and Reza (SR1; SR2; SR3) wanted students to apply target words in their speaking practice. For instance, Reza stated that "I want to see if they can use taught vocabulary to form long sentences in speaking" (SR2). Dissatisfied with a one-turn controlled speaking practice in the textbook, Dara extended the conversation by presenting conversation models he had written himself (SR5), and Reza by introducing possible questions and answers (SR3).

Listening

All participants taught listening. Because listening sections were placed after vocabulary sections in the textbooks used by Ramgopal, Dara, and Reza, a top-down approach activating background knowledge in the introduction stage and a bottom-up approach teaching vocabulary can be considered as pre-listening activities. Dara also elicited known information about four historical figures prior to listening (OB1). Unlike other teachers, Chomkwan brought in the feature film *Rio* (OB3; OB4). She introduced the main characters and elicited meanings of some difficult words in listening comprehension questions (OB3). The while-listening phase offered experiential L2 learning through listening comprehension activities including multiple-choice questions, matching listening tracks with pictures, and short-answer questions. While Ramgopal, Dara, and Reza relied on textbooks, Chomkwan wrote multiple-choice questions herself for the feature *Rio*. To assist with listening, Ramgopal, Dara, and Reza replayed the

tracks. Reza (OB3) distributed an audio-script as a listen-while-read option. Using CALL software for *Rio,* Chomkwan turned on English subtitles and a vocabulary panel where key words and definitions were listed (OB3; OB4).

In the post-listening phase, all teachers elicited answers and sometimes replayed tracks to help students locate information. Participants probed for more details, which sometimes led to brief discussions. For instance, Ramgopal asked why starting college could be an anxious experience for some people after eliciting the answer that the character felt nervous starting college (OB1). Reza also made use of audio-script to teach language features, including highlighting comparative adjectives and expressions perceived as useful (OB2), listen-and-repeat (OB2) and sentence-by-sentence translation (OB3). Translation was also used as vocabulary instruction since he announced "จดไว้ถ้าไม่รู้ความหมาย <write it down if you don't know the meanings>" and "ขอให้พวกเราได้คำศัพท์หลายตัวเพื่อที่จะไปพูดนะ <I hope that you learn many words that you can apply in speaking>". He also had students recite the script in pair as a way to "practice conversation" (OB2).

Dara, Ramgopal, and Chomkwan expressed similar statements that listening skills improved through listening practices and that listening comprehension activities played a crucial role in listening skill development. For instance, Dara described his listening teaching approach: "That's the way we teach listening; there must be an activity to come along" (SR2). Ramgopal (SR3) and Chomkwan (SR3) believed that listening activities helped engage learners. For example, Chomkwan constructed comprehension questions for the feature so that "they have a purpose to watch it" since "some students may not watch it if I ask them just to watch it" (SR3). This practice was strengthened by her belief that students' listening skills would improve if they had a listening purpose (SR4). Ramgopal also added that comprehension questions helped him monitor students' understanding (SR3). While these statements imply an experiential, communicative principle, only Chomkwan and Reza talked about how listening can assist language-focused learning. Chomkwan believed that students could learn new words and expressions from watching a movie (SR3). While she pointed out benefits of authentic materials including exposure to natural language use and noticing of new language features, it must be made accessible for learners because it bombarded them with unfamiliar cultural content and "so many expressions at once that students did not know what to focus on" (SR3; SR4). This explained why she introduced the characters, turned on subtitles and vocabulary panels, and constructed comprehension questions. Reza reported translating an audio-script to contextualize the target grammar (SR2) and to help students learn new words since he observed that "students jotted them [word meanings] down. I knew immediately that they did not know

many simple words" (SR3). Furthermore, Dara, Chomkwan and Reza reported adapting listening tasks to suit learners' background knowledge and proficiency. This explains why Dara elicited known information about the figures, why Chomkwan introduced the characters, and why Reza provided a listen-while-read option. Chomkwan reported choosing the feature because it had clearer pronunciation than a movie for adults, and was suitable for all ages (SR3). Reza reported eliciting more detailed answers for listening comprehension questions if students were more proficient (SR1).

Grammar

All teachers introduced grammar topics in the pre-presentation stage. Ramgopal (OB1; OB3) and Reza (OB3) asked students to listen and repeat example sentences containing target grammar. Reza asked students to skim-read the section (OB2), and asked their permission to "please allow me to talk in Thai sometimes" (OB1). Dara revised past lessons by eliciting grammatical rules (OB1; OB2). In the presentation stage, all teachers taught grammar explicitly and deductively by eliciting and presenting rules and examples. However, there was one exception, which was when Chomkwan taught grammar inductively (OB2). After having students predict what happened in the picture, listen-and-repeat the conversation model and recite it in pairs, she asked students to underline all sentences with the target grammar, and then to guess its rules. She then went on to teach the same grammar point deductively through explicit discussion of its rules. While Reza and Chomkwan explained grammar mainly in Thai, Dara and Ramgopal did so in English. Interestingly, Dara compared the English, Thai and Cambodian tense systems:

> It's maybe completely different from our first language. I think ภาษาไทย <Thai language> if you say you did something in the past, you just say one word ได้, right? ได้ ทำ, ได้กิน, ได้ไป… My language is the same. បាន: បានធ្វើ, បានញ៉ាំ, បានទៅ. Only one word, but English, there are a lot. Many tenses (OB1).

All participants except Reza proceeded to a practice stage. Chomkwan used written controlled exercises in the textbook, including a verb conjugation exercise (OB1), a gap-filling exercise where adjectives were selected and combined with target grammar to complete sentences (OB2), and a short-answer exercise where students formed questions (OB1). Ramgopal and Dara aimed for spoken outputs. Ramgopal asked students to freely construct a sentence that included the target grammar (OB1; OB3). Dara arranged a pair and group competition where students completed constructing sentences with the target structure (OB1); speaking practice where a partner asked questions with the target structure to which another partner gave a true answer (OB2); and a dialogue practice where students replaced parts of conversation models

using given prompts and target grammar (OB2; OB3). Ankun encouraged peer feedback (OB2), look-up-and-say a conversation model in the textbook (OB2), personalizing the model by changing topics (OB2) (e.g. "You can talk about your party or whatever") and extending the conversation (OB2; OB3):

> When you answer, do not just answer, 'Yes she is'; 'No she isn't'. You can expand your answer…As a conversationalist, you have to expand your answer. Do not stop (OB3).

For the pre-presentation stage, Chomkwan and Ramgopal reported preparing learners for grammar instruction by building background knowledge. For example, Chomkwan believed that the discussion about the picture would help learners understood the conversation model with target grammar better (SR2). While Ramgopal considered listen-and-repeat as a preview and stated that "this is one of my techniques to let them get into the text so when I explain it, it will be easier for them to understand" (SR1), Chomkwan viewed it as a pronunciation practice (SR2). Moreover, Dara's revision aimed to remind students the taught grammar (SR1; SR2) and to show a connection between grammar in past and present lessons (SR1).

All teachers described practices that involved explicit grammar instruction in the presentation stage, as can be seen in the excerpts below:

> I show them the whole picture of the verb to be in past simple tense…two forms, okay? Was and were…I list a lot of [past] time expressions…I give them a formula so they can construct sentences (Dara, SR1).

> That're [comparative] adjectives…I just told them, but not in detail. I just told them when to add –er; when to add more; why more was added. I warned them of some irregular verbs (Reza, SR2).

Chomkwan reflected that she used both deductive and inductive approaches. She associated the former with grammar translation, and commented that "the method is old…students learn only rules", while pointing out that the latter showed how target grammar was used in an authentic conversation, and encouraged self-discovery since "they can study sentence patterns by themselves first" (SR2). Her argument highlighted the importance of contextualizing grammar. Reza implied that he used this same principle when he reflected giving example sentences: "I offered examples and turn them into a conversation…I like to set them in a conversational context" (SR2). He reported forgetting to link a grammar section with other parts of the lessons, and believed that "if students did something with the grammar, they could remember more" (SR1). The principle of the importance of L1 influenced their uses of Thai. Dara reflected that contrasting English, Thai, and Cambodian tense systems helped students notice it: "I make it

clear to students, and they will learn" (SR2). All participants believed that using Thai helped weak learners grasped grammatical concepts better and therefore saved time (Dara, SR3; Ramgopal, SR1; Chomkwan, SR1, SR2); however, Ramgopal believed he could not reap these benefits because of his limited Thai proficiency:

> That's a challenge for teachers like us because if they have a very low proficiency…it becomes difficult for us to explain so when we explain from a basic level, it consumes time. Time is taken off. This should be around a few minutes, but it took me ten minutes so I needed to manage time….That is another challenge (SR1).

The contextual principle also influenced grammar instruction. Ramgopal (SR1) and Reza (SR2; SR3) reflected not teaching grammar in-depth because of students' low proficiency. Ramgopal reported simplifying his instruction to make it more understandable (SR1), while Reza reported adding more content if it aided students' understanding (SR1), but skipping too difficult grammar content (SR3). Dara described supplementary content he brought in such as controlled grammar exercises, and asserted that a teacher was "a living example" able to adjust instruction to suit students, unlike a textbook viewed as "a dead example" (SR2). Chomkwan and Dara reflected making grammar lessons relevant to students' lives by eliciting true information using questions with target grammar (Chomkwan, SR1) and constructed relatable conversation models (Dara, SR2). They believed that this helped students retain the grammar. Chomkwan also pointed out that pictures in the grammar section benefited visual learners (SR2).

The principle of practice was evident in the practice stage. Ramgopal (SR4), Dara (SR1; SR2; SR3) and Chomkwan (SR1; SR2) believed that exercises offered practice and feedback opportunities. For instance, Chomkwan reflected that "I used these exercises to test students' understanding [and] to see if they could apply grammar in other contexts" (SR2). Dara pointed out that repetitive practice could increase students' familiarity with target forms (SR1), helped them notice the forms (SR1), aided retention of the forms (SR2), and increased fluency (SR2). Both Chomkwan and Dara regarded controlled exercises as beneficial for weak students. For instance, Chomkwan reflected:

> Controlled exercises are good too because students can learn some simple [sentence] patterns. If we ask them to perform immediately, they may not be able to do it because they don't know how the structures work (SR2).

Dara implied this when he reflected supplementing the textbook with more examples and stated his belief that "I'm sure this is the best way to learn English: by introducing more examples and more practice…" (SR2). Furthermore, Dara used grammar exercises requiring spoken output in the belief that grammar should be combined with speaking:

You cannot learn grammar and you speak it…You have to learn how to speak but with grammar too…We cannot forget grammar, but it has to come along. You combine them (SR1).

Speaking

All participants presented conversation models through listen-and-repeat and explicit instruction of pronunciation, vocabulary, grammar and spoken expressions, using similar practices discussed in the previous sections. However, in some lessons taught by Chomkwan (OB1; OB3; OB4) and Dara (OB4; OB5), language functions (e.g. apologizing and making appointments) were explicit goals. In the pre-presentation stage, both teachers stated the language functions that were the aims of the lessons (e.g. "making an appointment"), and elicited known expressions or relevant real-life situations related to the language functions. Dara also mentioned students' L1: "In Thai, you've already known how to do this. Now, it is very important that you know how to offer, accept, and decline an appointment in English" (OB4). In the presentation stage, expressions to perform certain functions and conversation models were explicitly taught. Both teachers highlighted context appropriateness, especially politeness. For instance, Chomkwan stated that เราสามารถขึ้นต้นคำว่า Can แต่ว่า Could กับ May more polite. <We can start [requesting questions] with Can, but Could and May are more polite>" (OB4).

Presentation and practice stages were merged in two lessons by Dara (OB4; OB5) because, while listening to conversation models, students answered comprehension questions (OB4; OB5). This was followed by a matching exercise where sentences were selected to fill in gaps in the models (OB4) and a transcribing exercise where three extra sentences heard were written down (OB5). All participants provided practice opportunities after the presentation stage. Ramgopal, Reza and Dara used dialogue practice where students worked in pair to recite the models often, while Chomkwan used it only once (OB1). They all encouraged the personalizing of in-class conversations. For instance, Dara announced "the first time, follow this one and then next time, personalize your conversation…Don't just follow this" (OB1). Dara (OB1; OB2) recommended look-up-and-say because "…your partner is in front of you…You are reading a conversation, not having a conversation…if you cannot remember it, have a quick look" (OB2). Ramgopal advised students to speak clearly and slowly (OB1; OB2; OB3). Chomkwan had groups of students competed writing as many requests as possible, while Dara (OB4; OB5) offered many controlled practice opportunities in which students gave oral responses (e.g. offering help) to written prompts (e.g. "I don't have a car.") to practice language functions.

Ramgopal and Chomkwan proceeded directly to the production stage. Ramgopal asked students to describe the pictures showing people expressing feelings in different situations (OB1), and talk about someone they admired (OB3). Using the same textbook, Dara and Reza often skipped this section. When Reza did not skip it, the activity focused on forms requiring students to construct questions to written answers. However, he asked students to focus on meanings instead: "...ไม่ต้อง mind มากเกี่ยวกับ grammar เอาเป็นว่าถามให้เพื่อนเข้าใจหรือตัวเองเข้าใจก็ โอเคแล้ว ให้การสื่อสารไปถึงก็ โอเคแหละ <Do not care much about grammar. Just ask questions that your friend or yourself understand. It is okay as long as the message gets across >" (OB1). Chomkwan asked students to interview one another using their own questions (OB1), to describe clothes people wore in a picture (OB2), and to perform role-plays (OB2; OB3; OB4). Ramgopal imparted his language learning beliefs:

> …there is nothing hard. Just practice slowly. If you think it is hard to pronounce, repeat again…Please practice. Sometimes, you can face the mirror and practice. Open your mouth…it will be good after some time…(OB1)

> Come and try right? ... Just speak out so when you speak loud, your teacher can listen and note the wrong and right, and teachers can correct you…you can hear your own voice whether right or wrong, right? So you must know where you are and try to improve… (OB3)

All teachers revealed their intention to teach micro-language skills in speaking, including pronunciation, vocabulary, and grammar. Regarding pronunciation, all teachers selected features predicted to be problematic to learners. For instance, Ramgopal stated that "I just underscored some of the words, which I thought were hard for them so I repeat to make sure that they can speak clearly" (SR1). Ramgopal, Dara, and Chomkwan highlighted intonation because of the belief that intonation affects listeners' question/statement judgment; the belief that intonation conveyed speakers' attitudes and emotions (Ramgopal, SR1; Dara, SR3); and the beliefs that intonation "infringes in our expressions", "make our conversation very meaningful", and "makes listeners to be more interested" (Ramgopal, SR1). Chomkwan, Ramgopal and Reza revealed beliefs about pronunciation instruction. Chomkwan preferred imitation (listen-and-repeat) to explicit explanation because non-English majors "did not need to know exactly where the tongue should be placed" as long as intelligibility was achieved (SR4). The contextual principle (i.e. student factor) and the intelligibility principle therefore interacted. Chomkwan (SR1) and Ramgopal (SR1) reported drawing on past experience to predict problematic words. For instance, Ramgopal stated that "I have been here [Thailand] for many years…I began to understand the Thai ways of pronouncing" (SR1). However, Reza

viewed that familiarity with Thai students could negatively affect intelligibility evaluations: "I am Thai and I have come across what they read [i.e. the textbook]. No matter how they read, I will understand it. That's challenging" (SR3).

The principle of the importance of L1 was in operation when Dara (SR5) and Reza (SR3) used Thai to facilitate easy access to word meanings. Reza translated conversation models to ensure students understood what they recited, and learned some new words since he observed them writing down word meanings (SR3). With regard to grammar, Chomkwan implied the principle of attention when she explicitly highlighted a grammar point to prevent an error in a subsequent speaking practice because "they [students] won't notice by themselves" (SR4). Dara (SR4) and Chomkwan (SR4) also pointed out the importance of socio-cultural norms. For instance, Chomkwan taught politeness because "I want to teach about cultures too. When someone does something for us, we have to say thank you...It's an etiquette" (SR4).

Dara and Chomkwan talked about the importance of conversation models as examples of language use. For instance, Dara wrote some models himself to compensate for the textbook that gave "only two [example] sentences – not enough for students to understand" (SR4). Chomkwan saw the models as a means to contextualize language functions that helped students understand them better. However, she stated that it should be complemented by explicit and de-contextualized presentation of expressions for language functions because it increased "clarity" to some students "who could not catch them while listening [to the models]" and "who want to locate them quickly for a revision or role-play" (SR3). Both teachers also believed that the models helped scaffold less proficient students during speaking practice, and drew on past learning and/or teaching experience to support this belief:

> They [Thai and Cambodian students] need a model. They need an example, and I find it very effective...I experimented it myself...When I learnt something [and] when there were no examples or conversation models like that, I didn't know what to do...this is kind of scaffolding...some students are not smart...we cannot just instruct and then get them to do it without any model or example (Dara, SR1).

> I want them to practice speaking with some guidelines...it's good for Thai students because they have just learnt for five, six minutes – they cannot remember them [expressions]. Learning requires repetitive and continuous practice to aid understanding, right?...some students don't know how to combine them in a dialogue...so they learnt how to put expressions into a dialogue from patterns in the models...They might not be able to construct sentences if there were no patterns or models. They would not understand. But once I told them this, many students, many groups could do [role-plays] well (Chomkwan, SR1).

All teachers generally endorsed practice opportunities. For instance, Ramgopal believed that dialogue recitation allowed students to "hear their own voices and practice" (SR1), while Chomkwan pointed out that controlled exercises aided students' understanding of language features (SR3). Interestingly, Chomkwan and Dara gave different rationales for personalizing conversations. Chomkwan (SR1) saw it as "a part of learning processes so that they can remember sentence patterns" by filling in their personal information. Dara (SR1; SR2; SR4) saw it as a gradual withdrawal of support so that students could use L2 more creatively:

> …when they can personalize the conversation, next time, they can speak without seeing the example. So they can talk about themselves; about others. They can use it in real life…if we don't ask them to personalize, students just remember from the book or the examples all the time. They will never be creative…I think it's more useful when they learn it, and can create the conversation by themselves (SR1).

Ramgopal saw the benefits of free speaking practice (i.e. describing pictures) because "they can make a short story out of this" and "to let them say it, but in their own ways" (SR1). Only Chomkwan (SR1; SR2) explicitly attributed freer speaking practice to CLT and PPP, and pointed out their benefits of allowing students to engage in a "real" and "meaningful" communication (SR1; SR2; SR3; SR4), retain useful sentence patterns transferable to real-life situations (SR2) and know the purpose of learning L2 (i.e. to communicate) (SR2). These principles underpinned her interviewing activity, and she explained that "they got to interview real people…they used what they have learnt to ask someone they didn't know. It was like a real communication since the answers were unpredictable" (SR1) as well as role-plays, which she reflected on her past experience that "I observed that, when I were a student, my speaking skills improved because my teachers had me do a lot of role-plays" (SR2). Moreover, when giving feedback, Reza and Chomkwan reported prioritizing errors that affected intelligibility. For instance, Chomkwan stated that "I will correct major errors first, but I will not fix small errors if they don't affect intelligibility" (SR1).

Closing stage of the lessons
All teachers recommended reviewing the lessons and/or previewing the next lesson, eliciting students' questions, and thanking them for their participation. Ramgopal asked students to reflect on what they have learned (SR1), while Dara asked them to make an appointment one last time as a final revision task (OB5). Chomkwan assigned homework, including written controlled exercises (OB1; OB2), a mind-map (OB2), and role-plays (OB1; OB2). Dara reminded learners of quizzes that would be administered at the beginning of the upcoming lessons (OB4; OB5). After the two lessons (OB1; OB2), Chomkwan let students study on their own for one hour, using CALL software. She provided little in the way of guidance, suggesting

that students were familiar with the technology. The participants rarely reflected on this closing stage, although the principle of revision was evident. For instance, Dara (SR1) highlighted the importance of homework:

> …when I give them homework every class, I remind students of the lesson; stay focus on the lesson so you have to read….It's like a new teacher inside their mind who keeps telling them ,okay, you need to do your homework before you come to the class so students have to review the past lessons.

This section has demonstrated how pedagogical principles complexly and dynamically underpinned teaching practices in similar and different ways. These lessons can be categorized into two strands: "strong" communicative lessons where learners engaging in communication about cultures, and more traditional, P-P-P lessons where explicit instruction of language forms were provided, and consolidated through controlled and freer practices to a varying degree.

5.3   Discussion

This chapter has illustrated the complex and dynamic interplay between teachers' pedagogic principles and teaching practices. Teachers were found to hold pedagogical considerations about how English should be taught so as to optimize L2 learning processes. In their pedagogical decisions, teachers evaluated pedagogical options, not only based on their inner logic in the abstract, but also on suitability to a specific context. Teachers asserted their agency in making decisions about how to teach in their classrooms. In other words, they did not disregard their own personal principles, nor did they marginalize themselves to the role of passive technicians rigidly implementing others' methods. These teachers may be said to exhibit a mindset of "a post-method teacher" with the parameters of *particularity* (i.e. adjusting instruction to suit local context) and *practicality* (i.e. theorizing their own practice) in operation (Kumaravadivelu, 1994, 2003, 2006).

5.3.1   Traditional, communicative, contextual, and eclectic principles in action

Teachers' comments showed that they were aware of pedagogical options from traditional and communicative approaches exposed from personal language learning experience and teacher education. All teachers described their lesson objectives that encompassed broader communicative goals, which saw an L2, not just a linguistic system, but as a means of communication. This is unsurprising since "spirit of CLT" (Hiep, 2007) or ability to use an L2 in communication is largely accepted as a desirable goal within the profession (Harmer, 2015; Hiep, 2007; Richards & Rodgers, 2001). Echoing previous findings both in EFL and ESL contexts (Hiep, 2007; Karavas-Doukas, 1996; Sato & Kleinsasser, 1999; Yan, 2012), all teachers expressed positive attitudes toward communicative approaches that were perceived to

be more effective in developing communicative abilities, and negative attitudes towards traditional approaches that exclusively focus on teachers transmitting L2 linguistic knowledge to learners who expected to play a very passive role in the learning process.

Nonetheless, teachers' positions with regard to traditional and communicative approaches were not entirely straightforward, since all teachers held pedagogic principles corresponding to both traditional and communicative approaches. For instance, they believed that traditional teaching strategies such as explicit instruction using L1, memorization, repetition, and controlled practices were still beneficial, alongside experiential ones such as role-plays, and meaning-focused listening practices. While teachers supported learner-centred principles such as active learning and cooperative learning, they deemed teacher authority and teacher-led instruction as indispensable. This corroborates previous findings that teachers held eclectic principles and extended their repertoires rather than rejecting traditional practices from studies in both EFL and ESL contexts (Mitchell & Lee, 2003; Pu & Pawan, 2014; Sakui, 2004; Sato & Kleinsasser, 1999; Senior, 2006; Xinmin & Adamson, 2003; Zheng & Davison, 2008). This may be interpreted as contradictory, inconsistent, or parallel sets of principles (e.g. Sakui, 2004; Senior, 2006); however, an alternative interpretation is that they considered both traditional and communicative teaching practices as beneficial to L2 learning since they pointed out benefits and weaknesses of teaching techniques from both approaches, which is a view shared by a number of scholars who recommend an eclectic approach (e.g. H. D. Brown, 2002; Ellis, 2014; Jin & Cortazzi, 2011; Nassaji & Fotos, 2011).

This study provides some answers to Littlewood's (2014) question as to how teachers select principles and practices in eclectic, 'post-method' era where there is no unified method. For these teachers, eclecticism does not mean random expediency (Widdowson, 2003), since they evaluated the pedagogic principles and practices at their disposal. For instance, Dara favoured "modern" CLT and English as a medium of instruction over "outdated" grammar translation with explicit explanation in L1. Nonetheless, all teachers knew that pedagogical principles and practices could not be evaluated in the abstract, but needed to be selected and adjusted to suit the local context. In the process, the boundaries between "modern" and "outdated" techniques merged into a common pool from which teachers drew (Littlewood, 2014). For instance, Dara explicitly stated that there was no best method, and resorted to traditional practices associated with grammar translation (e.g. explicit explanation and translation) when teaching vocabulary in the belief that this was the most efficient way to teach low-proficiency students. At the same time, he instituted an English-only policy to encourage students to speak English as much as possible in the classroom. As can be seen, Dara had different contexts in mind where traditional

and communicative practices could play a role, and therefore co-existence of traditional and communicative principles is not necessarily contradictory (Karavas-Doukas, 1996). It is interesting to observe shifting positions where participants exerted a superiority of a method/teaching technique over another at one time, but not another time, and, at the same time, argued that there was no best method.

The fact that teachers' perceived values of pedagogical principles were contingent on specific contexts may explain why their views could be shifting. For instance, Reza's negative view on drilling was influenced by his own experience as a language learner when his past teachers used drills for "the whole semester" with infrequent opportunities for meaningful, communicative interactions. At the same time, he valued drilling when teaching pronunciation, as well as memorization and repetition during dialogue practices. Similarly, Dara and Chomkwan critiqued grammar translation when it did not offer any experiential learning experience. However, when grammatical knowledge was the goal, they highly valued explicit instruction using L1. It can reasonably be concluded that these teachers viewed traditional and communicative approaches as a continuum rather than a mutually exclusive dichotomy (e.g. Beaumont & Chang, 2011; Littlewood, 2014; Stern, 1992). That is, they did not view that, once subscribed to CLT, they should implement it as faithfully as possible without incorporating any non-CLT teaching practices (Littlewood, 2014). In light of Pu and Pawan's finding (2014), exposure to CLT might have given these teachers a critical lens to question certain traditional pedagogic practices.

All teachers took the local context into account when constructing their pedagogy. Learners' factors figured prominently in teachers' contextual considerations such as their understanding level, responsiveness, background knowledge, English proficiency levels, and affective states. Other contextual factors comprised lesson goals, available time, limited opportunities for English uses outside class, and the ASEAN context. This is unsurprising since many studies in Asian and ESL contexts shows that contextual factors affected their pedagogical considerations, especially whether to implement a particular teaching approach (e.g. CLT) (e.g. Hiep, 2007; Mangubhai et al., 2005; Orafi & Borg, 2009; Sakui, 2004; Xinmin & Adamson, 2003; Zheng & Davison, 2008). Dara and Reza raised an important issue of socio-economic and socio-cultural disparities rarely discussed in CLT literature (Jin & Cortazzi, 2011). While both participants highlighted that their past teachers struggled financially, Reza described how linguistic and religious minority students forced to learn English through L2 were at the disadvantage.

5.3.2   Pedagogic practices

The finding illustrates complex and dynamic interactions between pedagogic principles and practices. Teachers held similar and different pedagogic principles, and implemented them in both similar and different ways. Certain principles were implemented fully, while others influenced practices partially or in nuanced ways. Ramgopal best exemplified this point, since he implemented learner-centred communicative principles comprehensively in his culture course, which is in stark contrast to his other course, where he used more traditional, teacher-led PPP lessons. The fact that a principle may be partially implemented echoes previous finding that CLT principles can be implemented in ways at odd with Western-based conceptions (e.g. Pu & Pawan, 2014). A plausible explanation for the existence of two types of lessons (i.e. task-based and PPP strands) can be offered by examining teachers' principles underlying them, which seems to suggest that East-West cultural differences should not be over-emphasized as a primary reason for teachers' adoptions of traditional or communicative practices.

For task-based lessons, Ramgopal revealed a course objective that "it's more on how to speak, talk English well by using or studying about cultures" without any pre-determined linguistic outcomes, nor a prescribed textbook that dictated cultural content to be covered. Moreover, cultural learning was considered less important than "how to speak, talk English well". This is in line with task-based approaches that emphasize learning and communicative processes; for example, students engaging in communication rather than pre-determined outcomes such as specific linguistic features or cultural content (J. C. Richards, 2006). This allowed Ramgopal to implement his principles of active and cooperative learning in full expression through group presentation tasks. His concerns about students' affective states (e.g. public speaking anxieties) also deterred him from language-focused instruction (e.g. error correction). His "passive" students did not interact in English as much as he had expected. For instance, he reminded them of his English-only policy since they spoke in Thai during presentation preparations. Due to their limited proficiency, only a few sentences were expected from each group presentation. Students' silence was prevalent during Q & A sessions, leading Ramgopal to resort to a more teacher-centred approach where he asked questions himself and gave scores for those asking questions.

In contrast, the PPP lessons, taught by all teachers, set pre-determined targets including linguistic features, language functions, and spoken expressions with prescribed commercial textbooks that pre-taught these features and provided controlled and freer practices. This was not in conflict with participants' views that analytical learning strategies were a useful means to gain L2 knowledge of which fluency could be developed through practice. Apart from

textbooks, the dominance of traditional practices stemmed from their view that these practices were appropriate for limited proficiency students, which could then provide ways to more communicative activities at a more advanced level (H. D. Brown, 2007b; Jin & Cortazzi, 2011; Kumaravadivelu, 2006; Tudor, 2001). For example, controlled speaking practices (e.g. pair-work dialogue recitation and personalization of conversation models) helped scaffold learners who "could not even form a sentence" as Chomkwan pointed out. With specific linguistic outcomes to be attained within a relatively short duration of a lesson, teachers felt that traditional practices provided "focused efficiency" (Griffiths, 2011; Nation, 2007; Nation & Newton, 2009) and a more transparent means to achieve these targets for low-proficiency students. All teachers showed attempts to implement communicative practices (e.g. listening sections). They found it more difficult when it came to speaking, which led them to offer and skip communicative activities, provide more support from traditional, controlled practices, or dominated the talk. This study found that "strong" and "weak" CLT can be implemented in tandem, but as well as teachers' principles, which need to be aligned to these approaches, a curriculum may be required that intentionally creates two different strands: one of which aims solely at fluency and alleviates "contextual constraints" often cited such as pre-determined linguistic outcomes and grammar-based tests if a strong communicative approach is the aim, and another of which set linguistic and functional outcomes with controlled and freer practices offered if a weak communicative approach is the target, similar to the two strands reported in Sakui (2004).

Whether using traditional or communicative practices, this study shows that teachers made decisions based on what they saw as "plausible" and "desirable" in their classrooms to the best interests of students under available contextual resources and constraints. The chapter has clearly demonstrated the dynamics and complexities involved when teachers made pedagogical decisions. This study supports Xinmin and Adamson's assertion (2003) that the portrayal of "traditional" teachers as uninformed, authoritarian, and textbook-bound may be too simplistic. Nor did these teachers exhibit "CLT attitudes" and implemented CLT simply because it was a "modern" approach (Bax, 2003). They clearly revealed sound pedagogic principles and complex decision-making guiding their traditional and communicative practices.

5.4 Chapter summary

This chapter has demonstrated that the teachers held conceptions of the subject matter of English and how to present it in ways conducive to English language learning. These teachers considered English language as both a linguistic system and a means of communication, and endorsed principles corresponding to both analytical (traditional) and experiential (communicative) teaching and learning strategies. While participants expressed more positive attitudes towards communicative ends, their views of the usefulness of specific teaching techniques seemed context-dependent. In this way, traditional and communicative practices merged into a common pool of teaching techniques from which they drew on. Except for the two observed lessons that resembled "strong" communicative lessons, most of the observed classes were dominated by traditional, controlled practices with a varying amounts of communicative practices. Apart from the curriculum and commercial textbooks that exerted influences on teachers' practices, their personal rationales aligned with their practices, since they believed in benefits of both traditional and communicative principles and practices. All participants stressed the need to adjust instruction to suit the local Thai context, and student factors including their background knowledge, responsiveness, and English proficiency levels figured prominently in the teachers' pedagogical considerations. Participants also showed an awareness of wider social influences that could affect ELT and learning such as the EFL context of Thailand that did not offer many practice opportunities outside class as well as socio-economic and social disparities.

The role of context has been a major theme in this and the previous chapters, and teachers' micro- and macro-contextual knowledge was found to underpin their affective and pedagogical considerations in ELT. The three considerations (affective, pedagogical and contextual) have therefore been shown to be connected in teachers' decision-making inside the language classroom. The next chapter continues to explore the role of macro-context with specific focus on NES–NNES issues. It provides evidence that teachers draw on their macro-contextual knowledge to negotiate their NNES status and the role of NES models in their English language pedagogy in light of the changing sociolinguistic profiles of English and its role as an international language. Contextual knowledge is therefore another important component of the practical, professional knowledge of these language teachers.

Chapter 6
NNESTs and EFL and EIL Pedagogies in the Thai Context

> There is thus a tension between the realities of multilingualism and multiculturalism and the monolingual assumption and goals dominating English language pedagogy.
>
> (McKay & Bokhorst-Heng, 2008, p. 181)

This chapter further explores participants' contextual considerations concerning the macro-context in which their courses took place. It shows how social-political and sociolinguistic contexts outside the classroom can underpin teachers' classroom decisions by focusing on teacher beliefs about the NES–NNES issues and their relationships to EFL and EIL pedagogies. In this chapter, the term *EFL approach* is shorthand for instruction that sets the NES as the ultimate target and pedagogical model, whereas the term *EIL approach* refers to instruction that questions the exclusive use of NES models and promotes linguistic and cultural diversity embedded in English uses (Jenkins, 2009a; Seidlhofer, 2011). The intent of this chapter is to illuminate complex relationships between teacher principles and language teaching practices in this area, rather than prescribe solutions, or advocate a position. Although issues raised in the NES–NESS debate have been explored from the perspectives of NNESTs, research examining these issues inside the language classroom is as yet limited (Moussu & Llurda, 2008; Rose & Montakantiwong, 2018).

This chapter addresses Research Question 4 that addresses teachers' (self-) perceptions on NES–NNES issues and their perceived impacts on practice. It also addresses part of Research Question 3 by showing how contexts, especially macro-contexts of local and global English uses, influence teachers' principles and practices. The data reported here draw on the semi-structured and unstructured interviews that explicitly asked participants whether and why they considered themselves as NNESs and their past learning experiences with NESTs and NNESTs, as well as stimulated recall interviews following up NES–NNES themes when they emerged from participants and observations. The chapter begins by presenting reasons why participants identified themselves as NNESs. This is followed by analysis of teachers' principles corresponding to EFL and EIL approaches, and the language teaching practices underpinned by these principles. A discussion of these findings in relation to ELT literature is presented at the end of the chapter.

6.1 Personal identities as NNESs

All teachers identified themselves as NNESs and believed that others perceived them in the same way. Ramgopal, Chomkwan, and Dara explained that they were not born and raised in an Inner Circle country:

> I'm not English. Because I was not born in the UK; neither in Europe nor in the US so I don't consider myself as a born English speaker when I know many dialects, right? (Ramgopal, SS)

> I was born in Thailand where Thai is an official language and English does not play much role in a daily life (Chomkwan, SS).

> I was born in Cambodia. It is not a native [English] speaking country (Dara, SS).

Ramgopal's statement "Look at me! Check my skin colour" (SS) and Chomkwan's statement "I cannot change my nationality" (SS) imply that race and nationality are intrinsic to NES status. However, these may be viewed as probable rather than indispensable characteristics of an NES, since Ramgopal stated that if he grew up in an Inner Circle country, he would consider himself an NES despite his Indian ethnicity (SS). Unlike other teachers, Reza emphasized how the ELT profession positioned him as a NNES:

> We are non-native speakers both in terms of language and context. We feel that we are non-native both when we teach and learn. When we read textbooks, it is not our language. When we teach students, it is not our context. We cannot escape from native speakers in whatever dimensions. The textbooks we are using are not produced by us…We want to use their textbooks, texts, and journal articles. We won't accept those produced by Thai people…We are continuously surrounded by their contexts (SS).

Ramgopal believed that he could not become an NES no matter how proficient he was in English because "I was not born [and] raised in the West" (SS). Reza disagreed, and believed that he could turn into an NES of a localized NNS English variety in a similar way he took ownership of the Thai language (his L2): "I am non-native, but this doesn't mean that I cannot turn English into my native language. I can do this. I learned Thai in my own way similar to how Singaporeans have Singlish – their own version of English" (SS).

6.2   Principles regarding EFL and EIL approaches

All participants held principles corresponding to both EFL and EIL approaches, which suggests eclecticism rather than a rigid adherence to a single paradigm. It can also be seen as evidence of contradictions or tensions between monocentric and pluricentric beliefs and practices. This section compares principles associated with the EFL approach and EIL approaches. It then explores how these principles affected participants' professional credibility as NNESTs.

6.2.1   Principles associated with the EFL approach

All participants believed that an NES norm could serve as a model for learners. For instance, Ramgopal asserted that "it's their mother tongue. They [NESs] should be the right person to modelize [be the accepted model for accuracy and fluency]" (SR1). Dara added that "we cannot avoid native speakers. They can serve as a model" (SR3). All teachers also implied this view when they reflected that they perceived their own English to be deficient to some extent in relation to some NES norms. For example, Chomkwan stated that "it's not 100% native-like. I am not as fluent, and sometimes I do not place my tongue and so on 100% correctly" (SR3). Likewise, Reza believed that teachers should aim for "80 to 90% accuracy", but stated that "there may be some aspects that I fall short in because I do not speak English all the time" (SR1). Participants also revealed a belief that English and the L1 should be kept separate. For example, Dara stated that some of his past NNESTs' pronunciations were not good because of L1 interference (UI), while Ramgopal believed that most Asian speakers had "mother tongue weaknesses", and that a good language teacher should know the main L1 versus L2 differences in order to effectively address L1 negative transfer (SR1). Ramgopal and Dara both were of the opinion that those who were able to speak English with a high degree of accuracy made a better impression on listeners. Ramgopal stated that inaccurate grammar and accent could be a source of mockery (SR3), while Dara believed that making a lot of grammatical mistakes might cause listeners to think: "Oh, you don't really learn much English" (SR4). All participants viewed NES varieties as more "natural", "original", and "authentic" than NNES varieties. Ramgopal was most explicit when he argued that NES varieties should be selected as pedagogical norms because of their originality and accuracy:

> We have to respect and admit native are native; non-native are non-native. We should not act smart and take the credit for the native speakers…We have to consider that native speakers are the original speakers of English…We have to first look or check out those pioneers so as to learn the originality. It's important for us to direct students to the native speakers because that's how they should learn. When you learn, learn it right in the first place… (SR1)

Chomkwan and Ramgopal revealed that they did not consider NES norms to be monolithic. Chomkwan raised the issue of selecting a standard accent as a model: "There are various accents. I am not sure which one should be a standard. Even in England, there are northern and southern accents, right?" (SR3) Ramgopal made the same point: that NESs spoke differently due to different geographical locations and cultures, and stated that NNESs "should aim for the best option, but not just focus on only one" (SR4). This option could be both a personal and political choice. Ramgopal and Chomkwan expressed personal preferences for certain NES norms due to their exposure to these varieties through media or NES friends. For instance, Ramgopal reflected that he preferred American English when it came to speaking because "I feel more receptive to their way of communicating" when he listened to his American friends and Christian sermons, but he preferred British English for writing due to his past experience as a learner in the Indian educational system (SS). Chomkwan stated that she particularly liked Hilary Clinton and Oprah Winfrey's accents because "it is clear and easy to understand" (SS). Politically-speaking, Ramgopal preferred American English because "Americans have kind of globalized when it comes to language and business so I think their English stands out from the rest" (SS). Likewise, Dara believed that most Cambodian teachers preferred American English over British English because of American influences on Cambodia: "In Cambodia, Americans now try to influence. They send a lot of Peace Corps [and] the team to train people, and they fund some organizations, and get students to study" (SS). Ramgopal went on to caution against the sweeping generalization that NNESs were always less proficient than NESs: "I'm not saying all. Even there are many Asians who can speak native-like English. Even some are clearer and better than native speakers" (SR1). This statement shows that the NES can be an idealized construct. In other words, teachers may use the term NES to represent an ideal standard English norm from an ideal NES based on their personal preference, even though many NESs may not achieve that level of accuracy and fluency. If this is true, teachers may view some NESs' English competence as somewhat deficient to this standard norm the same way they did with regard to some NNESs.

6.2.2   *Principles associated with the EIL approach*

All participants suggested the need to go beyond NES models. Dara was most explicit, reflecting that NNESs had agency in decisions about to what extent they wanted to approximate a NES model:

This is a kind of model students can choose to follow or not. We cannot avoid the native speakers' voices, conversation features, or accents…[but] we cannot depend on it all the time. We cannot follow 100%...I could say that native speaker is a model, but we can choose to follow or not follow. It's our choice (SR3).

Prioritizing intelligibility over accuracy in speaking (see Section 5.1.2), Dara (SR2; SR3), Chomkwan (SR2; SR3; SR4) and Reza (SR2; SR3) all believed that successful communication could be achieved without adherence to NES norms. Chomkwan stated that "it is unnecessary to pronounce like native speakers" as long as "it is mutually understandable" (SR2). Similarly, Dara was of the opinion that "we are non-native speakers – no need to follow 100%, but make sure it's intelligible" (SR3). Dara and Ramgopal suggested that accuracy was relative. That is, Dara believed that NNES variations were not wrong, but different (SR5), while Ramgopal stated that "English is a funny language. We don't say this is the only way – the absolute way. Maybe [it's correct] for me, but maybe not for the Thais, the Latins, the Philippines and the Singaporeans" (SR4). For Chomkwan (SR3) and Reza (SR3), acquiring an NES accent was an unrealistic goal for their students and themselves. Reza added that having a localized NNES accent was a natural process of L2 acquisition and was now quite acceptable:

It [accent] may play some roles [in maintaining intelligibility], but I think it does not matter much now because everyone has their own unchangeable accent like Singlish, Tinglish [accents]. This is acceptable in a global context. This is natural (SR3).

Referring to the current globalized world, Reza stated that "it's the 21st century. There are English speakers from different countries and races". Dara drew on this same view to legitimize his Cambodian English. He argued that since NNESs had become the majority of English speakers, NESs no longer had the sole ownership of the English language (SR1; SR2; SR3), and "English is a global language so it belongs to anyone" (SR3). He also asserted his right to maintain his Cambodian identity in English: "I still maintain my identity – my [Cambodian] accent. I don't want to follow any native speaker [NES] accent" (SR3). While Ramgopal believed NNESs should respect NESs as English speakers from birth, he viewed that excessive admiration of NES norms could lead to NNESs' self-marginalization:

…some of us, especially the Asians, we thought that, oh, native speakers. Then, we become small, you see? We look up to them, and we can't speak like them…we should not build a wall by saying that we are not native speakers and so we cannot (SR1).

6.2.3 NNESTs' professional credibility

All participants stated that good English proficiency was essential to the ELT profession, and reported continually trying to improve their L2 competence. Chomkwan (UI), Ramgopal (UI; SR1), and Dara (UI) believed that L2 expertise was a criterion used by students to judge a language teacher's effectiveness. For instance, Chomkwan stated that "being a lecturer means that we have to have even more [language] knowledge. This makes us credible" (UI). Ramgopal pointed out that teachers' "mother tongue weaknesses" were potentially a source of mockery by students (SR1). Dara believed that high proficiency, especially native-like speech features, could impress and gain respect from students as the first quotation shows. He added that NNES status did not give him any advantage, as the second quotation shows:

> [I practised English] because I am not a native speaker. I want to be near-native…I want to impress my students and myself. We are teachers. We want to win students' confidence and trust. We need to use English in a very good, effective way and students will trust us. And when they trust us, they will learn… (UI)

> I feel that it's a minus to me. It is not an advantage when they perceive me as a non-native speaker from Cambodia – a developing country…That's why I try to improve to prove that I'm not that bad. I'm not less smart than native speakers (SS).

Like Dara, other participants made statements suggesting that NES norms were the arbiter of L2 correctness, and described their own L2 competence deficiencies with varying degrees of confidence. For instance, Ramgopal believed that "we [NNESs] are not far behind" (SR3). Dara (SS; SR3) and Chomkwan (SS) considered that there was "a long way to go" if native-like competence was the benchmark. For instance, Dara stated that "there is still a long way for me to catch up with native speakers in terms of speaking and pragmatics" (SR3), and accepted that "there are a lot of weaknesses in my English proficiency" (SR5). Reza described his English as "bad", and wanted to improve in all skill areas (SS). Interestingly, examination of interview data revealed that they seemed less negative about their English proficiency within the classroom context. For instance, Chomkwan reflected that she believed her language knowledge was sufficient to teach students (UI). Reza (UI) and Chomkwan (SR2) reported simplifying their English to make it intelligible to students, which suggests that full NS competence may not always be necessary. Dara added that "I'm qualified to teach [these] Thai students because their English is very low" (UI). Both Ramgopal and Dara recounted that, unlike their Thai students, some classes with high-proficiency students were more challenging to teach. Ramgopal stated that teachers had to be much more prepared when teaching ESL Indian students (UI), while Dara added that some Cambodian students would cancel private

lessons if they were not impressed with the teacher's English proficiency (UI). In contrast to the deficiency view, all participants referred to differences rather than errors as a way of legitimizing their NNES features. For instance, Ramgopal viewed his L1 interference as "a slight trace [of the mother tongue], but not errors or mistakes" (SR4), while Dara wished to preserve his identity: "I use Cambodian English. No need to hide my identity because now English doesn't belong only to native speakers, but belongs to the whole world" (UI).

All four teachers believed that NES or NNES statuses could not reliably predict a language teacher's effectiveness. They all argued that a sound knowledge of language teaching methodology was indispensable, and not all NESTs had this. For example, Dara stated that some NESTs were not qualified to teach because they were holiday backpackers without a relevant qualification (UI). Similarly, Ramgopal stated that "native speakers may only talk, but many of them don't know how to impart, manage, motivate, and inspire students" (SR4). Dara (UI), Chomkwan (UI), and Reza (UI) recounted bad and good experiences with both groups of teachers. That is, some local NNESTs used ineffective teaching approaches that focused on grammar (Dara and Reza), and heavily relied on their Thai L1 (Dara and Chomkwan), while some NESTs just "read books to students" (Chomkwan). All three teachers complimented NESTs for teaching English communicatively, although Chomkwan cautioned that this did not always mean that they taught the lessons well, but rather that the lack of a shared L1 provided a strong incentive for students to have to communicate in English. In contrast, Ramgopal (SR4), Chomkwan (SR1), and Reza (UI) believed that NNESTs taught grammar better because they could draw on explicit as well as implicit grammatical knowledge. Dara added that NNESTs' limited L2 competence could motivate them to have a stronger work ethic than NESTs did (SR3).

Furthermore, Ramgopal (SR4), Dara (UI), and Chomkwan (UI) believed that NNESTs might better relate to students because they had been through the L2 learning process. As Ramgopal put it, "if I were a native speaker, it would be hard for me to see the hardship [of learning an L2]" (SR4). The three teachers also added that shared linguistic, cultural, and racial backgrounds could be an advantage for NNESTs. For example, Chomkwan (UI) and Ramgopal (SR1) believed that students felt more comfortable with NNESTs since they shared their L1. While Ramgopal stated that NNESTs with the same racial background could be less threatening for students because "you feel like talking to brothers" (SR2), Dara believed that he could relate to ASEAN students because they had the same cultural backgrounds (UI). In contrast, Chomkwan (UI) and Reza (UI) recounted from their experience as L2 learners of English that NNESTs prioritizing accuracy could be more threatening than NESTs prioritizing

intelligibility. Furthermore, Ramgopal stated that NESTs were preferred for business reasons since they might attract more students, due to the widespread view that NSs were better teachers of English. He viewed it as "a wrong culture" when a teacher was judged based on their skin colour and birth place (UI). Dara reflected on the article "Is a non-native EFL teacher a worse EFL teacher?" (Moszynska, 2007), which he discussed in his SLA course and the text of which he had affixed to his office door:

> I always keep this all the time. What she said really touches my heart because she asked one question: Is a non-native speaker less qualified than native speakers? And she has very strong arguments that this is not true. Non-native speakers are qualified to teach too…The misconception is still strong. Cannot get rid of it overnight...but I can see the situation is changing now…The fallacy is not as strong as it was before (SR3).

The qualities participants assigned to NESTs and NNESTs above reveal an attempt to point out that NES and NNES status is an unreliable predictor of English teachers' effectiveness, since both groups could conduct effective and ineffective lessons. It may also be interpreted as their attempt to maintain professional credibility within the disempowering discourse of native speakerism.

6.3 EFL and EIL influenced teaching practices

This section explores teaching practices underpinned by the participants' principles regarding EFL and EIL approaches. Through stimulated recall interviews, it was possible to capture how these principles informed actual teaching practices.

6.3.1 Practices associated with the EFL approach

Teachers believed that the prescribed textbooks represented an NES norm. Dara (SR1) and Reza (SR1) considered that the English language used in these textbooks was accurate, and served as a good model for learners. Chomkwan commented: "I made use of this teaching material. We are not native speakers, right? We may not pronounce correctly and clearly" (SR1). Ramgopal (SR4), Dara (SR2), and Chomkwan (SR3) pointed out that listening tasks familiarized students with NES varieties. Ramgopal maintained that "when they're used to listening to native speakers, it will help them in understanding", while Chomkwan added that these texts gave students opportunities to listen to NES accents. Chomkwan brought in the feature film *Rio* (OB3; OB4) because she believed that its language was authentic, natural, and real. She also stated that "they [characters] don't speak like a teacher in the classroom. *Farangs*[22] speak quite fast. I want them to get used to those accents". Her allusion to NESs (i.e.

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[22] Oxford online dictionary (2018) defines the Thai word *Farang* as "(among Thais) a European or other foreigner". Nevertheless, the term is used to refer only to European foreigners, excluding Asian foreigners. The

farangs) was confirmed by her definition of authentic material: "some people define authentic materials as those created not for a teaching purpose, made in the native speakers' countries, and using natural language in real situations" (SR3). All participants revealed having made attempts to adhere to NES norms when they modelled the language themselves, especially pronunciation. For instance, Ramgopal reflected on listen-and-repeat that "I want them to know that even I, the teacher, should pronounce like, if not close, just near the native speaker" (SR1). It is within this context that participants expressed the view that they believed their own English to be deficient to that of NES, as these quotations from Chomkwan and Dara show:

> They [students] imitate our pronunciations because they don't know any other source. I try to pronounce as correctly as possible so they can learn from my pronunciation ....students may not hear real native speakers' accents, but I tried to pronounce correctly (Chomkwan, SR2).

> I was trained in teaching pronunciation and I know [how I should pronounce]. But sometimes, I cannot pronounce correctly in the exact same ways as native speakers do. But I try to (Dara, SR2).

Ramgopal (SR3) and Chomkwan (SR2) believed that, as teachers, they could at times model spoken English better than teaching materials because they could adjust features of their speech to be more intelligible to learners. Dara expressed his confidence in modelling NES pronunciation when he reflected that "I'm positive when I can pronounce them [target words] well so no need to listen to native speakers [from the recording]" (SR1). Interestingly, Chomkwan reported intentionally adding a stronger Thai accent to her English to help low-proficient Thai students understand better (SR2). All participants did not make explicit what NES varieties they were teaching except in one episode where Dara compared the American word "soccer" with the British word "football" (OB3). Only Ramgopal and Dara were observed to explicitly endorse NESs as a model in the classroom once. Ramgopal wanted to inspire students to overcome the fear of public speaking, while Dara taught reduced vowels:

> Slowly and surely, you can skip script, and you learn how to speak with eye contacts without any fear, alright? Thai people; Thai country, you need such people who can turn up and speak without script just like a native speaker, right? (Ramgopal, OB2)

> Because we are non-native speakers of English, we often have problems with pronunciations. So here, normally, we pronounce let me. Ok? But native speakers tend

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term is often used as shorthand for NES although it has a wider meaning than the term เจ้าของภาษา (NS), which literally means the owner of the language.

to reduce it to lemme…we find it confusing. We cannot understand it so now you know (Dara, OB5).

Dara reported that he consulted dictionaries and elicited feedback from a NES colleague for conversation models he wrote himself, and believed that he lacked pragmatic competence: "For me as a non-native speaker, I have this problem. I lack pragmatic competence. Some words I cannot use in the right situations. I often ask her [the American colleague] if I can use these words" (SR3).

6.3.2   Practices associated with the EIL approach

In comparison to their view of NNESs being in some respects deficient in their proficiency in English, all participants legitimized NNES features by describing them as different rather than errors as discussed in Section 6.2. Reza (SR1), Chomkwan (SR1), and Dara (SR3) believed that they represented varieties of NNES English, and that it was beneficial to expose students to different English varieties – that is, NES varieties used in teaching materials, as well as NNES varieties from their own speech. For instance, Reza explained that students should be exposed to different accents as the first quotation shows, while Dara argued that NNSs especially from ASEAN nations were the main interlocutors for his students, and therefore his Cambodian English varieties/variations were relevant as the second quotation shows:

> I think that both sides are needed – from teachers themselves and from tapes [recordings from the textbooks]…we can compare them to colours…Today, they listen only to native speakers. They collect the purple colour. If they listen to teachers, they get the red colour. When we can understand different accents, it's like we have collected different colours. British people speak one accent. American people speak with another accent. Japanese people speak with another accent (Reza, SR1).

> English has become a global language and it belongs to everyone. It's the right time for students to change their mindsets. They have to listen to non-native speakers like me…I represent one of ASEAN accents and students have to get accustomed to ASEAN, non-native accents (Dara, SR3).

Ramgopal, Dara, and Reza reported raising students' awareness of English diversity, including telling students that NNESs outnumbered NESs and were main interlocutors (Dara, SR5) and that English variations were normal and not incorrect usage (Dara, SR5; Reza, SR2; Ramgopal, SR4), as well as showing a video clip with English speakers from different linguistic backgrounds to demonstrate that intelligibility could be achieved with different accents and to deter learners' negative views toward accent variations (Reza, SR2). However, only Ramgopal was observed to express these beliefs explicitly to students. He pointed out NNES variations

for the word "director" and told students not to judge the variations: "People may say dʌɪˈɹɛktɚ. It's okay. It depends on a country where they belong like the Philippines. Don't judge them, but the right way is dʌɪˈɹɛktɚ[23]" (OB3). His reflection reveals the interesting interaction between a monocentric belief that there was a "correct" and "near best" way to pronounce the word, and a pluricentric belief that there was no absolute correctness in English, and that different English speakers spoke the word differently "based on the country where they belong". He therefore wanted to deter students from judging others based on their own accuracy criteria (SR3). Prompted by the textbook mentioning Gandhi[24], Ramgopal told a story of Gandhi who overcame the fear of public speaking and challenged British colonizers. He first portrayed Gandhi as "such an introverted shy person" who was afraid of public speaking until, determined to overcome his fear of public speaking, he practiced alone in the jungle and finally became a great orator. He told that Gandhi fought to free India with "Ahimsa, non-violence", and was laughed at when he visited English because he was half-naked without a necktie or a coat. He ended with "a moral lesson", which challenged the students' fear of speaking with NESs:

> My point here is if you think you are weak and cannot speak, I can't practice, my talking is wrong, [and] I'm afraid, you are like Mohammad Gandhi. Practice. Don't be afraid. Don't worry about *Farangs*…When the westerners, native speakers come, don't be afraid. You face them and talk…Practice. Practice makes perfect…(OB3)

Ramgopal revealed his intention was to inspire weak students who were scared to speak and worried by relating "their weaknesses to the worst [weakness] of Gandhi" who overcome his fear with "hard work, dedication, and commitment". He also wanted to challenge the NES–NNES demarcation so that students "should not look up to people too high" (SR3). In addition, Ramgopal reported using a project that was video recorded and required students to interview foreigners, especially NESs, about their cultures. His emphasis on NESs arose from his beliefs that cultural and racial differences could create fear:

> We have Singaporeans, Malaysians, and Indians who speak English. But they're closer to us like you and me, right? So, we talk in a much more relaxed way. When we have a real native speaker, we would check our words our cultures…Not only cultures, but your skin and my skin. We are Mongolian, right? So even though I speak good English as good as, say, westerners, you feel close to me so you feel like speaking to your brother

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[23] I owe special thanks to Dr. Sujinut Jitwiriyanont for his assistance in the phonetic transcriptions. Transcriber confidentiality agreement was signed (Appendix K).

[24] The theme of the unit was "People we admire", which shows late historical figures. The conversation model consists of a dialogue where a character told that he watched a movie about Gandhi and learnt his full name. Ramgopal (OB3) found that the full name in the textbook was incorrect, and wrote down the correct one for students on the white-board.

than when you speak with those from Europe, Australia or the US. We need to break through that (SR2).

All teachers localized parts of taught content by setting it in the Thai or ASEAN context. They often based their decisions on the principle of relating to students' background knowledge (see Section 5.1.3). For instance, Chomkwan asked students to compare Singapore and Thailand due to learners' familiarity with these countries (OB2; SR2), and pointed out a disadvantage of authentic material that it might contain unfamiliar cultural content (SR3). It was not uncommon for teachers to mention local places such as local beaches and parks; for instance, to explain vocabulary and set up role-play scenarios. Dara explicitly stressed the need to adjust the textbook produced in other sociocultural context to suit the local one as the first quotation shows, while Ramgopal complimented the same textbook for having characters from Expanding Circle Countries (e.g. Thailand and Japan) as the second quotation shows:

> Every textbook has bright sides and bad sides. We cannot assume that this book is the best…because this book is published in England [and] in America, how can we use it in Thailand effectively? We can, but we have to supplement it – add content to spice it up. It's like food. American taste is like this, but we have to (re-)cook it and put more favours to make it more interesting… Some parts matches the Thai context, some don't. (Dara, SR2)

> When it comes to the first part of every unit, it's a native speaker, but you find in the conversation [sections] they mix up with any speaker so I think it's a good idea that they mix up with any speaker from the outside circles [the Outer and Expanding circle countries]…They mix up to encourage students who are not native speakers, but who can be part of those in the expanding circle (Ramgopal, SR4).

For most observed lessons, teachers rarely taught students about specific cultures, but when they did, they discussed areas of pragmatic knowledge such as politeness and formality. Unlike other teachers, Ramgopal's intercultural course lessons discussed cultures of different nation states (OB2; OB4). Ramgopal reflected why he put much emphasis on Thai, Vietnam, and other ASEAN nations' cultures: "it's important that they understand very well their culture – Thailand, and the rest of the countries beside Thailand, that is, ten ASEAN nations" so that they were accustomed to these cultures. He also reported contrasting between Eastern and Western cultures in the first lesson to ensure students had "comprehensive ideas about the world cultures" (SR2). Ramgopal added that he brought in Vietnam War to highlight cultural and political conflicts, and to foster moral values of sympathy, love and care (see Section 4.2.3). He believed that "cultural understanding" helped ease conflicts in today's globalized world where different cultures came into contact:

Unless you accept other cultures, you will have cultural clashes or conflicts…
…accepting doesn't mean that I become one of them. Accepting means you let them do
as they like in their cultures. You don't disrespect them…It will let us have a broad
mindset about the world cultures so wherever you go, you need to adapt. We wouldn't
be surprised or shocked because we learn it [other cultures]…we need to accept other
people as who they are as you want others to accept you as who you are (SR2).

6.4   Discussion

With specific focus on the NES–NNES issues, this chapter exemplifies how macro-contextual
influences outside the classroom shape and are shaped by language teachers' decisions (J. K.
Hall & Eggington, 2000; Pennycook, 2016). It was found that participants identified themselves
as NNESs with ease based on similar and different reasons. Their views were eclectic and
corresponded to both (monocentric) EFL and (pluricentric) EIL approaches. While a
monocentric EFL conception of English may put these NNESTs at the disadvantage as far as
linguistic competence is concerned, participants were able to construct their professional
credibility successfully by drawing on EIL principles and the recognition of their other
professional strengths. Participants' views corresponding to EFL and EIL approaches were
drawn on to endorse and challenge the relevance of NES models in their teaching practices.

6.4.1   Teachers' self-perceptions as NNES

Due to the unresolved debate over whether an NES–NNES dichotomy exists, this study relied
on self–perceptions and found that all four teachers could identify themselves as NNESs with
ease. This seems unsurprising since the dichotomy is present in the minds of many speakers
and teachers and widely adopted in professional jargon (Árva & Medgyes, 2000; Medgyes,
1994; Moussu & Llurda, 2008). Reasons for their self-identification as NNESs were also
elicited. For Ramgopal, Chomkwan, and Dara, the NES born in an Inner Circle country who
inherits English through "genetic endowment or through birth into the social group
stereotypically associated with it" (Rampton, 1990, p. 97) seems to serve as a benchmark. Their
reasons included not being born in an (Inner Circle) English-speaking country, not being born
and raised in the West (Ramgopal), English playing minimal role in daily life and not serving
as an official language (Chomkwan), skin colour not typically associated with an NES
(Ramgopal), and a nationality not typically associated with an NES (Chomkwan). Ramgopal
implied that being born into the language rather than the language expertise was a decisive
criterion of a NES, since he believed that he could not turn into a NES no matter how proficient
in English he was. This echoes Davies's (2013) argument that an NNS can satisfy all common
definitions associated with language expertise of an NS, except acquisition of the language in
childhood.

Unlike other teachers, Reza foregrounded the social recognition by relevant speech communities as a major influence on his self-identification as an NNES (Kramsch, 1995, as cited in Huang, 2018; Moussu & Llurda, 2008). He stated that learning and teaching resources were produced by NESs in "their contexts", which was foreign to him and positioned him as a NNES. The effect of ELT teaching materials on learners' self-perceptions as language users has been pointed out by many EIL scholars (Alptekin, 2002; Matsuda, 2012, 2018; McKay & Bokhorst-Heng, 2008). For instance, Cook (1999) has long argued for the inclusion of L2 user roles and situations to show that "successful L2 users exist in their own right and are not just pale shadows of native speakers" (p. 200). Reza seemed to be aware of this when he stated that he could take an ownership of English and turned himself into a NES of a localized NNES variety – a view corresponding to WEs perspective. His position differs from that of Ramgopal, who came from the Outer Circle country of India but did not believe that he could do so. Given that all participants could easily identified themselves as NSs of other languages, this experience of being born into and raised in communities stereotypically associated with these languages might be different from their experience with English acquired in ESL and EFL contexts, and therefore serves as another influence on their self-perceptions. As Mesthrie and Bhatt (2008) point out: "Still, few WE [World Englishes] scholars would argue that there is no difference between ENL [English as a native language] and ESL; the acquisitional contexts, they would insist, are different" (p. 37). This aligns with my personal view that, while the terms NES and NNES are problematic linguistically and while it is difficult to generalize across large populations of teachers, the terms exist socially and serve as one way for English users to express their professional identities.

6.4.2   Principles associated with EFL and EIL approaches

All participants in this study held both monocentric and pluricentric views of English. Corresponding to a monocentric EFL approach, they all expressed clear preference towards NES varieties as pedagogical norms. They regarded these norms favourably using the terms such as "accurate", "standard", "natural", "authentic" and "original", to which NNES English variations were compared deficiently to a varying degree. NES norms were associated with higher social prestige, wider social acceptance, and increasing political influences observed in their local contexts. Ramgopal implied NESs' sole ownership of English when he stated that NNESs should respect NESs as pioneers and original English speakers. Chomkwan and Ramgopal pointed out English variations among NESs and a need to select "the standard" or "the best option", which suggests idealized and abstract NES norms presented in the classroom. Personal preferences based on exposure to certain NES norms, especially British and American varieties, also exerted some influences. This finding – that NNESTs continue to regard NES

norms as an arbiter of accuracy and standards in one way or another – is shared by the empirical studies reviewed in Chapter 2 (see Section 2.4.4.).

Participants also expressed views corresponding to a pluricentric EIL approach, which echoes previous findings. This adds to emerging evidence that the questioning of NES models in EIL scholarship may have begun to take root in the minds of NNESTs. Their views ranged from the acknowledgement of NES models as unrealistic targets (e.g. He & Zhang, 2010; Timmis, 2002), an awareness that comprehensibility and intelligibility can be achieved without strict adherence to NES norms (e.g. C. J. Hall et al., 2015; He & Zhang, 2010; Tajeddin et al., 2018; Young & Walsh, 2010), an emphasis on learners' and users' agency to approximate NES models and to retain their NNES identities (He & Zhang, 2010; Timmis, 2002), the conceptualization of accuracy as relative and plural, the acknowledgement of the legitimacy of NNES varieties in the global context, to the direct challenge to NES authority and the sole ownership of English (e.g. C. J. Hall et al., 2015; Reis, 2011).

Some plausible explanations can account for the participants' co-existence of monolithic and pluricentric conceptions of English. In a sense, this may be viewed as contradictory beliefs that has not been reconciled – a mirror of NES/NNES debate which, in Braine's (2010) view, "is unlikely to be ever resolved" (p. 9). Another reason may lie in the perceived purpose of language teaching within an educational EFL context. As can be seen, participants' support for NES norms reflects a norm-bound orientation in language teaching that sets language accuracy and standardness as an important component of language competence. This echoes the scholarly view that classroom context is prescriptive since learners are committed to acquire proficiency in given standards (Mauranen, 2012; Seidlhofer, 2001), and the previous finding that NNESTs have concerns about grammar, rules and norms (C. J. Hall et al., 2015). In the EFL context of Thailand where there is no other alternative localized norm, a scarcity of EIL teaching resources, and insufficient codifications of NNES norms (Bruthiaux, 2010; Galloway & Rose, 2014; Kirkpatrick, 2006), NES norms then serve as norm-providing pedagogical models in the local Thai context to such an extent that Dara and Reza viewed them as unavoidable and inescapable. This may also be true in the ELT globally as Jenkins (2012) observes: "the prevailing orientation in English language teaching and testing, and ELT materials remains undoubtedly towards ENL [English as a native language] with correctness and appropriateness still widely driven by NES use…" (p. 487). With this wide acceptance and gate-keeping roles of NES norms, it is unsurprising that participants still view these norms as relevant. Nevertheless, they also showed support for a pluricentric view of English by acknowledging the limitations of NES models and questioning NES sole authority to a varying degree. Their

views then concur with a weak version of EFL or EIL approaches, which endorse that localized (NNES) varieties are taught in addition to, not in a replacement of, (NES) standard norms (Kirkpatrick, 2014; Leung, 2005; Mahboob, 2014; Mckay, 2018; Sifakis, 2018).

6.4.3   Professional credibility

The tension between "the monolingual assumption" dominating ELT and "the realities of multilingualism" (McKay & Bokhorst-Heng, 2008) manifested itself most clearly in the ways participants perceived themselves as English language teachers. All participants agreed that good English proficiency was indispensable to teaching effectiveness, and defined this proficiency in terms of NES-like competence. Positioned themselves or being positioned in this way, a varying degree of linguistic insecurity emerged from all participants who considered their NNES features deficient in some ways to NES targets. Their desire to achieve NES-like competence was also driven by a need to build professional credibility, especially in the eyes of learners who might prefer and pay more respect to teachers with NES-like competence – a sign of native speakerism (Holliday, 2006). Similar findings that NNESTs' perceived professional credibility was diminished when they positioned themselves as NNESs have been reported (e.g. Amin, 1997; Figueiredo, 2011; Huang, 2018; Reis, 2011). It also resonates with a previous finding that NNESTs regarded themselves as having lower English competence than NESTs (Árva & Medgyes, 2000; Barrat & Kontra, 2000; Huang, 2018; Ma, 2012; Pothongsunan & Suwanarak, 2008; Reves & Medgyes, 1994; Tang, 1997; Thararuedee, 2012).

Participants' feelings of linguistic (in-)adequacy were found to be contextually dependent. That is, while participants viewed their English proficiency as deficient to their NES targets, they felt confident in or less negative towards their English competence when teaching the students in their classrooms. Ramgopal and Dara added that their levels of confidence could vary depending on the proficiency levels of students. For instance, Ramgopal stated that teaching English to his Indian students who had grown up with English as a medium of instruction in India was more challenging than teaching his Thai EFL students. Some plausible explanations can be offered. It seems that viewing one's English competence as deficient to some idealized NES targets does not necessarily equate to a total loss of confidence or limited English competence. Ramgopal best exemplifies this point when he argued that "we are not far behind" and he had "only a slight trace [of mother tongue influence]". Moreover, participants seem to achieve some threshold of English proficiency required to conduct effective instruction for particular classes they taught. For example, while Dara viewed that it was a long way to go for him to "catch up with" NESs and reported teaching "problems" arising from his perceived limited pragmatic competence, he felt qualified to teach because of his students' limited English

proficiency. It seems likely therefore that the issue might arise only when it became a major obstacle to their teaching effectiveness or professional credibility.

Another reason is that, while participants held a deficiency view with regard to their own English competence, they also resisted it through a metaphor of legitimate differences. Dara best exemplifies this view, by arguing that NNESs no longer needed to follow NESs "100%", that he wished to retain his Cambodian identity, and that NESs no longer had sole English ownership. Moreover, all participants resisted native speakerism by highlighting their unique strengths as NNESs and other factors of professionalism such as a sound knowledge of teaching methodology, a relevant teaching qualification, metacognitive insights into the language, and other advantages due to linguistic, cultural, racial, and educational backgrounds shared with learners. Similar findings emerge from Figueirdo (2011) and Huang (2018) who interpret this as a crucial strategy NNESTs employ to establish their professional credibility.

The perceived strengths of NNESTs found in this study also echo previous findings (Árva & Medgyes, 2000; Barrat & Kontra, 2000; Huang, 2018; Ma, 2012; Pothongsunan & Suwanarak, 2008; Reves & Medgyes, 1994; Tang, 1997; Thararuedee, 2012). Nevertheless, participants inconsistently assigned certain strengths and weaknesses to both groups, which suggest that these perceived strengths and weaknesses are contextually dependent rather than fixed. For instance, while shared L1 was perceived as the strength of NNESTs, it was also their weakness if overused. At the same time, a lack of shared L1 could be a strength of NESTs since it motivated students to communicate in English, but it could also be threatening for some students. Another example is that Ramgopal and Dara did not fit these descriptions because they did not share learners' L1s and promote an English-only policy. However, they were able to draw on students' L1s to their advantage, which is a strategy that can also be used by NESTs. This finding points to a danger of broad generalizations, especially in light of Árva & Medgyes (2000) and Huang's (2018) findings that some perceived strengths and weaknesses assigned to NESTs and NNESTs proved to be inaccurate. In short, this study confirms previous findings (Figueiredo, 2011; Huang, 2018; Reis, 2011) that NNESTs were able to construct their professional credibility successfully although they were at a disadvantage when positioning themselves as NNESs as far as linguistic competence is concerned. Teachers in this study both endorsed and opposed NES models, which sometimes led to tensions in the negotiation of their professional credibility.

6.4.4 EFL and EIL practices

In light of the scant amount of pedagogically-situated studies on this topic to date (Moussu & Llurda, 2008; Rose & Montakantiwong, 2018), this study sheds some light on how teachers' monocentric (EFL) and pluricentric (EIL) conceptions of English impacted on teaching practices. It was found that these two views influenced how participants defined and redefined learning targets, and their roles in helping learners reach these targets. Corresponding to the EFL approach, all participants saw their roles as facilitators and role models who helped learners gained access to NES norms. As facilitators, participants exposed learners to NES norms through commercial and authentic teaching materials. As role models, they exemplified NES norms themselves and provided instruction. While a deficiency view of their own English competence in relation to NES targets emerged, all teachers did not self-marginalize themselves in any obvious way. For instance, although perceiving that her English competence was not "100%" NES-like, Chomkwan asserted that she was as an important model for learners who were rarely exposed to English outside class and that, unlike textbooks, she could adjust her language modelling to suit students' levels of proficiency. Participants did not make explicit for students what NES varieties they were teaching, except in one instance when Dara compared British and American English for one word. Rarely did they mention the terms NS and NNS. Nevertheless, NES models still serve as a goal and dominant pedagogical norms for these teachers.

Although participants reported attempts to model English as closely as possible to their NES targets, they were conscious of NNES features especially in their speech. Their views corresponding to EIL approaches helped redefine these features in a positive light. Not only were these NNES features deemed as legitimate differences, but also exposure to them was regarded as beneficial to learners since it facilitated English communications with English users from various linguistic backgrounds. Dara went further to assert the relevance of his Cambodian English and himself as a representative of Cambodian English users – the main ASEAN interlocutors Thai students were likely to meet than NESs. The move away from strict adherence to NES models manifested itself in practice in three other ways. First, participants shifted the emphasis from accuracy during language-focused instruction to message comprehensibility and intelligibility during meaning-focused instruction as discussed in the previous chapter. Second, all teachers localized teaching content so that it was grounded in learners' local contexts. While their decision was largely based on learners' background knowledge and affect rather than on the direct challenge to the relevance of NES cultural milieu, a connection has been made in EIL literature (e.g. McKay, 2003, 2018).

Third, they reported raising students' awareness of English diversity. However, only Ramgopal was observed to do so (e.g. telling students not to mock other NNES pronunciations and challenging excessive admiration of NESs in the Gandhi episode to boost students' confidence). These reported and observed practices echo (critical) language awareness promoted in EIL approach (e.g. Alptekin, 2002; J. D. Brown, 2012; Kirkpatrick, 2012b; Kubota & Ward, 2000; McKay, 2012). Reis (2011) also found that his NNEST participant challenged the NES authority to empower students to view themselves as expert users rather than failed NESs. Compared to other participants, Ramgopal was the most critical teacher, and he incorporated teaching practices akin to critical praxis, which engages learners with issues of politics and power relations (Byram, 2002; J. K. Hall & Eggington, 2000; Pennycook, 1999; 2016). For example, his narration of Gandhi resonates with the theme of linguistic and cultural imperialism accompanied by the spread of English and the agency of individuals to resist it (e.g. Phillipson, 1992, 2009; Rapatahana & Bunce, 2012). His promotion of mutual cultural understanding echoes intercultural competence (Byram, 1997; Byram, Nichols, & Stevens, 2001). That is, the aim was to promote mutual cultural understanding and respect by reflecting on one's own and others' cultures and to negotiate differences diplomatically to ease conflicts. The critical element was also embedded in the discussion of Vietnam War and in his "ethical lessons" (see Section 4.2.3). As can be seen, Ramgopal's affective, moral, and political lessons merged in practice (Byram, 2002).

This study shows how discussion on the NES-NESS debate and English diversity as promoted by EIL approach filters down to practice. Nevertheless, the dominance of NES models in participants' minds and practices can be interpreted as an ambivalent and contradictory position on the superiority of NES norms (C. J. Hall et al., 2015; Reis, 2011). An alternative interpretation can be that participants acted as political agents negotiating the benefits and costs of NES norms to "prepare learners to be both global and local speakers of English" (Kramsch & Sullivan, 1996, p. 211). That is, they provided learners access to powerful NES norms due to their benefits accrued to those who have them and, at the same time, minimize their negative effects by legitimizing NNESs' approximation and variations so that learners can be confident English users rather than insecure failed NESs. This seems also true for teachers who adhere to and challenge NES models to negotiate their professional credibility. These teachers therefore show how their classroom decisions can be connected to "the larger social and cultural world, reflecting, reproducing and changing that world" (Pennycook, 2000, p.102) with regard to the discourse surrounding the NES–NNES debates in ELT.

6.5   Chapter summary

This chapter has offered an account that exemplifies how socio-political and sociolinguistic contexts surrounding the NES-NNES debate and the global spread of English underpin the NNESTs' principles and practices. Participants viewed the NNES construct as relevant to their personal and professional lives and identified themselves as NNESs with ease. They exhibited both monocentric and pluricentric conceptions of English. While their professional credibility may be seen as diminished when positioning themselves as NNESs, they were able to construct their professional credibility successfully by drawing on EIL principles and arguing for their unique strengths as NNESTs. Their teaching practices seemed to go on as usual with the NES models as dominant pedagogical norms. However, EIL principles helped redefine NNES features in a positive light and build confidence of teachers as legitimate English users in their own right. Apart from the commercial textbooks that dictated pedagogical norms and targets, participants also took into account the local contexts, especially Thai, ASEAN and global contexts of English uses, when endorsing and challenging the NES models. This chapter has demonstrated that teachers' understanding of the more macro aspects of English language pedagogy is another important practical, professional knowledge of these teachers.

My personal view aligns with those of participants that there is no empirical support for the belief that NESTs are better English language teachers than NNESTs because there are many factors of professionalism that determine the teaching effectiveness of English language teachers. Moreover, at the status quo, eclectic approaches that attend to both standard norms and English diversity are needed. This is because standard norms still serve as gate-keeping, powerful norms. At the same time, we need to raise students' awareness of English diversity in today's globalized world and promote multilingual competence to prepare learners to communicate with English users from various linguistic and cultural backgrounds.

The following conclusion chapter reviews the main findings on the NNESTs' principles and practices and draw together the various threads in teachers' affective, pedagogical and contextual considerations in ELT to provide a holistic conceptualization.

Chapter 7
Conclusion

> Studying the dynamics of teaching–learning situations can confront us with a kaleidoscope of detail, which may often seem confusing, contradictory and, at times, rather trivial. And yet, this is where language teaching is lived out, and where the value of principle is put to the hard test of reality
>
> Tudor (2003, p. 9–10)

This chapter summarizes the main findings of the study, and draws on threads in the three main considerations (affective, pedagogical, and contextual) identified in these NNESTs' cognition and classroom practices to propose a holistic conceptualization. Contributions and implications of this study are then discussed. The chapter ends with a discussion of the limitations of the study and suggestions for future research.

7.1 Review of the main study findings

This study aimed to explore the principles and practices of several NNESTs in order to gain an in-depth understanding of them and their English language teaching. Its findings demonstrated that teachers' principles and practices were guided by their affective, pedagogical, and contextual considerations in complex and dynamic ways, and that they drew on their macro-contextual knowledge to negotiate their NNES status and the roles of NES models representing dominant pedagogical norms.

7.1.1 Affective considerations

Chapter 4 provided evidence that affect was a key consideration for teachers, and therefore an ability to attend to learners' affective needs was important practical knowledge of these teachers. Three principles were identified that underpinned a large number of practices in complex and dynamic ways. With *the principle of fostering affect to promote learning*, teachers rationalized the reciprocal relationships between learners' affective states, their engagement and participation, and cognitive language learning. While positive affect was viewed as much more desirable, negative emotions were not always regarded as unproductive. This principle underpinned numerous practices, which can be categorized into eight themes: promoting variety, using affectively appealing materials, adding humour, deterring or responding to negative responses, ensuring task success, making content relevant to students' lives, using the L1 to induce emotional connection and for humorous effect and novelty, using pressure, and providing incentives for students to participate.

All teachers shared *the principle of fostering supporting relations*, believed to create a supportive classroom atmosphere conducive to language learning. Relations among class members were found to be grounded in moral values such as respect, empathy and care. This principle underpinned many practices, including using learning activities that promote peer interactions and bonding, maintaining students' positive self-image, small talk and teasing, drawing on cultures and languages to bond with students, and asserting the teacher's authority. The *principle of fostering moral values as an end goal* was expressed with a varying degree of conviction, most strongly by Ramgopal. While this principle underpinned a few practices of all teachers that aimed to build learners' desirable characteristics such as responsibility and self-confidence, it was at the core of Ramgopal's ethical lessons. This chapter provided ample evidence that teachers' affective considerations were linked with their pedagogical considerations, especially the selection and presentation of taught content.

7.1.2 *Pedagogical considerations*

Chapter 5 explored teachers' pedagogical considerations, which revealed their knowledge of the subject English and principles regarding how to teach it to optimize English language learning. Therefore, the ability to meet learners' (cognitive) language learning needs was an indispensable teaching skill of these teachers. In describing their lesson objectives, participants' views included English as both a linguistic system and a means of communication. They also held *principles regarding traditional, communicative, and contextual approaches.* While participants expressed more favourable attitudes towards communicative approaches, they saw the benefits of traditional practices and the need to adjust instruction and selecting teaching approaches that suited the local context. They attended to *principles of accuracy and message comprehensibility*, and the priority given to these principles could shift within a lesson.

In addition, teachers aimed to facilitate cognitive processes through *the principles of the importance of background knowledge, the importance of maintaining students' attention (i.e. general attention and noticing), revision and repetition, the importance of practice, the use of students' L1, and the importance of exposure to English.* They supported *the principle of cooperative learning and active involvement in learning*. These principles underpinned traditional and communicative practices in task-based and PPP lessons in complex and dynamic ways. Except for Ramgopal's two task-based lessons, all the observed lessons in this study were "PPP" – that is, dominated by traditional, controlled practices with varying amounts of free, communicative activities.

7.1.3 Contextual considerations

As was evident in Chapters 4 and 5, all teachers took into account micro- and macro-contextual factors when attending to learners' affective and learning needs. Therefore, affective, pedagogical, and contextual considerations were linked in these teachers' classroom decision-making. Learner factors figured prominently, including their degree of responsiveness, English proficiency, background knowledge, learning goals, learning styles, and past learning experience. Macro-contextual factors were also taken into consideration, including assumptions about Asian, ASEAN, and Thai cultures and values, and the sociolinguistic realities of education in Thailand. Chapter 6 reported the macro-contextual knowledge of these teachers with regard to the changing sociolinguistic profiles of English that rendered NES–NNES constructs and NES models controversial. All teachers viewed the NNES construct as relevant to their personal and professional lives. Corresponding to *monolithic EFL principles*, they endorsed NES norms as pedagogical models based largely on their prestige of accuracy and standardness. Therefore, knowledge of these pedagogical norms were viewed as indispensable, if they were to conduct effective English lessons and to establish their professional credibility. All teachers expressed a desire to get close to the NES English competence as revealed in their deficit view on their own English proficiency, which varied in the extent to which teachers felt adequate or inadequate.

However, teachers also exhibited views corresponding to *EIL principles* and highlighted the need to go beyond NES models. Reasons given included the fact that full NES competence was unrealistic and unnecessary if communicative success was the goal, the changing ownership of English, the legitimacy of NNES English varieties, the right to maintain one's own identity, the natural characteristic of bi/multilingual users to have their own English accents, and the role of English as a global language in the globalized world where exposure to linguistic and cultural diversity was generally considered beneficial to learners. With regard to practices, teachers provided instruction based on NES norms. However, EIL principles were drawn on to set a realistic target for learners, to redefine teachers' NNES features in a positive light, and to establish their professional credibility. Participants reported wanting to raise learners' (critical) language awareness, and Ramgopal was observed to try to do this in practice. Macro-contextual knowledge (i.e. socio-political knowledge in ELT) was therefore vital for these teachers to counter native speakerism (Holliday, 2006) and establish professional credibility. However, knowledge of NES norms was equally important, since they served as dominant pedagogical models and as another means for these teachers to demonstrate their subject matter expertise to establish their professional credibility.

7.1.4   Summary

This research aimed to explore the principles and practices of the NNESTs. Examination of the teachers' principles and practices revealed that their abilities to attend to learners' affective needs, to optimize (cognitive) language learning, and to adjust instruction to suit a particular group of students in a particular classroom context were crucial components of their practical, professional knowledge. Teachers also had macro-contextual knowledge surrounding the NES–NNES debate, and were able to draw on this knowledge to construct professional credibility, negate native speakerism, and negotiate their NNES features in a positive light, together with the use of the NES models as dominant pedagogical norms, with which, at times, they compared their own English proficiency.

7.2   A holistic conceptualization

It is evident from the findings of this study that the NNESTs are language teachers with complex sets of principles that shape their practices in complex and dynamic ways (Borg, 2015; Freeman, 2002; Kubanyiova & Feryok, 2015). The diagram below provides a holistic conceptualization of principles and practices of these teachers.

Figure 7.1. A holistic conceptualization of the NNESTs' principles and practices
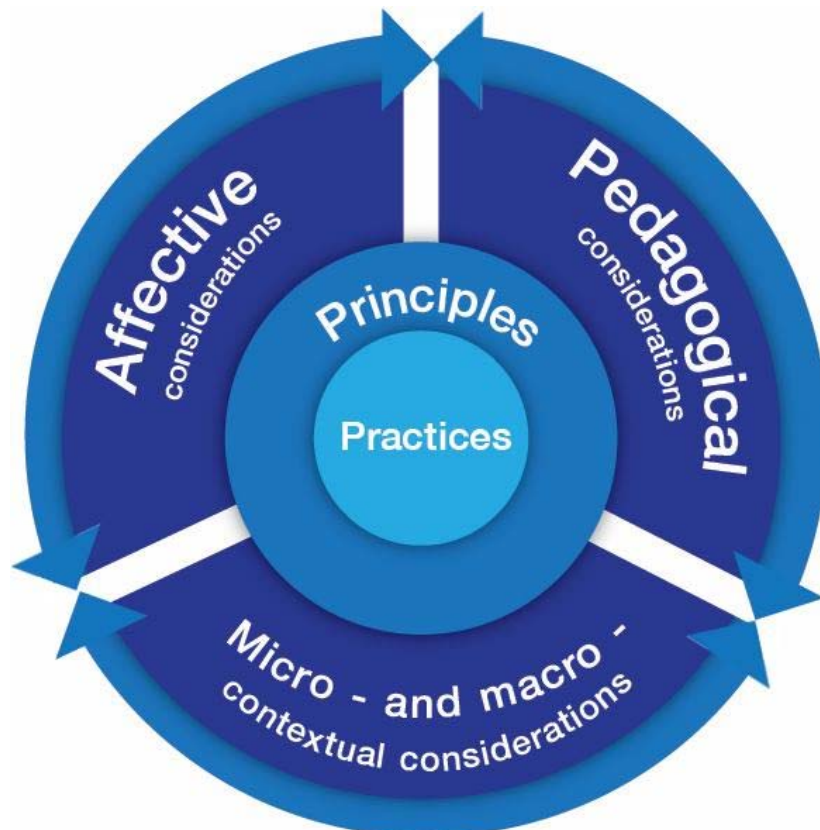
The outer circle encircled by an arrow shows that the teachers' affective, pedagogical, and contextual considerations were united in the aim of optimizing English language learning. This suggests their abstract conceptualization of language learning as a complex undertaking that involved affective, cognitive, and (social) contextual dimensions that needed to be kept in a state of dynamic equilibrium. These teachers took responsibility for adjusting their instruction to meet learners' affective and (cognitive) learning needs in specific classroom (social) contexts. To do so, more abstract considerations were translated into practically-oriented principles (Breen, 1985; Breen et al., 2001) that underpinned myriad concrete actual practices. Although they were separate in the presentation of the findings, in reality, they are interrelated, inclusive, and inextricably linked with the blurring of boundaries represented in Figure 7.1 by different shades of blue rather than clear cut black and white.

While it is not the intention of this research to theorize the relations between principles and practices, the analytic, bottom-up approach adopted for this study allows the dynamic and complex nature of principles and practices to reveal themselves from the perspectives of these teachers, which showed that the three considerations, principles and practices can interact in complex, often unpredictable ways. Based on the evidence in Chapters 4, 5, and 6, some patterns can be identified. Firstly, the participants' teaching behaviours could be affectively-oriented, pedagogically-oriented, (socially) contextually-oriented, or several of these in different combinations. Taking the use of students' L1 as an example, it was used to teach grammar (i.e. pedagogical), to bond with students (i.e. affective and relational), and to teach vocabulary and give students an opportunity to laugh at their teacher's foreign Thai accent, which was believed to create a positive classroom atmosphere and close the teacher–student gap (i.e. pedagogical, affective, and relational). The use of L1 and its perceived value were also contextually-dependent, including factors such as students' limited English proficiency, unfamiliarity with speaking in English due to the Thai EFL context, and teaching aims (e.g. L1 was valued when teaching grammar, but not speaking). Ramgopal's "ethical lessons" merging moral and political lessons to dispel students' lack of confidence to optimize English language learning is one example of how the three considerations were inextricably linked. In addition, one principle usually underpinned different practices. For example, the principle of fostering affect to promote learning gave rise to myriad practices that were categorized under eight themes (see Section 7.1.1.) In short, complexity and dynamism arose from the fact that one practice is underpinned by different principles and one principle can give rise to different practices (Breen et al., 2001).

Another source of dynamism and complexity came from the teachers' principles of balance (Senior, 2006) and eclecticism (G. Hall, 2011; Kumaravadivelu, 2006a; Widdowson, 2003), leading to negotiations, with or without tensions. That is, principles and practices that seemed contradictory could co-exist harmoniously side by side. For example, the English-only policy and the teachers' use of learners' L1 existed together. In contrast, teachers' negotiations of different principles and practices can sometimes lead to tensions (Mak, 2011; Phipps & Borg, 2009). For instance, Reza described feeling tension when he attempted to strike a balance between maintaining his authority and closing the teacher–student (social) gap in order to foster an affect conducive to language learning. Eclecticism was also evident in pedagogical considerations regarding approaches that the teachers used as a result of the need to adjust instruction to suit students and the local context. Another example of eclecticism is the co-existence of EFL and EIL principles in teachers' cognition, which led them to endorse and oppose the relevance of NES models and to negotiate their professional credibility that, at times, resulted in some tensions.

Another source of dynamism and complexity was that teachers' decisions to apply certain principles and to what extent they applied them in practice were contextually dependent and selective (Borg, 2015; Johnson, 2016; Kubanyiova & Feryok, 2015), and teachers spoke of needing to be mindful of the fact that each class is different and needs to be taught in a different way. Moreover, the application of principles in practice seemed not to be a rational and exact calculation, but imbued with ambiguous moral, value-laden, and relational dimensions (Crookes, 2009; Johnston, 2003). While general themes of principles and practices could be identified, suggesting a more collective pedagogy (Breen et al., 2001), personal idiosyncrasies in the ways participants described their principles and practices were also evident. Teachers' personal experience as language learners and language teachers, as well as their disciplinary knowledge, were drawn on to support their principles and practices[25] (Borg, 2015; Johnson, 2016). In short, it is obvious that language teaching through an examination of these teachers' principles and practices is a highly complex and dynamic entity, and the three considerations, principles and practices merged and interacted in complex and dynamic ways that defy neat conclusions regarding the precise nature of their relations. Because of this complexity and dynamism, contrasts between principles and practices are clearly relative and contingent rather than absolute and fixed. For instance, the theme *promoting variety in teaching*, which captures

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[25] Participants' reflections on their past learning and teaching experiences, as well as disciplinary knowledge, emerged inductively during stimulated recall interviews, and I excluded semi-structured and unstructured interview data here wherein I invited them to reflect on their past experiences.

diverse practices, can be considered as a principle itself, underpinned by a more abstract principle of *fostering affect to promote learning*.

The conceptualization presented in Figure 7.1 is supported by findings from teacher cognition research from general education that teachers' concerns about learners' emotions (i.e. affective considerations) are inextricably linked with the cognitive side of the work including taught content and curriculum (i.e. pedagogical considerations) and that teachers' decision-making is grounded in a specific local context (i.e. contextual considerations) (e.g. Hargreaves, 1998; Rosiek, 2003; Zembylas, 2007). It also resonates with Allwright's (1996) and Senior's (2002, 2006) claims that language teachers' behaviours were pedagogically and socially driven, and therefore a language classroom consists of a wide range of interdependent pedagogic and social processes.

7.3 Implications

7.3.1 Implications for research and scholarship

The main intention of this research is to contribute to studies on NNESTs in the TESOL field. Research to date has focused primarily on teachers' NNES characteristics, and elicited perception-based data related to NES–NNES issues that are not grounded in actual teaching practices. By combining evidence from interviews, stimulated recall interviews, and observations, this study offers insights into NES–NNES issues grounded in a holistic understanding of NNESTs' principles and practices. First, the study demonstrated how the NNESTs implemented this macro-contextual knowledge. That is, they drew on the argument of the unique contribution of NNESTs and EIL principles to establish their professional credibility and redefine NNES features in a positive light, and their principles were eclectic corresponding to both EFL and EIL approaches. Second, the effects of NES–NNES issues were contextually-dependent. The NNESTs did not marginalize themselves in any obvious way inside the classroom, possibly because they had reached the English proficiency threshold level required to teach their students, and were therefore able to construct professional credibility successfully. This echoes Moussu and Llurda's (2008) view that the portrayal of NNESTs with constant fear of students' judgments and with low self-esteem due to their NNES status can be an overstatement. It also confirms Braine's (2010) speculation that NNES status may not be a major issue in an EFL context where little competition between NNESTs and NESTs for language teaching careers exists. In short, while NES–NNES issues are relevant to NNESTs, its effects in practice may vary among individuals and across teaching contexts.

Most importantly, it is evident that the NNESTs had other teaching concerns and priorities (i.e. affective, pedagogical, and contextual considerations), which rendered NES–NNES issues of lesser importance. This study therefore supports previous studies (Árva & Medgyes, 2000; Huang, 2018) that challenge the premise that the classroom behaviours of NNESTs are largely influenced by their NNES status and linguistic competence. In other words, NNESTs are and should be conceptualized primarily as language teachers with complex mental lives that shape practices in complex and dynamic ways, rather than in essentialising accounts that overemphasize NNES status as a primary explanation for their classroom actions.

This study has also responded to the calls by Moussu and Llurda (2008) and Braine (2010) to diversify research topics that move away from an emphasis on NNESTs' self-perceptions about their NNES status and towards a general understanding of language teaching conducted by NNESTs, which needs to include examination of classroom practices. As stated in the Introduction, such studies need to employ observations, and to "consider the differences among NNSs, and therefore will have to look for some patterns of generalization without losing track of the essentially individual nature of what may be called "the art of language teaching""" (Moussu & Llurda, 2008, p. 340). Through a comparison of the similarities and differences of principles and practices of four NNESTs with different linguistic and cultural backgrounds and triangulation between interviews and observations, this study makes a contribution to the field by shedding light onto the complex and dynamic realities of language teaching involving NNESTs. Moussu and Llurda (2008) believe that a methodological shift toward observation of teaching practices will surely bring a new set of topics that rescues the field from stagnation and moves it forward. My study offers affective, pedagogical, and contextual considerations as a new set of topics worthy of further investigations. It is hoped that the diagram shown in Figure 7.1 will provide an initial step for future studies examining the complexities of language teaching inside the classroom involving NNESTs.

The findings on affective, pedagogical and contextual considerations also contribute to (language) teacher cognition research. As Borg (2003, 2015) suggests, much research has been conducted with NESTs, and the knowledge base for NNESTs is very limited (Zhang & Zhan, 2014). This study therefore adds to the knowledge base for NNESTs and ELT. The findings on affective considerations, in particular, make a valuable contribution, since there have been repeated calls to shed light on how (language) teachers attend to learners' affective needs (Lamb, 2017; Rosiek, 2003; Zembylas, 2007). In response to such calls, this study has offered a complex and dynamic account of how NNESTs attended to learners' affective needs in practice.

7.3.2 Implications for practice and second language teacher education

It is widely accepted that language teachers' personal practical knowledge can serve as an important knowledge base for English language professionals and second language teacher education (Freeman & Johnson, 1998; Freeman, 2018). The implications for practice and second language teacher education are now discussed. The findings of this study echo the conceptualization of language teaching as complex, dynamic, locally-situated, and affected by a variety of micro- and macro-contextual factors (e.g. Allwright, 2005; Borg, 2015; Tudor, 2003). It is hoped that this study raises an awareness of stakeholders in Thai and other similar contexts to consider the teaching realities language teachers face, and to make sure they are provided with adequate support.

Regarding affective considerations, this study found that an ability to attend to learners' affective needs was an indispensable teaching skill of these teachers, and the process of doing so was found to be complex and dynamic. It is hoped that this study adds to the knowledge base in this area, and serves as a prompt for discussion among language teachers and in language teacher education courses, given that advice for teachers often takes the form of theoretical discussion rather than practical practice-based suggestions (Gregersen & MacIntyre, 2014) and the importance of affective and relational dimensions of ELT have tended to be marginalized and given much less research attention than the cognitive dimension (Ellis, 2001; Oxford, 2010; Swain, 2013; Wright, 2005). Three points merit further comment. Firstly, this study found that the "rational", "relational" and "value-laden" views of affect merged in practice. The relational and value-laden dimensions of ELT may need to be given more emphasis in discussions in language teacher education, as noted by Johnson (2003) and Mangubhai (2007). Secondly, teacher educators may need to raise language teachers' awareness of the fact that the success of affect-related teaching strategies is contingent on local contexts and the particular persons involved (Lamb, 2017). Lastly, teacher educators are advised to explore the links between affective and pedagogical sides of language teaching in a methodology course instead of treating them separately, given that the two dimensions were found to be interwoven (Rosiek, 2003).

Regarding pedagogical considerations, this study found that the NNESTs were confident that they were able to make their own pedagogical evaluations and decisions based on the argument that instruction needed to be adjusted to suit the local context and a particular group of students. Their principles and practices can therefore be described as principled, but eclectic (Kumaravadivelu, 2003). One way to develop language teachers' autonomy in language teaching might be to promote discourse around the post-method condition (Kumaravadivelu,

1994, 2006b) or enlightened eclectic approach (H. D. Brown, 2007b), which encourage teachers to theorize their own practice and prepare them to deal with imposed methodologies not congruent with their local contexts. Exposure to different language teaching approaches would also be beneficial, and would serve as a knowledge base for teachers to draw on when making eclectic pedagogical decisions.

As evident in the discussion above, affective and pedagogical considerations are grounded in contextual considerations, and therefore an inextricable link between the three could be explored and reflected upon in second language teacher education and through teaching methodology courses. This study also found that the NES–NNES issues were relevant to these NNESTs, who were able to draw on macro-contextual knowledge (i.e. socio-political knowledge surround the NES-NNES debate) to build their professional credibility and negotiate the roles of NES models, and their NNES varieties/variations. It would be helpful if teacher educators could create opportunities for all language teachers to reflect critically on their beliefs about NES–NNES issues and expose them to alternative views that challenge native speakerism (Holliday, 2006) so that language teachers could be empowered to view themselves as legitimate English users regardless of their NES–NNES status. Given that knowledge of NES norms was also viewed as necessary for the NNESTs to a certain extent, NNESTs needed be given an opportunity to improve their English proficiency. This study supports Kamhi-Stein's (2009) recommendation that both English proficiency development (a more common practice in L2 teacher education in EFL contexts) and discourse that challenges the view that NESTs are inherently superior and more effective than NNESTs (a more common practice in ESL contexts) needs to be part of second language teacher education. This study also supports the view that teachers' understanding of the more macro dimension of English language pedagogy (i.e. the socio-politics of ELT) needs to be considered as part of their practical knowledge and expertise (J. K. Hall & Eggington, 2000; Pennycook, 2016), and deserves an explicit discussion among language teachers and in second language teacher education courses. Given the context-dependent nature of language teaching, teacher training in tertiary levels in Thailand should not only equip teachers with general knowledge about English language teaching, but also to prepare them to be inquirers into their own principles and teaching practices.

7.4   Limitations of the study

One limitation of this study is that its data set was drawn from only four to five interviews and four to five observations of the lessons of four teachers. The breadth and depth of the data would have been more achieved with more interviews and observations, although this type of research is always limited by the amount of data possible for a single researcher to collect and analyse. Issues regarding the transferability of the study findings have already been discussed in Section 3.5.3. It is hoped that the core principles and practices reported in this study will be tested empirically by SLA researchers or others following a process–product paradigm, which would enhance the analytical generalization of the study findings.

In retrospect, direct questioning of their principles that elicit more abstract, theoretical knowledge would have been fruitful and help to enrich the data reported in this study, although it may also have sensitized participants too much to its research interests that may have increased the chance of participants' presentational responses, especially when their practice-oriented cognition was of interest. For example, while this study found eight affect-related teaching strategies that emerged inductively from the interview and observational data, asking teachers to explicitly list their own strategies and rank them would be another fruitful research area. It would help to determine to what extent affect-related strategies are part of good teaching, and more explicit awareness of this dimension is needed. Teachers may have other principles that form part of their practical knowledge, and their views on their language teaching may change. Therefore, the findings of this thesis should be treated as tentative and exploratory, since relatively little is known about what happens inside the classroom involving NNESTs, and, therefore "the route is open and unexplored" (Moussu & Llurda, 2008, p. 340). Another potential threat to validity is the "observer's paradox" (Labov, 1972; K. Richards, 2003) in which the researcher's presence can influence participants' responses and behaviours. To minimize this, I attempted to build rapport with participants (see Section 3.5.1), and any effects of my presence during observations were lessened because all participants reported familiarity with being observed, since it was a common practice when they had been pre-service teachers, and also in their current professional lives. As Dara stated:

> It is a normal thing for me…because I have been observed many times, since I started [teaching]. Also, some professors [colleagues] came to observe [me] too. Because I have an experience like this for a long time since I was in Cambodia, it's not a problem (UI).

Interviews, especially stimulated recall interviews, might also have had some impact on the validity of the data, because the teachers might invent post-hoc rationalizations (Basturkmen, 2012; Borg, 2015) or be unable or unwilling to reveal certain beliefs (Pajares, 1992). The quality of interview data also rested largely on participants' verbal skills and words available to them (Basturkmen et al., 2004; Gass & Mackey, 2000). While this seems hard to avoid, future research may want to minimize these issues to the fullest extent possible. Another limitation is the stance I adopted, which views teachers' principles as legitimate forms of knowledge that can serve as an important knowledge base in ELT and second language teacher education. However, one critique of language teacher cognition research is that its assertions about effective teaching or the practices of teachers are not grounded in pre–post instruction comparisons of language learning outcomes (Borg, 2015). Since I did not investigate learners' perspectives or the effects of instruction on learning, the study cannot make any claims as to the effectiveness of teachers' practices. Therefore, the limitations of my interpretation of the findings rest on one's epistemological stance toward language teachers and teacher knowledge (i.e. whether teacher knowledge is legitimate), and I acknowledge that other perspectives exist and are equally valid.

Notwithstanding the limitations of this study, most of which are inherent in all qualitative, case study research, it is also hoped that this thesis has achieved its primary purpose of an in-depth understanding of these NNESTs' core principles and practices in order to shed light on the complex and dynamic realities of their English language teaching and what it means to be NNESTs in tertiary education in Thailand.

7.5   Suggestions for future research

While it is hoped that this study has offered valuable insights into the principles and practices of the NNESTs in a Thai tertiary context, it has necessarily involved a relatively small number of teachers in one context within a relatively short duration of the data collection. Future inquiries might therefore investigate NNESTs in similar or other contexts with a longer duration of data collection period (e.g. longitudinal studies) so that the day-to-day language teaching conducted by this group of teachers and challenges they face both as NNESs and English language teachers can be better captured.

It would be of great interest to this researcher to explore more specifically into the unique linguistic and cultural repertoires the participants brought with them to enrich classroom experiences for their learners. Future studies could therefore recruit a diversity of NNES subgroups and examine this issue in greater depth. Moreover, future studies could focus solely on NNESTs' self-perceptions regarding their NNES status and explore in greater depth how

this informs their actual practices. However, such inquiries would need to be grounded in the complex realities of English language teaching. As this study has shown, NNESTs are language teachers who are involved with multi-faceted decision-making obligations inside the classroom, and NES–NNES issues may not be their primary concerns. Future studies may also need to exercise some caution if an NES–NNES lens is to be used as a primary explanation for classroom behaviours of NNESTs or the differences of teaching practices between NNESTs and NESTs.

Through examination into the NNESTs' principles and practices, this study offers a glimpse into the language teaching repertoire of these teachers. Affective, pedagogical, and contextual considerations provide "a new set of [research] topics" (Moussu & Llurda, 2008, p.340) that can be further investigated singly or in combination. The role of affective and relational considerations in second language teaching to adults, in particular, is a promising area of research, because at present relatively little is known about how (language) teachers attend to learners' affective needs (Lamb, 2017; Pavlenko, 2013; Rosiek, 2003; Zembylas, 2007) regardless of NES–NNES status, and the importance of the teacher–class group as well as teacher–student relationships. It is hoped that this study might inspire other researchers to explore what happens inside the classroom involving NNESTs so that this study's findings and its proposed conceptualization of NNESTs' principles and practices (see Figure 7.1) can be further enriched or modified.

7.6   Final remarks

The intention of this study was to explore what happens inside the language classroom involving NNESTs from the perspective of those who are best to provide it – namely NNESTs themselves. Through the examination of the four NNESTs' principles and practices, its findings have clearly shown the dynamic, complex and messy realities of English language teaching as these four teachers attempted to meet learners' affective and language learning needs, and adjusted their instruction to suit a specific group of learners in a particular (social) classroom context. The study has also provided a glimpse into what it is like to be NNESTs, who have had to negotiate their NNES status at a time when English is becoming or has become highly dominant as an international language and the language of academic research and scholarship, and when NES norms, as ever, are the dominant pedagogical norms. With the evidence that EIL discourse has begun to filter down into practice, the native speaker fallacy is now being questioned, and it is likely that in the future NNESTs will be regarded more positively in light of the increased awareness and acceptance of English diversity. However, I believe that politics of language will exist for a long time and there will continue to be be tensions between standard

norms regulated by language policy, and English diversity. In the future, some NNS countries may develop their own standard norms, which will serve as a powerful gate-keeping role and will be further challenged by more acceptance of English diversity. It is hoped that the "take-home" points of this thesis– teachers' (personal) affective(–relational), pedagogical, and contextual considerations in their principles and practices – do justice to these teachers and the English language teaching they conducted. It is also hoped that they will provide a platform for readers to reflect critically on what may have been unconsidered principles and practices, and dispel some preconceptions they may have had about what it is like to be a NNEST. It is also hoped that this research turns "the route [that] is open and unexplored and the vastness of the task [that] may appear discouraging" into an engaging, inspiring and interesting one (Moussu & Llurda, 2008, p. 340).

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Appendices

Appendix A: Advertisement

Project Title: <u>Cognitions and practices of non-native English teachers with regard to English as an International Language (EIL)</u>
Name of Researcher: Pariwat Thararuedee
Name of supervisor: Dr Rosemary Wette

Dear teachers,

This notice is on behalf of Mr. Pariwat Thararuedee, a PhD student in Applied Language Studies and Linguistics at the University of Auckland. He would like to invite you to take part in a research project.

The aim of the project is to investigate what non-native English teachers think, know, and believe about teaching English in the Thai context, and how this relates to their teaching practices.

The project will involve allowing me to observe and video-record 8-10 hours of your usual classroom teaching sessions, and to interview you about your teaching after each observation. Your time commitment would be 8-10 interviews of 40-45 minutes over a 10-12 week period. I would also like access to course documents and the materials you produce for your classes. Students will not be part of this study, and I will position the video-camera so that they are not recorded.

Taking part in this study give you an opportunity to reflect on your teaching experiences, as well as helping me to understand how your teaching is shaped by your own beliefs, and by the context in which you work.

Your participation in this project is entirely voluntary. Your Principal/Head of Department has given an assurance that participation or non-participation in this project will have no employment consequences for you.

If you might be interested in taking part in the study, or would like some further information, please e-mail Mr. Pariwat Thararuedee at: ptha186@aucklanduni.ac.nz. He will send you a Participation Information Sheet for you to read before you agree to take part in this project.

This project has been approved by the University of Auckland Human Participants Ethics Committee on 28th October 2015 for a period of three years. Reference Number: 016074

Appendix B: Profiles of courses

1. Courses taught by Chomkwan

Four lessons from two courses were observed, including two lessons from English 2 and two lessons from English Conversation. The details of the courses are as follows:

1.1 English 2

The course description outlines the course objectives as "advanced vocabulary and grammar, listening and speaking practice in daily conversation with appropriate expressions, reading more complex articles; writing longer and more complex sentences and articles". The prescribed textbook for this course is Four Corners 2 by Jack C. Richards and David Bohlke (2012). The table below reproduces the overview of taught content written in the course outline.

Week	Topic	Content
1	Shopping	Introduction Describe and compare products Bargain
2	Shopping	Describe how clothing look and fits Discuss good place to shop
3	Fun in the city	Say what people should do in the city Ask for and give a recommendation
4	Fun in the city	Make comparisons about their city Discuss aspects of a city
5	People	Ask and talk about people from the past Express certainty and uncertainties
6	People	Describe people they admire Describe people who make a difference
7	Unit Test I	
8-9	Midterm Exam	
10	In the restaurant	Talk about menus and eating out Order food in a restaurant
11	In the restaurant	Ask about and describe food experiences Describe restaurant experiences
12	Entertainment	Talk about their movie habits and opinions Ask for and give suggestions
13	Entertainment	Report the result of a survey Describe important singer and musicians
15	Time for a change	Give reasons for personal change React to good and bad news
16	Time for a change	Make predictions about the future Discuss their dreams for the future
17	Unit Test Π	
18	Final Exam	

1.2 English conversation

The course outline does not list any course objective or description. The teaching materials are teachers' compilations. The table below presents taught content written in the course outline.

Week	Hours	Topics/Content
1	1-3	Overview of the course • Revision of grammar and structure • How to make questions in English
2	4-6	Getting to know you • Greeting • Parting
3	7-9	Introducing oneself and others • Formal • Informal
4	10-12	Socializing • Requesting • Offering
5	13-15	Socializing • Thanking • Apologizing • Clarifying
6	16-18	Expressing feelings and opinions • Giving opinions • Making suggestions
7	19-21	Taking about • Current issues • Past experiences
8	22-24	Telephoning • Inviting • Making an appointment
9		Midterm examination
10	25-27	Asking for information
11	28-30	Giving direction and location • Prepositions and phrases for location
12	31-33	Taking about jobs and workplaces
13	34-36	Making a presentation • Characteristics of good presentation
14-15	37-42	Making a presentation
16	43-45	Revision of final exam
17		Final exam

2. Courses taught by Reza

Three observed lessons were all from Foundation English: Listening and speaking.

2.1 Foundation English: Listening and speaking

The course description written in the course outline states "developing listening and speaking skills based on topics in everyday life; listening for gist and details; grammar and language functions necessary for communicative purposes." It also lists three course objectives including "students should be able to 1) grasp main ideas of the conversation using context, 2) communicate and respond to basic daily life conversations and 3) improve one's own English listening and speaking skills for daily life communication and for future careers." The taught content was taken from the lesson topics in Talk Time 2 by Susan Stempleski (2006) as reproduced below:

1)	Jobs/ Daily activities	6) At city square/Public Transportation
2)	Current activities/ Feelings	7) At a supermarket/ Clothes and colors
3)	People we admire/ Cities	8) Shops and stores/ Places around town
4)	On the weekend/ On vacation	9) Hobbies/ Indoor exercise
5)	Entertainment/Music	10) Travel plans/ Trip preparations

3. Courses taught by Ramgopal

Four lessons were observed. Two observed lessons came from Foundation English: Listening and speaking and two observed lessons came from Intercultural Communication.

3.1 Foundation English: Listening and Speaking (see Section 2.1)

3.2 Intercultural Communication

The course objectives written in the course outline states "Nature and differences of interpersonal communication among people of different languages and cultures; language use in social context; verbal and non-verbal languages in different cultures especially in the ASEAN context". There is no prescribed textbook. The content in the course outline is reproduced below:

Week	Activity	Topics
1	Orientation	Definition/ Importance/ Awareness
2	Unit 1	Thailand: Cultures/Etiquette, Dos & Donts
3	Unit 2	Laos: Cultures/ Etiquette, Dos & Donts
4	Unit 3	Vietnam: Cultures/ Etiquette, Dos & Dont
5	Unit 4	The Philippines: Cultures/Etiquette, Dos & Donts
6	Unit 5	Cambodia: Cultures/Etiquette, Dos & Donts
7	Unit 6	Forum & Group Presentation
8	**Individual Interview**	
9	Unit 7	Myanmar: Cultures/Etiquette, Dos & Donts
10	Unit 8	Singapore & Malaysia: Cultures/Etiquette, Dos & Donts
11	Unit 9	Indonesia & Brunie: Cultures/ Etiquette, Dos & Donts
12	Unit 10	India & China: Cultures/Etiquette, Dos & Donts
13		Field Interview & Video Report
14		Field Interview & Video Report
15	Unit 1 to 10	Review
16	**Final Examination**	

4. Courses taught by Dara

Five lessons were observed, three of which come from Foundation English: Listening and Speaking and two of which come from English Conversation 1.

4.1 Foundation English: Listening and Speaking (see Section 2.1)

4.2 English conversation 1

The course description states "features and functions of conversation English in various situations; conversational practices in English in different contexts; developing essential English conversation skills for social interaction". It also lists the following course objectives:

The course will enable students to:

- understand features and functions of conversational English in various situations
- participate appropriately in conversational contexts similar to those previously learned
- improve English conversation skills essential for real-life social interaction
- discuss personal problems and points of view

The commercial textbook Speak Now 3 by Jack C. Richards and David Bohlke (2012) is used. The content in the course outline is reproduced below:

Date and theme	Lesson	Conversation	Listening and pronunciation
People	1 I'm an only child.	Asking about and describing family relationships	Stressing important words
	2 She's a born leader.	Asking about and describing someone's personality type	Listen for personality types
	3 We're both reliable.	Describing similarities and differences between people	Stress shifts
	4. As I was saying…	Interrupting politely and returning to a topic	Listen for interruptions
Vacation	5. I'd like to check in.	Checking into a hotel	Linking sounds
	6. Here are some rules.	Saying what is and isn't allowed	Listening for rules
	7. There are some problems.	Stating and addressing problems	Reduction of and
	8. That would be great.	Offering and accepting or declining help	Listen for offers
Mid-Term			
Errands	9. Do you know…?	Asking indirect questions	Intonation when requesting information
	11. Can I please…?	Making appointments Confirming information	Reduction of let me and give me
	12. I'm broke.	Making recommendations Acknowledging recommendations	Listen for recommendations
Stories	13. I used to play hopscotch.	Asking and reminiscing about childhood	Reduction of used to and use to
	14. She said she was sorry.	Reporting what someone said	Listen for reported speech
	15. I read an unusual story.	Talking about news Adding information	Reduced vowel sounds

Appendix C: Interview questions

C1: Interview questions for the first semi-structured interviews

Below is a list of possible questions. I will ask only a selection from this list in each interview – depending on participants' responses.

Aim 1: To explore their experience as language users and their self-perceptions regarding NNES status and English varieties

1) How many languages do you speak?

2) What is the role of each language in your life and your community?

Probe: *What English varieties?

*For what purposes? When and in what situations?

*Local and global communities of English users they encounter

*What do you think about this English variety?

*What is the importance of English?

3) What kind of English proficiency are required in situations of English use mentioned in 2?

4) Do you think that the non-native English speaker label apply to you?

Probe: *Why do you think you are a non-native English speaker?

*Do you think that others perceive you as a non-native English speaker?

*What do you think about being perceived by others as a non-native English speaker?

Aim 2: To explore their experience as language learners and their views on English language teaching

5) Can you tell me about your experience as an English language learner?

Probe: *What was your typical English classroom like?

* What do you like and do not like about the classroom?

* What kind of English varieties or cultures did your teachers promote?

* What do you think about the ways your teachers taught English?

Aim 3: To explore their experience as language teachers and their views on English language teaching

6) What level of teacher training have you had?

Probe: *What theories did you find interesting and applicable to your teaching?

*Were there any particular teaching methodologies your course promote?

7) Can you tell me about the ways you like to teach?

Probe: *Is there any teaching approach you like?

*Is there any teaching approach endorsed by an external party? How do you feel about it?

C2: Interview questions for stimulated recall interviews

Teaching episodes: **I am going to ask you about what happened in the lesson I've just observed. We will also watch some episodes recorded from your teaching. You can also choose the episodes that you want to talk about.**

Below is a list of possible questions. I will ask only a selection from this list in each interview – depending on participants' responses.

- *Classroom teaching and the cognitions (what teachers think, believe and know) behind teaching behaviours with regard to recording of specific lesson episodes:*
    - Goals of a learning task/activity (e.g. what were you trying to achieve here? What skills or knowledge do you expect students to have after they finish this activity? How important are such skills and knowledge?)
    - Methodology and methods governing a learning task/activity (e.g. Can you tell me your teaching procedures step-by-step? Can you tell me the rationales

behind each step? Do you prefer to teach this way? Is this your typical way of teaching?)

- Interactions with students and other factors in the context and how the teachers assess students' success of completing a learning task/ activity (e.g. How do you think the students perceive the task? Is there anything that you want to do in your teaching but you cannot do? If so, can you tell me more about this?)

- Teachers' evaluation of their teaching of this episode (e.g. is there anything you like or do not like about this teaching episode? Can you tell me more about this?)

- *Linguistic and cultural model the teachers adopt as reflected in:*
  - Error correction and the perceived importance of accuracy
  - English varieties the teachers explicitly endorse for students to emulate
  - Pragmatic and cultural norms the teachers explicitly teach to students
  - Code-switching: the use of mother-tongue languages and English
  - Episodes where teachers express attitudes towards certain English varieties or communities and cultures of certain groups of English users

Appendix D: Observation guide

Areas of interest	Detailed descriptions	Note: My Reflections of this episode + Critical Incidents
Topic/ Overall theme		
Main Content		
Teaching approach/Procedures		
Task/Activity for students		

Appendix E: Narrative summary

(The example below is the first page out of five pages of the narrative summary for one lesson by Ramgopal. The language has not been edited.)

Participant: Ramgopal

Subject: English through cultures (The lesson focused on Vietnam and its cultures)

(L.O.V.E Singing Activity)

Mr. Ramgopal put hand-written lyrics of the hook of L.O.V.E song onto the projector, zoomed it in and greeted *"Ok. Good morning ladies and gentlemen"*. Then, he praised students that *"This morning you all look handsome and beautiful"* and stressed that they were special, stating that *"You are the only one on this earth, you know that?"*. To emphasize this, he asked students the total number of the world population before telling them that *"Among that there is only one that's you and so you are very very special. That's why you ought to take yourself that you are special and never put yourself down."* He went on to tell students that they needed love and needed to love someone. He then linked this into the topic of today lesson which focused on Vietnam by saying that *"We need to love each other and one country in the world but some decades ago that lost love. It is Vietnam. You know that? Vietnam has been shattered and it has been actually destroyed if not completely to some extent: the jungle, the people, all of that actually. They were confused and derailed because of the Vietnam War."* He then led students into the singing activity. Noticing students speaking in Thai, he announced *"This is English class right? You gonna speak only English. No Phasa Thai in the class…Speak only Farang, no Harang, right?"*.

He began reading the lyrics and had students repeat them line-by-line. He encouraged students to sing stating that *"everybody no excuse"*. Then he sung the song and had students repeat after him line-by-line twice. Statements including *"Wow"* and *"You are so good"* and *"You need to learn how to sing"* were uttered as encouragements. He then had the whole class sing the song again with him. The whole class finishing the song, Mr. Raj mentioned *"Tata Young. Come on, that's it"*.

Appendix F: Coding scheme

Coding Categories for the Overarching Theme of Affective Considerations

1. Teaching practices attending to affect (Data source: Interview and observational data triangulated)

Include a) the teaching practices the participants reported and/or reflected on the observed lessons as attending to affect or b) observed teaching practices which could be reasonably inferred by the researcher as attending to affect. This is divided into nine categories:

1.1. Promoting variety in teaching
1.2. Using or making taught content and teaching activities affectively stimulating
1.3. Promoting peer relations and interactions
1.4. Maintaining teacher-student relations
1.5. Maintaining learner self-image
1.6. Pushing learners to participate or engage (through encouragement, incentives and pressures)
1.7. Equitable teaching practices
1.8. Code switching
1.9. Developing desirable affective attributes in learners

2. Principles attending to affect (Data source: Interview)

Include interview excerpts where reasons for attending to affect were explicitly mentioned by the participants or could be reasonably inferred by the researcher. These are divided into three categories:

2.1 The principle of fostering affect conducive to language learning

Include interview excerpts when affective terms were mentioned in connection with language learning
2.1.1 An assumption that affect can influence on student engagement and participation in a learning activity (e.g. Students are afraid of making a mistake and thus reluctant to speak)
2.1.2 An assumption that affect and cognition are closely linked (e.g. When students feel tired, they lose ability to focus)
2.1.3 An assumption that negative affect can sometimes be productive (e.g. Learning takes place when students are out of their comfort zone)

2.2 The principle of fostering classroom relations

Include the interview excerpts when affective terms were mentioned in connection with teacher-student and student-student relations. This was further divided into two categories
2.2.1 Relations can influence affect connected to language learning (e.g. when students are afraid of teacher, they are reluctant to answer).
2.2.2 Relations are grounded in values (e.g. teaching is relational as it rests on values such as respect, cooperation and trust).

2.3 The principle of developing student attributes related to affect and values

Include the interview excerpts when affective terms were mentioned as teaching goals to be instilled in students (e.g. self-confidence, cultural values and personality)

Coding Categories for the Overarching Theme of Pedagogical Considerations

3. Learning objectives of the particular observed lessons (Data source: Interview data)

Include data when the participants commented on the overall objectives of the observed lessons

4. Principles supporting practices to promote/support cognitive processes (Data source: Interview and observational data triangulated)

Include data when the participants showed explicit attempt to support cognitive processes to promote English language learning and how this influenced their reported and observed practices

4.1 Revision
4.2 Repetition
4.3 Attention
4.3.1 General attention to make students ready to learn the upcoming topic or content
4.3.2 Attention to make students notice language items
4.4 Activating or relating to student background knowledge
4.5 The use of L1 & positive and negative transfer
4.6 Control of task difficulties (Grading task from simpler to more difficult task)
4.7 Practice
4.8 Exposure to the English language
4.9 Transfer of learning in the classroom to real-life contexts
4.10 Developing thinking skills (e.g. creativity and analytical thinking)
4.11 Feedback

5. Principles supporting practices to promote/support student meta-cognitive awareness (Data source: Interview and observational data triangulated)
5.1. Telling the objectives of the lesson
5.2. Active learning
5.3. Self-reflection on learning

6. Principles supporting practices to promote/support social learning (Data Source: Interview and observational data triangulated)
6.1. Cooperative learning
6.2. Peer modelling

7. Principles regarding the teaching of English skills, sub-skills and cultures (Data source: Interview and observational data triangulated)
7.1 Listening
7.2 Speaking/Discussion
7.3 Grammar
7.4 Vocabulary
7.5 Pronunciation
7.6 Integrated-language skills and sub-skills
7.7 Cultures

Coding Categories for the Overarching Theme of Contextual Considerations

8) The Teacher (Data source: Mainly interview data)

Include the interview excerpts when the participants revealed about their personal and professional lives, past experience and evaluations of themselves, and how this influenced their reported and observed practices

8.1 Past experience (e.g. as a language user, teacher, learner and teacher learner)
8.2 Personal relationships with the English language
8.3 Teacher attributes (e.g. self-assigned teacher roles and evaluations of teaching skills required or their own teaching skills)

9) Classroom (Data source: Interview and observational data triangulated)

Include the interview excerpts when the participants mentioned about learners and classroom environments and how this influenced the reported and teaching practices

9.1 Learner attributes and involvement (e.g. responsiveness, silence, faculties and majors, age, proficiency, level of understanding, cultures, and goals of learning English)
9.2 Classroom environment (e.g. time, space, class size, and equipment)

10) Broader macro-context (Data source: Interview and observational data triangulated)

Include the interview excerpts when the participants mentioned about broader macro-contextual factors and how this influenced the reported and observed teaching practices (e.g. classroom context versus outside context, EFL and EIL context of Thailand, and their perceptions on native and non-native speaker issues in ELT)

Appendix G: An example of coding using the coding scheme

The example below is part of interview data from first stimulated recall interview with Ramgopal.

Stimulated recall interview data	Code
Me: Ok so the question is can you walk me through the steps that you take in teaching. So can you describe this episode? What are you trying to do here?	
Ram: I'm just trying to motivate them right here. It's not in the textbook, right? But I'm just trying to drive into the textbook so they will be motivated and ready to learn. So, like, like, I just try to tell them so they know also that how and which part of a body feels. Just to try to drive into the text; get them to talk. Yeah, get them to talk.	2.1 (motivate and ready to learn and talk) 1.2 (discussing the topic)
Me: How do you think students perceive it?	
Ram: Yeah, it depends on the types of students. Some students in some sections; they are very like active, very responsive, and here they're ok. They're ok, but we have to kinda motivate and push them, yeah. That's why we need to prepare something outside the textbook. That's why I do this outside, a little bit, outside stuff.	9.1 (responsiveness) 2.1. & 1.2
Me: And then what's your next step?	
Ram: So the next step is I'm following the textbook in the sense that I want them to pronounce well so, I, a teacher has to lead them, not just the the speaker from the computer. I want them to know that even, I, teacher should also pronounce like, if not close, just near the native speaker. That's why I'm trying to emphasize how to speak each word clearly. If you further go ahead, I want them to also know the meanings of those words which describe feelings.	7.5 (listen-and-repeat) 10. (NES model)

Stimulated recall interview data	Code
Me: So is this the episode you try to get them to understand the meanings, right?	
Ram: Oh, yeah.	
Me: So how do you try to do that? Can you explain?	
Ram: Yeah, I have to get other words like synonyms; get close to the level of understanding so that's how I lead them, so I explain each word like excited so I will explain about. So excited. Excited full of energy there. So I'm excited. I'm explaining as to what is excited. So excited can be, you know, can lead to nervousness so when you're. That is what exactly I'm trying to define excited. So, each word I'm trying to define and let them know the meaning of such feelings. And see? This is not in the textbook, but when we explain like this, they will know how to use this kind of the words; feelings. They will know when this occur in their lives. So I'm try to ask them when these feelings happen in your life. I will try to ask them.	7.4 (word meanings) 4.9 (relating learning to real-life context)
Me: Yeah. You asked a lot of questions.	
Ram: Oh yes. Yes. But even though they don't answer, still, I want them to. I know some of them they couldn't answer, but I also know that Thai students they know. It's just they could not say it or tell. Actually, most of them know, but when we give them a question, it does not mean that they have to always answer. When we give a question, it's also let them think and analyse. Not that they have to give me answer right there. That's why asking questions many a time as we teach is important. Is important. Yeah very important.	9.1 (responsiveness) 4.10 (let students think)
Me: So what do you normally do when they don't respond?	

Stimulated recall interview data	Code
Ram: No it's ok.	
Me: Do you know the reason?	
Ram: Yeah. First time when I came to Thailand yeah I was a little bit, so I had to really push them. And now I begin to understand. It's part of their culture. You know. They're being polite. It is not that they are disrespectful. They are being polite and not so outspoken. You know they want; they do not want to confront, but it's not that they don't know anything. I realize that they know but they are more of they just keep it to themselves.	9.1 (responsiveness) 10 (culture = polite and not want to confront) 2.2 (Relational – teacher-student relation)
Me: What was your experience like with Indian students?	
Ram: Let's say for Indians, they don't care about face, huh. Saving face. Sometimes they will challenge the teacher. They even dare to raise their hands and they ask questions to teacher, but here you wouldn't find that. You wouldn't find students asking or questioning the teacher while teaching is going on. In fact, teacher has to ask them. Go on. Ask questions. In the Thai scenario because they are so polite; they are so well-cultured, well-behaved. In terms of behaviours, very good. But in India, students are a bit restless, because sometimes most of them they know all the text before they come to class. So some of them have tuition so like I said like they just go there to attend	9.1. & 10 (Face) & 2.2

Stimulated recall interview data	Code
so they become restless and they just begin to ask question and even challenge the teacher. And they raise; so they're very responsive. Very smart. The teacher has to be really prepared.	
Me: So this one um can you explain this episode? What are you trying to do?	
Ram: So this is where I want them to listen to the native speaker like the script, right? And after that, I ask them the questions so that's how I evaluate whether they are really listening or not. So I will ask them some questions and let them have their own answers. So this is the time for them to give attention to the voice that is gonna be played.	10. (NES model) 7.1 (Listening comprehension-asking questions)
Me: So you mentioned about native speaker as a voice in the recording. What is your view about having the native speaker as a voice in the textbook?	
Ram: We have to respect. We have to consider that native speakers they are the original speakers of English so we have to consider that and so and that that does not mean that we are not better. That's why I mention that even English is not my language neither yours. But I also told them that it's international. We have to learn. And it's nothing hard if we practice. So I'm just trying to motivate and inspire them because some of us, especially the Asians, we thought oh native speakers. Then, we become small. You see? We look up to them and we can't speak like them. So, I want to push to instill in my students' minds that this is nothing but just the way we think. So those things; if you gonna learn, you gonna get it. Just learn. Practice it well. I'm just trying to motivate my students that we should not build a wall by saying we are not native speakers and so we cannot. So I just try to use the word native speaker. But, most of the time, I will also repeat what the the native speaker would say so we are not much different then.	10. (NES model) 2.1. (Motivation)

Appendix H: University of Auckland Human Participants Ethics Committee

Office of the Vice-Chancellor
Finance, Ethics and Compliance

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UNIVERSITY OF AUCKLAND HUMAN PARTICIPANTS ETHICS COMMITTEE (UAHPEC)

28-Oct-2015

MEMORANDUM TO:

Dr Rosemary Wette
App Lang Studies & Linguistics

Re: Application for Ethics Approval (Our Ref. 016074): Approved

The Committee considered your application for ethics approval for your project entitled **Cognitions and practices of non-native English teachers with regard to English as an International Language (EIL).**

We are pleased to inform you that ethics approval is granted for a period of three years.

The expiry date for this approval is 28-Oct-2018.

If the project changes significantly, you are required to submit a new application to UAHPEC for further consideration.

If you have obtained funding other than from UniServices, send a copy of this approval letter to the Research Office, at ro-awards@auckland.ac.nz. For UniServices contracts, send a copy of the approval letter to the Contract Manager, UniServices.

In order that an up-to-date record can be maintained, you are requested to notify UAHPEC once your project is completed.

The Chair and the members of UAHPEC would be happy to discuss general matters relating to ethics approvals. If you wish to do so, please contact the UAHPEC Ethics Administrators at ro-ethics@auckland.ac.nz in the first instance.

Please quote reference number: **016074** on all communication with the UAHPEC regarding this application.

(This is a computer generated letter. No signature required.)

UAHPEC Administrators
University of Auckland Human Participants Ethics Committee

c.c. Head of Department / School, App Lang Studies & Linguistics

Appendix I: Examples of participants' affective terminology

Below are some examples of affective terms taken from the NVivo node "affective terms".

- Excited
- Anxiety
- Bad attitude
- Pressured
- Fun
- เรียนด้วยใจ
- Not brave
- Comfort Zone
- Bored
- เขาพูดแบบยิ้มๆ
- อรรถรส
- ฉันต้องโดนแน่เลย
- Shyness
- Alert
- Feeling like the classroom is home
- Inhibited
- Stress
- motivation
- not interested
- Unbearable
- Not like
- Desperate
- Suffocated
- Last-ditch effort
- At ease
- Confidence
- Feel at home
- Feel like they're closer
- Frightened
- Relaxed
- Feel free

- Culture shock
- Surprise
- Refreshed
- Interest
- Feel like they're into the subject
- fool around_make fun
- joy
- laughter
- aroused
- hate
- jealousy
- negative_healthy competition
- suspense
- so serious
- nervous
- worry
- comfortable
- encouraging
- annoyed
- embarrassed
- feel bad
- ashamed
- Uncomfortable
- Not used to
- natural instinct
- patient
- Calm
- setting down mindset
- feel that I'm with you
- Feel guilty
- Scared
- not willing to say it or share
- reluctant

Appendix J: A comparison between teachers' main affective practices and scholarly source

Principles	Teaching practices	Source
Fostering affect to promote language learning	• Using teaching materials that engage learners' positive emotions • Providing instructional variety • Making learning tasks achievable • Giving encouragement stressing progress rather than perfection • Emphasizing meaning rather than accuracy • Adding novelty • Using extrinsic rewards and pressure sensitively • Attractive presentation of tasks and content • Using L1 when affective benefits outweigh linguistic cost • Sensitive classroom procedures such as calling on learners, allowing wait time, and lesson pacing • Making the lesson relevant to students' lives • Adding challenge • Giving learners some free choice and control • Sensitivity to learners' past learning experience	• Brown (2007a); Dörnyei (2001); Tomlinson (2013) • Dörnyei (2001); Ellis (2012); Tomlinson (2011) • Dörnyei (2001); Nation & Macalister (2009); Tomlinson (2011) • Brown (2007); Dörnyei (2001); Gregersen & MacIntyre (2014) • Gregerson & MacIntyre (2014); Wright (2005) • Dörnyei (2001); Tomlinson (2011) • Brown (2007); Dörnyei (2001); Gregersen & MacIntyre (2014) • Dörnyei (2001); Tomlinson (2011) • Gregersen & MacIntyre (2014); Wright (2005) • Brown (2007b); Gregerson & MacIntyre (2014); , Tomlinson (2008;2013) Wright (2005) • Brown (2007a; 2007b); Dörnyei (2001); Gregerson & MacIntyre (2014); Lamb (2017);Nation & Macalister (2009); Tomlinson (2011); Tudor (2003) • Brown (2007a; 2007b);Dörnyei (2001); Lamb (2016); Nation & Macalister (2009);Tomlinson (2011);Wright (2005) • Brown (2007a); Gregeren & MacIntyre (2014); Nation & Macalister (2009); Lamb (2016;2017); Tomlinson (2011) • Dörnyei (2001); Benesch (2012); Gregerson & MacIntyre (2014);Lamb (2017)

Principles	Teaching practices	Source
Fostering classroom relations	• Promoting peer interactions to build group cohesiveness and lower anxiety • Maintaining learners' positive self-image • Displaying approachability, friendliness and care • Maintaining teachers' authority especially that of knowledge • Accommodating individual and cultural variations (e.g. different values about politeness, submission to the teacher and learning styles)	• Dörnyei (2001); Gregerson & MacIntyre (2014); Richards (2015); Wright (2005) • Dörnyei (2001); Wright (2005) • Brown (2007b); Dörnyei (2001); Gregersen & MacIntyre (2014); Lamb (2016); Richards (2015); Tudor (2003); Wright (2005) • Nation & Macalister (2009); Richards (2015); Wright (2005) • Brown (2007a); Dörnyei (2001); Gregersen & MacIntyre (2014); Richards (2015); Tomlinson (2011);Tudor (2003); Wright (2005)
Fostering moral values	• Developing L2 related attitudes and values (e.g. self-confidence, positive attitudes towards the language, and learning responsibility) • Departing personal, 'moral' values supporting compassionate and responsible members of the society	• Brown (2002b); Dörnyei (2001); Gregersen & MacIntyre (2014);Tomlinson (2011) • Arnold and Brown (1999); Byram (2002)

Appexdix K: Transcriber confidentialty agreement

TRANSCRIBER CONFIDENTIALITY AGREEMENT

Project Title: Principles and practices of non-native English speaking tertiary teachers in Thailand: personal, affective, pedagogical and contextual considerations

Name of Researcher: Pariwat Thararuedee

Name of supervisor: Dr Rosemary Wette

I agree to transcribe the digital voice recordings for this research project. I understand that the information contained in them is confidential and must not be disclosed to, or discussed with, anyone other than the researcher and his supervisor.

Name (please print): Dr. Sujinat Jitwiriyanont

Signature: _____

Date: 20th March 2019