Investigating Language Teacher Cognition and Vocabulary Instruction: A Cultural-Historical Activity Theory (CHAT) Analysis

Author:
Lim, Sovannarith

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INVESTIGATING LANGUAGE TEACHER COGNITION AND VOCABULARY INSTRUCTION: A CULTURAL-HISTORICAL ACTIVITY THEORY (CHAT) ANALYSIS

SOVANNARITH LIM

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Premised in the field of second/foreign language teacher education, this study examined language teacher cognition (LTC) from a cultural-historical activity theory perspective. Involving three groups of Cambodian pre-service, novice and experienced teachers of English in a tertiary context in Cambodia, its major aim was twofold: to explore teachers' cognitions about vocabulary instruction and their interrelations with classroom practices and to map such interrelations in its broader contexts such as the institution in which the teachers worked. Data collected from semi-structured and recall interviews, classroom observations, documentation and the researcher's field notes spanning a six-month period formed the basis of the analysis. In addition to using Strauss's (1987) grounded approach to explore the teachers' cognitions and practices, I employed an activity theoretical framework (Leont'ev, 1978, 1981)—'activity-action-operation'—to tease out three levels of data analysis. Engeström's (2015) activity systems analysis model was particularly used to map out interconnections among factors that shaped the teachers' actions and operations at the classroom level and the teachers' collective activity at the institutional level. In broad strokes, at the action-level, the analysis focused on the teachers' cognitions (i.e., mental actions), showing vocabulary was perceived as an indispensable component in the language curriculum. The analysis at the operation-level revealed planned and unplanned vocabulary instructional activities were embodied both explicitly and implicitly, in such a mode as embedding in reading and listening comprehension tasks. The teachers' mental and physical actions were found to be interrelated with the sociocultural contexts of the classroom, the workplace, the teachers' respective past and present experiences and their future thinking. Moreover, the analysis at the activity-level uncovered a dynamic set of relations within the activity system: pedagogical core, professional/collegial, and institutional spheres. Drawing on the notions of participation in community of practice (Wenger, 1998) and situated and distributed cognition (Lave, 1988; Daniel, 2008), I discussed these findings to show how the teachers' personal and professional learning trajectories were determined by the nature of the three 'spheres for learning'. Implications were discussed for the development of vocabulary instructional practice, teacher education and future LTC research.

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PUBLICATIONS AND PRESENTATIONS DURING CANDIDATURE

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

AL	Applied Linguistics (course)
ASEAN	Association of South-East Asian Nations
BA in English	Bachelor of Arts in English for Work Skills
BEd in TEFL	Bachelor of Education in Teaching English as a Foreign Language
CAMSET (Project)	Cambodia Secondary English Teaching Project
CE	Core English (course)
CELT (Project)	Cambodian English Language Training Project
CHAT	Cultural-Historical Activity Theory
CoP	Community of Practice
DoE	Department of English
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
FE	Foundation of Education (course)
GS	Global Studies (course)
HEI	Higher Education Institution
L1	First Language (or Mother Tongue)
L2	Second or Foreign Language
LS	Literature Studies (course)
MOEYS	Ministry of Education, Youth and Sport
NES	Native English Speaker
NGOs	Non-Governmental Organisations
NNES	Non-Native English Speaker
PP-RTTC	Phnom Penh-Regional Teacher Training Centre
SLA	Second Language Acquisition
SLTE	Second Language Teacher Education
TEFL	Teachers of/Teaching English as a Foreign Language
TESL	Teachers of/Teaching English as a Second Language
TESOL	Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages
TM	Teaching Methodology (course)
TOEFL	Test of English as a Foreign Language
WS	Writing Studies (course)

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1 | INTRODUCTION

> Recently, the contrast between [teacher] training and development has been replaced by a recognition of the nature of teacher learning, which is viewed as a form of socialization into the professional thinking and practices of a community of practice [...] SLTE [second language teacher education] is now also influenced by perspectives drawn from sociocultural theory (Lantolf 2000) and the field of teacher cognition [...] The knowledge base of teaching has also been re-examined with a questioning of the traditional positioning of the language-based disciplines as the major foundation for SLTE [...]
>
> (Burns & Richards, 2009, p. 2)

1.1 BACKGROUND OF THE STUDY

Language teacher cognition is a fast-growing field of inquiry within language teacher education research, as indicated by the above quote. In fact, because of its significant contribution to the field, it has been recently referred to as a sub-field of applied linguistics itself (Kubanyiova & Feryok, 2015). Language teacher cognition (hereafter LTC) refers broadly to teacher knowledge, thinking and beliefs and how these mental attributes relate to practice. Its research originates from mainstream teacher research in response to the increasing recognition of the role of teachers and their 'mental lives' (Borg, 2006b; Freeman, 2002).

A traditional aim of teacher cognition research was to explore and describe teachers' cognitions (for example, knowledge, belief and thinking) and compare them with teachers' actual practices. With this purpose, it was hoped to find a match between cognitions and practices and to generate normative knowledge and effective practice for teachers to apply to their classroom instruction–which subsequently, it was expected, would cause students' learning (Borg, 2006b). This aim reflects an assumption of causality, a transmissive view in the teacher education enterprise (cf., Burns, forthcoming; Kiely & Davis, 2010). However, for the last three decades or so, LTC research, as well as teacher cognition research more generally, has begun to recognise that cognitions are personalised, dynamic and sensitive to the contexts in which they occur (Shavelson & Stern, 1981; Shulman & Shulman, 2004) and, importantly, do not always correspond to teachers' actual operations in the classroom, nor lead directly to students' learning (Borg, 2006b).

This later orientation towards LTC results in an emphasis on describing the interrelationships of teachers' cognitions and practices by explicating such relationships with reference to the context in which the investigation takes place.

However, recently, Kubanyiova and Feryok (2015, p. 435) claim that the field of LTC research has reached "a crossroads" because, while this area of investigation continues to grow and to report findings that support the ecological view of LTC mentioned above,

> limited progress has been achieved in addressing some of the most pertinent questions asked by applied linguists, policy makers, and general public alike: How do language teachers create meaningful learning environments for their students? How can teacher education, continuing professional development, and the wider educational and sociocultural context facilitate such learning in language teachers?

The authors argue, in this regard, that LTC research should be geared towards answering these questions, but the subtlety of these questions begs for complex answers. Nonetheless, the questions Kubanyiova and Feryok (2015) ask concentrate on the role of teachers and that of their working contexts in the process of teaching and learning. Therefore, focusing on teachers seems to be a good starting point to answer their questions (Burns, 1996).

In this study, I embark on an LTC project, not to offer comprehensive solutions to these issues but to examine what language teachers consider to be meaningful learning environments for their students and how such environments can be facilitated, or otherwise constrained, by the institutional and sociocultural contexts in which they work. Moreover, in addition to this purpose, the study also aims to illustrate that, by investigating LTC from a sociocultural perspective, the process of teacher learning or development as a professional and whole person in the working context can be better understood. This aim contributes directly to the field of second or foreign language (L2) teacher education, an important branch of applied linguistics. For the reasons outlined below, I investigate LTC as a phenomenon in relation to the teaching of vocabulary in an English language teaching (ELT) curriculum situated in a Cambodian higher educational institutional context. The institutional context rests within the national education policy and its broader socio-political situation, known as the Association of South East Asian Nations (ASEAN). This study, as argued further in Section 1.4, informs the practice of vocabulary instruction and contributes to the development of L2 teacher

education (hereafter, SLTE) (Burns & Richards, 2009; K. E. Johnson, 2009) in Cambodia and beyond. In the following section, however, I outline the rationale of the study.

1.2 RATIONALE OF THE STUDY

In this section, I lay out the reasons why I pursue the present investigation focusing on the four key aspects of the study: LTC research, vocabulary instruction, Cambodian teachers of English, and a sociocultural approach to LTC. I highlight them in turn below.

1.2.1 Why LTC Research?

The motivation for this research stems from my personal interest and background in the field of L2 teaching, specifically within the context of Cambodia, recognising that teachers are active, thinking individuals. Striving to better understand the process of language teaching and of teacher learning, I believe that studying teachers is the best place to start. Thus, emphasis in this study is placed heavily on the teacher and their teaching in the process of language teaching and learning. Consequently, LTC research seems promising in fulfilling this interest for the reasons outlined next.

As will be seen in Chapter 2, based on an increasingly large volume of research in LTC, it is now recognised that teachers make instructional decisions through conceptualisations or interpretations of and within their lived environments such as the learners, the teaching materials, the curriculum, the policy, and the school. Those decisions determine much of what they teach and how they will teach even if their classroom practices are at times constrained by mandated curricula and policies. As Woods (1996, p. 21) argues, "the teachers' interpretations of [the classroom processes]–including the method, the curriculum, learners' behaviours–affect in many ways what classroom activities are chosen and how they are carried out". It is teachers' interpretations or meaning-making processes that give rise to such decisions, characterising them as active agents of their own activities. In other words, on the basis of their professional and personal knowledge, experiences, beliefs and thoughts, and their conceptions of what to do and how to do it in their classroom, teachers make themselves active decision-makers. Borg (2005b, p. 191) puts it this way:

> [...] teachers are active, thinking decision-makers who make instructional choices by drawing on complex, practically-oriented, personalised, and

> context-sensitive networks of knowledge, thoughts, and beliefs.

The emphasis on L2 teachers as active decision-makers and on how their decisions influence classroom pedagogy, for instance vocabulary instruction, has stirred up much interest among applied linguists and teacher education researchers alike (e.g., Bartels, 2005; Borg, 2006b; Freeman & Johnson, 1998; Freeman & Richards, 1996; Nunan & Lamb, 1996). Because SLTE can be said to have been dominated by research on second language acquisition (SLA) focusing on the learning (as opposed to the teaching) process (e.g., Coady & Huckin, 1997; Ellis, 1992, 2010; Ellis & Shintani, 2014; Tragant & Muñoz, 2004), this renewed research interest in teachers and teaching can also be seen as an attempt to bring balance between research on learning and research on teaching within applied linguistics.

What has driven the shift of research focus in SLTE, from studying learning to studying teaching processes is that, in addition to insights generated by SLA research, the focus of research on the teacher recognises that "the teacher is a crucial and important starting point for considering alternative routes and pedagogical insights for teacher education" (Burns, 1996, p. 154). Understanding the language-teaching mind of teachers (Burns, Freeman, & Edwards, 2015), therefore, helps illuminate the core aspects of the act of language teaching and potentially provides influential insights for SLTE (Freeman & Johnson, 1998). Meaningful LTC research findings can subsequently contribute to "the central project of language education research" whose aim is to account for "complex relationship among [teachers] learning to teach, teaching practices, and students' learning" (Kubanyiova & Feryok, 2015, p. 436).

Teachers have increasingly been recognised as key players in the activity of teaching. In their edited volume that brings together 'international methodological perspectives' on LTC research, Barnard and Burns (2012b, p. 2) write that:

> [...] teachers are the executive decision-makers of the curriculum: it is they who put into practice the principles and procedures devised or mandated by others, such as course-book writers, methodological experts and officials of ministries of education. Failure by such people to take into account what teachers believe and know about language teaching will lead to failure to realise the intended curriculum.

Also central to LTC research is a desire to examine the relationship between teachers' minds and their physical (observable) actions. Borg explains in an interview with Birello (2012, p. 88) how such a relationship is crucial in research on

language teachers' cognitions. His explanation is worth quoting in full since it encompasses the key reasons.

> If we go back about 40 years in the field of teacher education, the focus was mostly on behaviors, so what researchers were trying to do was discover behaviors that led to effective learning. The idea was once we know what they are, we can program teachers to behave in those ways and the results would be effective learning for everyone. That was quite a simplistic notion of teaching and learning. What started to become evident was that no matter how much you try to program teachers to behave in certain ways they won't: they always have their own individual ideas, their individual ways of doing things, their preferences, and so it started to become clear that teaching is much more than behavior. Beneath the behavior there are beliefs and knowledge and related constructs which influence what teachers do, and it started to become very clear that if we want to fully understand what teachers do, we can't just focus on behavior, we need to understand what they believe, what they know, their attitudes, [and] their feelings. This became particularly true when we looked at large scale educational reforms which never seemed to have the desired impact although a lot of time and money were invested in trying to get teachers to change, very often with minimal results. It's clear today that one of the reasons for this is that those reforms were targeting behaviors without taking into consideration beliefs. So for all these reasons today we understand that, of course, what teachers do is important but if we want to understand what teachers do, if we want to promote change, we also need to look at beliefs.

As Borg mentions here, teacher cognition research addresses the limitations of traditional teacher research that investigated only teachers' behaviours. More importantly, as he ascertains, teacher cognition research that examines both teachers' behaviours and cognitive processes can bring about positive change not only to the practice of teaching itself but also to the field of teacher education more broadly. It becomes clear, therefore, that LTC research has a lot to offer to the field of SLTE as well as to applied linguistics.

In the conduct of LTC research, therefore, it seems necessary for one to investigate not only cognitions but also cognitions together with actions, thus addressing the thinking-doing dimensions of human activity. Research that focuses on the relationship between these two dimensions helps develop this research

domain further, since the findings provide rich insights on the actual nature of language teaching and learning in the classroom context (Burns, 1992). According to Burns (1996, p. 176),

> by exploring and identifying how thinking and beliefs give meaning and shape to classroom work [thus reflecting the teacher's physical actions], we would also gain critical insights into the nature of professional growth and the forms of in-service and professional development support which would most appropriately enhance it.

The relationship between cognition and practice should, thus, feature in any LTC research. Borg (2009, p. 163) writes that:

> A key factor in the growth of teacher cognition research has been the realization that we cannot properly understand teachers and teaching without understanding the thoughts, knowledge, and beliefs that influence what teachers do. Similarly, in teacher education, we cannot make adequate sense of teachers' experiences of learning to teach without examining the unobservable mental dimension of this learning process. Teacher cognition research, by providing insights into teachers' mental lives and into the complex ways in which these relate to teachers' classroom practices, has made a significant contribution to our understandings of the process of becoming, being, and developing professionally as a teacher.

As has been seen, the strength of LTC research is its emphasis on teachers, their language-teaching mind, and how it relates to the activity of teaching, which generates implications for students' learning experiences. More importantly, as Borg indicates in the above quote, the aim of LTC research is not confined to understanding classroom teaching (and learning) experiences but it also strives to uncover the processes of teacher learning. This latter aim is what I will argue later is the ultimate goal in LTC research, especially when the research involves teachers as primary participants.

Given the arguments highlighting the significance of LTC research shown so far, it can be claimed that by studying teachers' cognitions, their practices and how these relate to one another, the processes of teaching and of teacher learning to teach can be more fully understood. Nonetheless, attempting to comprehend these relationships within the whole process of ELT is beyond a feasible scope of study, and for this reason, I delimit my study to focusing on the teaching and learning of

vocabulary (hereafter, vocabulary instruction), the reasons for which are explained below.

1.2.2 Why Vocabulary Instruction?

To focus this study, I could have chosen the teaching of grammar, or any other language area such as reading, writing, listening or speaking. However, I chose to focus on vocabulary instruction because vocabulary is an important language curricular area that has received scant attention among LTC researchers. As will be seen in Chapter 2, LTC research has been developing for quite some time, but when it comes to vocabulary instruction, few published studies examine this linguistic area. In contrast, a large number of LTC studies have focused on teaching grammar (e.g., Borg, 1998; Farrell, 1999; Phipps & Borg, 2009; Ting, 2007). Some others examine teaching pronunciation (e.g., A. A. Baker, 2014; Sifakis & Sougari, 2005), teacher use of corrective feedback (e.g., Mori, 2011), the use of codeswitching in the classroom (e.g., Samar & Moradkhani, 2014), learner autonomy (e.g., Al-Busaidi & Al-Maamari, 2014; Balcikanli, 2010; Barnard & Li, 2016; Borg & Al-Busaidi, 2012), and intercultural communication (e.g., Young & Sachdev, 2011), among other areas. These various foci reflect the possible scope of LTC research. As Borg (2006b, p. 275) comments "the possibilities [of LTC research] are clearly unlimited".

However, as mentioned, to date scant attention has been paid to research that investigates LTC vis-à-vis vocabulary instruction (cf., Macalister, 2012) despite the fact that vocabulary itself is an important part of the language curriculum, or as Nation and Macalister (2010) note, part of the syllabus content that needs to be integrated into the cycles of instructional tasks (Nunan, 2015). Understanding the process of teaching and learning vocabulary is thus important for both teachers and language curriculum designers. Nation and Macalister (2010, p. 7) comment that:

> [...] even though the units of progression in a course might be tasks, topics or themes, it is important for the curriculum designer to keep some check on vocabulary, grammar and discourse to make sure that important items are being covered and repeated.

In this regard, by focusing on vocabulary instruction, the present study sets out not only to fill a gap in the LTC literature in the present context as well as in the wider context of LTC research, but it also aims to contribute to a scantily sketched part of the whole picture of language instruction. Especially, it sets out to examine this

issue within a context that is probably little known to most ELT researchers, that of Cambodian ELT. I discuss this context below as the third aspect of the present investigation.

1.2.3 Why Cambodian Teachers of English?

This question deals with the geographical and sociocultural contexts of ELT and SLTE, but an obvious reason springs from my own sociocultural background as a learner, teacher, teacher educator and researcher in this context. My observations, formed through these situational circumstances, indicate that research on Cambodian ELT, let alone LTC in this context, is largely non-represented. Consequently, this study situates the investigation of LTC within a context of Cambodian ELT by involving a group of Cambodian teachers of English at a higher educational institution in Phnom Penh.

Teachers in Cambodia can be designated as non-native English speaking (NNES)[1] teachers. The ELT situation in Expanding Circle countries (Kachru 1992) such as Cambodia generally characterises English as a foreign language (EFL) embedded within ideological and pedagogical assumptions that can influence how Cambodian teachers perceive and enact their ELT activity. Nonetheless, given ASEAN as an emerging socio-political and socioeconomic landscape in the region, the status of English can be revisited, thus generating a new set of assumptions for teachers and learners alike. This ASEAN situation functions as an overarching context of the present study. As LTC has been found to be highly contextualised at various levels, such as classroom, institutional, and broader socio-historical contexts (as detailed further in Chapter 2), it is crucial to take into account the context in which the phenomena being investigated (e.g., LTC, vocabulary instruction and Cambodian teachers of English) are situated. It is the emphasis placed on the role of context in the study of LTC that leads to my adoption of a sociocultural approach to the present investigation. I describe this approach below as the fourth aspect of my study.

1.2.4 Why a Sociocultural Approach to LTC Investigation?

As noted earlier, an LTC investigation should aim to provide insights into the activity

[1] The use of NNES in this study is to delineate the sociocultural contexts of teachers teaching English. While this term has been pointed out as having negative connotations and potentially discriminates against certain groups of teachers of English, I find it practical in the discussion of the empowerment of teachers whose English is not native and who teach English as their profession.

of teaching and the processes of teacher learning by examining teachers' cognitive processes, their actual practices, and how these dimensions interrelate with teachers' working contexts. Its findings should also aim to inform the development of SLTE as put forward in the Burns and J. Richards' quote at the beginning of this chapter. In this regard, I adopt a theory of learning known as sociocultural theory, and more specifically activity theory, or cultural-historical activity theory (hereafter CHAT)[2]. Among other aspects, a central tenet of CHAT perspectives is that human cognitive development is socially, historically and culturally oriented (Vygotsky, 1978). In studies of human learning, or cognition more generally (Daniels, 2008), emphasis has increasingly been placed upon the role of sociocultural[3] contexts in the development of cognition and practice, and it is also seen as important to capture as a coherent whole the dialectical relationship between cognition, practice and context. In the works of Vygotsky and others, context is also widely perceived as the social situation of development (Vygotsky, 1978; Wertsch, 1985).

The focus on context and its dialectical relationship with cognition and practice has led to a shift in the unit of analysis from the individual to collective individuals, giving rise to the concept of 'activity'—rather than 'action' or 'operations' (Leont'ev, 1978, 1981; Wertsch, 1985) (discussions of these conceptual terms can be found in Section 2.4 of Chapter 2). Emanating from this unit of analysis is Engeström's (1987, 1999) activity systems analysis model. More detailed discussions of these theoretical underpinnings and how they are applied in studies on human learning, and specifically, LTC are delineated in Section 2.4 of Chapter 2, where a conceptual framework is also proposed. However, here it is important to point out the overall, theoretical and analytical frameworks used to guide the present investigation. The study adopts Leont'ev's framework of collective activity that maps out three interrelated levels of analysis to reflect both the individual-collective and the thinking-doing dimensions of the phenomena investigated. In addition, the present study also uses Engeström's model as the analytical tool to help make sense of the collected data (Yamagata-Lynch, 2010).

To summarise, the present research is a CHAT investigation of LTC and vocabulary instruction illustrated by case studies of Cambodian teachers of English. In the following section, I elaborate this aim further and outline the research scope.

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[2] Some CHAT scholars differentiate these labels attributing to their founders, for instance sociocultural theory as founded by Vygotsky and (cultural-historical) activity theory as founded by Leont'ev (e.g., Smagorinsky, 2010). I am using it as an overarching theoretical framework.

[3] The term 'sociocultural' encompasses social, historical and cultural aspects.

Some key a priori and a posteriori concepts are also highlighted to frame the research findings that are reported in the subsequent chapters.

1.3 AIM AND SCOPE OF THE STUDY

As stated, the aim of the study is to examine the activity of ELT as it is enacted by a group of Cambodian teachers of English in a community of practice. The specific focus is on vocabulary instruction which provides the illustrative point from which to understand this activity. The study, thus, aims to understand how these Cambodian teachers, as active agents, learn to teach in their community of ELT practice, how they go about establishing meaningful learning environments for their students, and how their experiences in turn reflect their learning trajectories as (whole) persons and professionals in their national context. To achieve this aim, I first take steps commonly found in mainstream LTC research, beginning with an exploration of teachers' cognitions and observation of how their cognitions are enacted in practice. Then, based on the data collected from interviews, classroom observations, written documents and field-notes (see Chapter 3), I map out how the interconnections between LTC and practice shape and are shaped by the context in which the teachers work. I argue that it is through such interconnections that the process of teacher learning is illuminated.

To delimit the scope of the present study and to understand a range of Cambodian teacher of English experiences, I also categorise the participating teachers into three groups: pre-service, novice, and experienced teachers. (The criteria used to differentiate the teachers and to justify the selection of the small number of three teachers in each group are explained in Chapter 3.) The comparative perspectives of these teachers may provide insights into their individual cognitions about and practice of vocabulary instruction specifically, and their agentive role as participants or learners in their community of practice more generally. The scope of the study is further determined by the theoretical underpinnings, described in sub-section 1.2.4 above. A brief discussion of key terms used will also serve to delineate the scope of the research at this point. These concepts include LTC, context, and activity, explained as follows. The term LTC is used in this study as an umbrella construct for sub-constructs such as knowledge, beliefs, thinking, perceptions, assumptions, attitudes, emotion, identity and agency (cf., Borg, 2006, 2012). While this usage may seem to risk oversimplification, LTC is essentially seen here as a conceptual term that informs investigations of teachers' minds or mental lives. More detailed discussion of key sub-constructs of LTC are

laid out in Section 2.1 of Chapter 2.

The term 'context' in this study is used in two different senses. First, it is used in relation to the theoretical discussions briefly delineated above. As, for instance, in the statement, 'the teachers' cognitions and practices shape and are shaped by the context in which the teachers work and live'. Here, context refers to contextualisation, as opposed to decontextualisation, of cognitions and practices (e.g., van Oers, 1998). On the other hand, the term is used in statements such as, 'vocabulary should be learnt and taught in context'. Here, the term 'context' may be ambiguously conceived of by language teachers in relation to language pedagogy (Hulstijin, 1992, 2001). Since this terminology relates to an a posteriori and emergent concept found in the teachers' interview accounts, it is also used in this study to interpret the teachers' own conceptions. The meaning of this term as used in this thesis is likely to become clearer as readers progress through the chapters (particularly Chapters 5, 6 and 7). The last key concept that also needs explanation is 'activity'. In this study, activity is a theoretical term as in 'activity theory', 'activity system' 'activity systems analysis', and 'the activity of ELT'. Its philosophical and technical definition will be found in Section 2.4 of Chapter 2. In a more general sense, the term 'activity' is often used in the plural form as in 'L1 translation is used in vocabulary instructional activities'. In this latter sense of the term, 'activities' are generally referred to as instructional tasks teachers enact in their classroom context as well as non-instructional activities students are engaged in outside the classroom context.

This section describes the aim and scope of the present study. What follows is a discussion of the significance of the study and its contributions to the field of ELT, particularly vocabulary instruction, LTC research, SLTE, and by extension applied linguistics.

1.4 SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

As stated, from a CHAT perspective, the study sets out to investigate LTC in teaching vocabulary, situated in a higher educational setting in Cambodia. The significance of this study is expected to be realised at four levels: pedagogy, teacher education, research and theory. At the pedagogical level, practitioners' experiences and perspectives about vocabulary instruction are explored and may provide insights into the practice of this language area of the language curriculum as embodied in the context of the study. At the same time, however, the present findings might also have relevance for other similar contexts either in Cambodia or

in ASEAN countries where English is taught and learnt by NNES.

The study is also expected to generate implications beyond the classroom level. Its findings might inform the practice and development of SLTE programs especially those involving NNES teachers. The research aims to shed light on the process of teacher learning in situ or in the workplace itself. Its findings should, thus, be specifically relevant for continuing teacher professional development programs. In the case of the pre-service teachers they can also potentially be translated into syllabus contents and incorporated into teacher preparation programs. At the third level of the significance of the study, future LTC research could be informed by the methodological implications of using CHAT as a theoretical and analytical lens to study LTC. As noted, researchers of LTC have pointed out that the field has reached a point where broader methodological frameworks could capture in greater depth and breadth the complex and holistic nature of LTC (e.g., Borg, 2006b; Kubanyiova & Feryok, 2015). The framework adopted in this study, as I will argue, has the potential to respond to this call.

Finally, it is also expected that this study can inform theoretical developments, particularly those about language teaching and language teacher learning. It has been common for recommendations for language teaching to be premised on theories about language learning, specifically second language acquisition (SLA) theories. However, as Larsen-Freeman (1990) argued over two decades ago, theories of language teaching informed by practice and research are also needed, but are still scarcely available. The approach this study takes to investigate LTC and vocabulary instruction gives practice a central focus. Moreover, teachers who participated operated within their naturalistic activities of teaching, and not within artificially constructed 'laboratory settings' (Nunan, 1990). Moreover, the data generated were used to ground the analysis and interpretations were made within the contexts of teaching and of the research site with reference to the theoretical perspectives of CHAT that guided the investigation itself. This research approach acknowledges the 'interdependence' of theory, practice and research, which in turn can inform a theory of language teaching, as well as a theory of language teacher learning or education. Thus, the worth of the present investigation is to be found in its potential significant contributions to the fields of language teaching and learning, language teacher education and applied linguistics more generally, as well as in fostering the development of LTC research as a field of inquiry in itself.

1.5 OVERVIEW OF THE THESIS

In this final section of the chapter, I outline the structure of this thesis. In this introductory chapter, I have described the research area I pursued for this thesis, based on the rationale outlined in Section 1.2. The aim and scope of the study were also explained, followed by arguments for the contributions the study can make to the fields of ELT, LTC research, SLTE, and applied linguistics. The rest of this thesis comprises nine more chapters.

Chapter 2 reviews literature relevant to the four aspects embedded in the present investigation. It essentially builds on the discussions laid out in Section 1.2 above: LTC research, vocabulary instruction, NNES teachers, and the CHAT framework in LTC research. Reviews of research studies, descriptions of key concepts and constructs, and discussions of the theoretical underpinnings, which set the background for the present study, are found in this chapter. In Chapter 3, I move on to lay out the research methodology the study employs, describing and discussing the philosophical and theoretical views relevant to the present investigation. Key methodological issues found in this chapter are the use of a qualitative research paradigm, case study as an approach to studying social phenomena, criticisms of qualitative and case study research, and researcher reflexivity, as well as a description of the research design of the study. The analytical framework, which realised interrelated levels of analysis, reflecting the three theoretical concepts of activity, actions and operations, is also outlined in this chapter. These levels of analysis spread out across the next four chapters. Therefore, Chapter 4 provides analytical descriptions of the sociocultural situation of the present study and its overarching contexts. These descriptions, which provide a backdrop for the subsequent chapters, in themselves reflect an aspect of the 'activity' under study, since they highlight the activity setting, based on the historical development of the institution. Following these descriptions, Chapters 5, 6, and 7 provide more detailed analysis of data relating to the pre-services, the novices and the experienced teachers, respectively. The analysis presented in these three chapters focuses on the action and operation levels of the CHAT model.

Chapter 8, then uses Engeström's activity systems analysis model to map out the interconnections between and among the various factors in ELT as a system under investigation. These interconnections bring the focus on to the activity of teaching as a coherent whole, as it is situated in its context. The analysis at this level moves back to the activity based on teachers' accounts, thus illuminating the process of teacher learning in their community of practice. Picking up the analysis

presented in Chapters 5, 6, 7, and 8, Chapter 9 discusses the major findings and compares them across the three case groups. Key themes include the sociocultural construction of LTC, the teachers' approaches to vocabulary instruction, and the hidden curriculum of teacher education. The study concludes with Chapter 10 in which the major findings are summarised and drawn on to suggest the implications for classroom pedagogy, teacher education and future LTC research. The study's limitations are also addressed in this chapter and a future research agenda is proposed.

2 | LITERATURE REVIEW

In this chapter, I review related literature on four aspects of the present investigation: language teacher cognition (LTC), vocabulary instruction in applied linguistics as well as SLA research, research on NNES teachers, and CHAT as it can be applied in language teacher education and LTC research. Section 2.1, first, discusses the definitions of LTC and its two closely related key constructs: knowledge and beliefs. Other related conceptual terms such as assumptions, attitudes and perceptions are also highlighted. The section continues with the review of LTC research, organised based on conceptual terms closely related to the notion of teacher knowledge (sub-section 2.1.2), emerging key constructs (such as teacher identity, agency and emotion) (sub-section 2.1.3), and a prominent theme in LTC research—teaching grammar (sub-section 2.1.4).

Section 2.2 focuses the review on L2 vocabulary research. Due to its scarcity, only two studies that address LTC together with vocabulary instruction were found for review. The rest of this section reviews how research in vocabulary instruction is approached, focusing on three key aspects of this research related to this study: a learning perspective, a teaching perspective and a testing/assessment perspective on vocabulary instruction. This section is then followed by Section 2.3 examining research that involves discussion of NNES teachers and that reflects their cognitions or practices. As will be seen, such discussion also relates to the notion of language teacher identity delineated in sub-section 2.1.3.

Finally, the chapter discusses a CHAT perspective and its application in LTC research in Section 2.4. The section discusses CHAT key concepts relevant to studies on LTC specifically and teacher education more broadly. Based on the discussions in this section, an operationalised conceptual framework of LTC is proposed in response to Kubanyiova and Feryok's (2015, p. 445) call for "an open-ended bottom-up [as opposed to top-down] approach that seeks to encompass the complexity of teachers' inner lives [i.e., LTC] in their ecologies of practice". Without assuming causal relationships, this ecological approach to practice recognises the complex, systemic interconnections between teacher learning in situ, teachers' actions in the classroom, and students' language learning. This framework is promising in allowing me to achieve the research aim mentioned in Chapter 1.

2.1 A REVIEW OF LANGUAGE TEACHER COGNITION RESEARCH

While there has been a growing body of research in this field, not all such studies have explicitly adopted the label language teacher cognition. They rather use such terms as teachers' beliefs, knowledge, thinking, theories, philosophies, perceptions, perspectives, interpretations, and decision-making, among other related terms. However, they share common characteristics that seek to understand how these unobservable dimensions of teaching (Borg, 2006b) or the language-teaching mind (Burns et al., 2015) are related to the physical, observable aspects of teaching. In other words, despite the different conceptual terms used, LTC research focuses on the relationship between thinking and doing. Nonetheless, according to Borg (2006b), the proliferation of different terminology used to convey similar concepts and the same terminology used to refer to different concepts in LTC research results in inconsistent interpretations of research findings. Consequently, it is counterproductive to the domain of LTC research as a whole. In a moderate attempt to promote mutual understanding across the body of LTC research, I am using the LTC as a conceptual term which subsumes related constructs such as those mentioned above. However, as briefly noted in Chapter 1, in doing so, I am putting at risk the oversimplification of the individual constructs. Therefore, to minimise this possibility, in sub-section 2.1.1, some prominent constructs such as knowledge and beliefs are delineated, and in sub-section 2.1.2 I review research that has examined some of these key constructs. Sub-section 2.1.3 deals with some of the emerging constructs found in the LTC literature. Also, recognising the fact that a majority of LTC research has investigated the area of grammar teaching, I devote sub-section 2.1.4 to this research domain. This review (Section 2.1) concludes with sub-section 2.1.5, where, based on the literature, I provide a conceptualisation of LTC.

2.1.1 Framing language teacher cognition

Terminology and key concepts are core aspects of any research, as they serve to make research findings communicative and mutually intelligible. For this reason, I discuss some key constructs that have been used in the literature of LTC research, beginning with what LTC means. Borg has been a prominent researcher in this field, whose defining statement on LTC has been circulated throughout the literature. In his 2003 review of LTC research, he defines LTC as "the unobservable cognitive dimension of teaching–what teachers know, believe, and think" (Borg, 2003b, p. 81). Three constructs (knowledge, beliefs and thinking) are key determinants of LTC, as

can be seen here. In his later seminal publication (Borg, 2006b, p. 272), his definition is more elaborated. The term is defined as follows:

> Language teacher cognition is an inclusive term referring to the complex, practically-oriented, personalized, and context-sensitive networks of knowledge, thoughts and beliefs that language teachers draw on in their work.

While retaining the three key constructs, this later definition appears more insightful because it not only recognises the interrelatedness of the constructs themselves, but also describes their characteristics. Besides being context-sensitive, it also encapsulates the relationship between LTC and teachers' actions. The constructs teacher belief and teacher knowledge are two that are frequently used in the LTC research paradigm. I therefore discuss them below.

Phipps and Borg (2009, p. 381) define language teachers' beliefs as "propositions about all aspects of their work which teachers hold to be true or false", a definition repeated in Borg (2011, pp. 370-371):

> Beliefs are propositions individuals consider to be true and which are often tacit, have a strong evaluative and affective component, provide a basis for action, and are resistant to change.

The resistant-to-change character of teacher beliefs is what distinguishes 'core' beliefs from 'peripheral' beliefs (Phipps & Borg, 2009). In other words, core beliefs are deeply entrenched while peripheral beliefs appear to be temporary and are prone to changes.

Teacher knowledge, on the other hand, seems to be more complex a concept because it is, in itself, multi-dimensional, comprising knowledge about many aspects relevant to the processes of teaching and learning. In the literature of LTC, it manifests on "a number of different dimensions" (J. C. Richards, Li, & Tang, 1995, p. 2). According to J. C. Richards et al. (1995), the most prominent dimensions are general instructional knowledge and skill, pedagogical content knowledge (e.g., Shulman, 1986, 1987), and pedagogical reasoning skills. Other concepts associated with teacher knowledge include teachers' personal practical knowledge (PPK) (Golombek, 1998, 2009; Morton & Gray, 2010; Tsang, 2004), knowledge about language (KAL) (Bartels, 2009, 2005; Carey, Christie, & Grainger, 2015; Jones & Chen, 2012), teacher language awareness (TLA) (Andrews, 2003, 2007; Luk & Wong, 2010) and teacher or teaching expertise (K. R. Johnson, 2005; Tsui, 2003, 2005, 2009), among other related constructs.

In an early study of teacher cognition in language teaching, Woods (1996, p. 69) defines teacher knowledge (or knowledge structures) as "what a person knows that affect thinking, interpretation and planning action", suggesting therefore that knowledge is not simply a store of information, but a cognitive attribute intertwined with a person's thinking and action. Woods' definition of knowledge brings together what a teacher knows about, what he/she thinks, and what he/she does in a sequential manner where the former is realised by the next which further is reflected in the latter. According to Woods (1996), teachers base their knowledge on both what they know and what they 'believe' to be the case in order to interpret an event (for example, teaching a language area in a particular context). Research, such as the present study itself, thus also looks into teachers' interpretation of their own work, for example to indicate how teacher knowledge is embodied in action. As might have been noticed, Woods' definition of knowledge was not discussed without being linked to the concept of beliefs. In their later study, Woods and Çakir (2011) examine these constructs further. According to them, teacher knowledge is a dynamic, two-dimensional concept across the spectra of personal-impersonal and theoretical-practical. They consider 'beliefs' to be a concept within that of 'knowledge'. Although not explicitly stated, they appear to submit that teachers' beliefs resemble personal knowledge (placed on one end of the personal-impersonal continuum). In contrast, J. C. Richards and Lockhart (1996, p. 30) comment that teachers' beliefs are systematic and "consist of both subjective and objective dimensions. Some may be fairly simple [...] Others may be more complex". To them, there appears to be overlap between teacher beliefs, thinking, and knowledge—all of which function as the basis for the teachers' decision-making. They further submit that it is because of the prevalence of the many decisions made by teachers that teaching is considered "a thinking process" (Richards & Lockhart, 1996, p. 78), a view that moves away from the behaviourist or positivistic research paradigm in language teaching and towards a more cognitive, psychological one.

Although knowledge and beliefs are prominent concepts used in LTC research to investigate their relationships with teacher decision-making or sense-making, in the literature, the following terms can also be identified, for example: teachers' (subjective) theories (Borg, 1999a; Burns, 1996; Karavas-Doukas, 1995), teachers' perceptions (Brannan & Bleistein, 2012; Faez & Valeo, 2012; L. Miller & Aldred, 2000), teachers' perspectives (Lee, 1996; Nassaji, 2012), teachers' understanding (Silver, 2008), teachers' conceptions (Absalom, 2003; Yue'e &

Yunzhang, 2011), teachers' attitudes (Macalister, 2010), and teachers' philosophies (Crookes, 2010, 2015). The use of these constructs reflects the investigator's orientation towards the phenomenon of their interest, but again as much as these many conceptual terms reflect the development of the LTC field, they also produce the risk of confusion among them. In this regard, a delineation of some of these key constructs may be helpful. In their introductory chapter, Barnard and Burns (2012a, pp. 3-4) draw connections between some of these major constructs, reproduced as follows:

> Assumptions may be regarded as axioms which enable us to make pre-judgements about the world around us; for example, a teacher facing a new class of learners will assume that, in a number of respects, they will be similar to classes she or he has previously taught. After working for some time with these new learners, the teacher will perceive that there are similarities with, and differences between, this class and previous ones, and new, somewhat tentative attitudes will emerge. With further experience, these attitudes will tend to be refined, rejected or reformulated and then incorporated into a set of firmer and more stable beliefs. What distinguishes a belief about something from a knowledge of something is that respected members of one's community accept it as a fact. Thus, in pre-Copernican times, ordinarily people did not believe that the sun revolved around the earth; they knew it (emphases original).

To complicate the matter further, concepts such as teacher identity, agency and emotion have recently found their way into LTC research, thus giving rise to further development, as well as complexity, of the conceptualisation of LTC. In effect, Borg (2012, p. 11) has modified his original definition of language teacher cognition by incorporating some of these new terms:

> [...] language teacher cognition includes what second- or foreign-language teachers think, know and believe [...]; however, in this chapter I also include as part of teacher cognition constructs such as attitudes, identities and emotions, in recognition of the fact that these are all aspects of the unobservable dimension of teaching.

The diversity of terminology used in LTC research, while indicating the growth of this field, poses a great challenge for researchers to communicate their findings. The discussions laid out here suggest that differentiating knowledge from beliefs,

as well as compartmentalising various aspects of knowledge itself, might not be productive to research on LTC because to a large extent these concepts (as pointed out above) are intricately connected. In the present study, that adopts a sociocultural perspective which views LTC as a coherent whole, no attempt is made to separate types of knowledge, beliefs or other cognitive attributes from one another. As K. E. Johnson and Golombek (2011, p. 3) contend:

> Within general educational research, distinctions have been made between the accepted subject matter knowledge of a particular field, the general pedagogical knowledge of classroom processes, and the pedagogical content knowledge that teachers use to make the content of their instruction relevant and accessible to students [...] However, from a sociocultural theoretical perspective this separation of types of knowledge for teaching is not only counter-productive, it is contrary to the fundamental principles of Vygotsky's theory of cognitive development. From a sociocultural perspective, human cognition is understood as originating in and fundamentally shaped by engagement in social activities and, therefore, it follows that what is taught, is fundamentally shaped by how it is taught, and vice versa. Likewise, what is learned, is fundamentally shaped by how it is learned, and vice versa. Cognition cannot be removed from activity since it originates in and is framed by the very nature of that activity. From this stance, knowledge for teaching must be understood holistically, and the interdependence between what is taught and how it is taught becomes crucial to both the processes of learning-to-teach as well as the development of teaching expertise.

However, it is equally important to acknowledge that any attempt to use a conceptual term, such as LTC, to subsume other related constructs may risk the oversimplification of those constructs that have been studied in great detail. Therefore, as will be seen in sub-section 2.1.2 below, particular key constructs evolving around the notion of teacher knowledge are reviewed to illuminate their respective characteristics. Concepts such as identity, agency and emotion are increasingly investigated within sociocultural approaches not only to human learning generally but also to teacher learning and teacher education specifically. I take up these constructs in sub-section 2.1.3.

2.1.2 Key Constructs of LTC

As mentioned, some key constructs have been prominently used in LTC research. At least, since the early 1990s, LTC studies have investigated the nature of teaching evolving around the notion of teacher knowledge, particularly: beliefs, assumptions and knowledge (BAK), personal practical knowledge (PPK), knowledge about language (KAL), teacher language awareness (TLA) and teaching expertise. Research that has explicitly employed any of these concepts is reviewed first in 2.1.2.1. Other studies have used different conceptual terms in their LTC research, but have generally dealt with teacher knowledge to a certain extent. For this reason, I review them in 2.1.2.2 under the sub-heading–Constructs Related to Teacher Knowledge.

2.1.2.1 Teacher Knowledge

Beliefs, Assumptions and Knowledge (BAK)

As noted at the beginning of sub-section 2.1.1 above, there is no clear-cut differentiation between teachers' beliefs and knowledge since they, together with other concepts (such as assumptions and thinking), are closely intertwined. For this reason, Woods (1996) proposes a framework of teacher cognition that blends beliefs, assumptions and knowledge together. This framework has been referred to as BAK. As briefly reviewed earlier, Woods (1996) is one of the early LTC researchers. He contends that teachers' knowledge and beliefs form bases for teachers to make pedagogical decisions that influence classroom practices. The notion of BAK was built on Woods' earlier longitudinal study (Woods, 1991), which investigates teachers' interpretations of, and thus understanding and knowledge about, L2 teaching curricula.

Woods (1991) illustrates that it is possible to better understand teaching processes from the perspectives of teachers themselves rather than those of textbook designers or curriculum writers (cf., Samuda, 2005, on teachers' pedagogic task design expertise). Woods (1991) examined a case of eight university ESL teachers from four universities in Canada. Using an ethnographic interviewing approach, he explored the teachers' perceptions of their past and future teaching, specifically their interpretations of pedagogical tasks, materials and objectives, aspects of the curriculum the teachers were using. Reporting on two teachers, based on data collected from their background interviews, stimulated-recall interviews, and teachers' logbooks, he highlights the following finding: teachers' decisions on the planning and conduct of classroom activities reflected the

teachers' "assumptions and beliefs about language, learning and teaching" (Woods, 1991, p. 4). That is, the two teachers in Woods' study reported that their understandings of important conceptual ideas in the curriculum—for instance the integration of teaching reading and writing skills, the emphasis of learners' motivation in language learning, or the use of authentic texts in reading or listening activities—underlay their pedagogic decisions. Woods (1991) also reported that the teachers' decisions were 'coherent' despite the apparently conflicting underlying beliefs reported. In other words, the teachers' BAK were found to be hierarchically structured and formed a coherent whole on which pedagogical decisions were based. At the same time, Woods found that the teachers' BAK differed from one teacher to another; the teachers viewed the importance of the course curriculum differently. That is, while one teacher reported to have interpreted the curriculum as pre-planned and determined by the institution, another teacher saw it as oriented to the students' needs. Moreover, the teachers in Woods' study were also found to have different beliefs in terms of how they should approach their teaching, that is "teaching based on linear vs. holistic organization of content" (p. 14). As a result of such differing beliefs, their ways of teaching the language were embodied differently.

The notion of BAK has also been adopted by other LTC researchers, for example Macalister (2010) in his study on teacher attitudes to extensive reading practices. In his own model of teacher cognition, Macalister (2010, see also Macalister, 2012) treats BAK as a construct reflecting teachers' prior knowledge informing teachers' cognitions. Macalister (2010) studied the attitudes of 36 practising ESL tertiary education teachers in New Zealand regarding extensive reading and their reported practice of this area. Through telephone interviews lasting between approximately 15 and 30 minutes, he used structured questionnaires with 'supplementary questions' to survey the "teachers' understanding of extensive reading" (Macalister, 2010, p. 64). The study discusses the teachers' understanding in the following areas: "knowledge of and belief about extensive reading, classroom practice, and requirements for extensive reading" (ibid., p. 64). The majority of the teachers were found to hold positive attitudes towards extensive reading, citing such benefits as enhancing readers' vocabulary knowledge and knowledge about grammar or syntax. The teachers also reported their positive attitudes towards realising extensive reading in their class although there were mixed comments on how this could be done, including also the conditions which would permit the embodiment of extensive reading: time,

resources, student expectations, curriculum and assessment. The author considers these findings as "both comfort and concern for advocates of extensive reading" (Macalister, 2010, p. 68). It was positive, the author argues, that the teachers believed they knew about extensive reading and they had favourable attitudes towards it. It was a concern, however, that few teachers reported they knew about 'research' in this area, leading Macalister to question the effect of research on classroom practice. In his words (Macalister, 2010, p. 69):

> This raises the question of the purpose of research. If the purpose is to cast light on what constitutes effective language learning and thus to improve classroom practice, it is troubling that the results of more than two decades of research are not better-known among teachers for, if the results are not well-known, their influence on classroom practice is likely to be slight.

It is clear, then, that Macalister's (2010) and Woods' (1991, 1996) studies focus on teacher knowledge using, among others, the notion of BAK. The construct of teacher knowledge continues to influence many other studies found in the literature of LTC research although in various forms as can be seen below.

Personal Practical Knowledge (PPK)

One of the prominent constructs in LTC research is 'personal practical knowledge' (PPK). Like many other constructs, PPK originates from mainstream education research, for example Clandinin (1985). According to Clandinin (1985), PPK is a study of what teachers know about teaching generally as well as about themselves as a personal being. She submits that PPK is a special kind of knowledge about teaching that exceeds the knowledge content found in teacher training and teacher development programs. Research has shown that PPK is highly situated, identified through 'images' of teaching in practice. Image, as Clandinin (1985, p. 363) comments, is a form or component of PPK, reflecting:

> [...] the imaginative processes [of teaching] by which meaningful and useful patterns are generated in practice [...] images are embodied and enacted. Their embodiment entails emotionality, morality, and aesthetics and it is these, personally felt and believed, meanings which engender enactments.

As the quote also shows, in defining PPK, concepts such as images, emotionality, morality, aesthetics, personal affects, beliefs and meaning-making are evoked,

highlighting the active role of teachers in teaching and learning, as well as in education more generally.

The concept of PPK and its research is, thus, seen as a movement towards a post-positivistic view of (teacher) knowledge, placing a heavy emphasis on story telling or narrative of experience through which teachers' prior experiences as learners, teachers, and people are retold, relived and reconstructed (Golombek, 2009). In her early study on PPK in language teaching, Golombek (1998) investigated PPK among two pre-service native-speaker ESL teachers and the relationship between such knowledge and their classroom practices. Using data obtained from interviews, classroom observations and field-notes, Golombek (1998) characterised the teachers' PPK as affective, moral and consequential, thus supporting Clandinin's (1985) argument mentioned earlier. Especially, Golombek found that the teachers' PPK was shaped by their experiences as language learners and their professional practice, and that the teachers' PPK informed their classroom practice. That is, as she puts it, teachers' understanding of the subject-matter and knowledge of instruction (including understanding the students and their needs) "guides teachers' sense-making processes" and gives "physical form to practice", thus allowing teachers to decide what to teach and how to teach it in their lessons. She concludes on this basis that teachers' PPK is an "interpretive framework through which [the teachers] made sense of their classrooms as they recounted their experiences and made this knowledge explicit" (Golombek, 1998, p. 459).

Also investigating PPK in language teaching, Tsang (2004) looked into how teachers' PPK interacted with teachers' decision-making while teaching. The former was referred to as the teachers' experiential conceptions or "teachers' maxims" about language teaching and learning that guide the latter, referred to as "descriptions of any unexpected events, reaction/unplanned action and reasons, better alternatives and reasons" (Tsang, 2004, p. 171). Tsang's case study involved three pre-service non-native speaker ESL teachers in Hong Kong, who at the time were in internship and teaching for their practicum. Data were based on, first, the teachers' reflective writings or narratives such as "a language learning/teaching autobiography, a statement of their teaching philosophy and teaching expectations, and a description of their favourite teachers at the beginning of their Practice Teaching course" (p. 169); second, classroom observations; third, post-observation interviews; and, fourth, stimulated recall interviews. The study revealed, first of all, that PPK conceptualised as teaching maxims took various forms articulated by the teachers in terms of teaching qualities and approaches–

for instance a teacher's teaching maxim being that the teacher should "use vocabulary notebook to facilitate vocabulary learning" because it was believed to be an effective way of teaching (p. 184). Second, Tsang found that some of these teaching maxims (or forms of PPK) were contradictory to one another, and their embodiments were subject to classroom circumstances. For example, one of the teachers had reported that she preferred to "establish authority and keep things under control", but she was observed to be tolerant to a student who was disruptive. When asked during a post-observation interview, the teacher explained that she "did not want her [the student] to become hostile to me, which would make my job more difficult" (p. 185). This teacher, however, continued to report that establishing authority, being strict and setting up rules were appropriate teaching approaches. Tsang concludes that PPK was a source of teachers' classroom decision-making, but only about half of the observed decision-making instances were based on the teachers' PPK. The other half were informed by classroom situations, thus giving rise to 'new' philosophies of teaching.

Both Golombek's (1998) and Tsang's (2004) studies have shown that PPK is embodied in decision-making, which gives rise to classroom teaching. PPK as part of teacher knowledge, as can be seen here, is a central concept in these two studies. It is a combination of experiential, personal and practical. However, especially in Tsang's (2004) study, it seems that PPK is referred to as teachers' prior knowledge rather than a special kind of teacher knowledge in Clandinin's (1985) sense.

Knowledge About Language (KAL)

While PPK used in LTC research emphasises the personal and practical aspects of teacher knowledge, KAL appears to place the emphasis on teachers' understanding about theoretical underpinnings of their language pedagogy and on teachers' language proficiency. Such understanding or knowledge is said to help teachers make sense of their own practices. However, the concept of knowledge stemming from KAL is more complex than teachers knowing about and using linguistics or applied linguistic facts (Bartels, 2005), because for one thing the application of KAL in classroom is never straightforward. Several studies have looked at the application of teachers' KAL. For example, Borg (2005a) used data from two separate studies to analyse two EFL teachers' experience, KAL and their classroom practices in teaching grammar. In trying to understand why these teachers did what

they did in their classes, he used audio-taped interviews and classroom observations as the means of data collection. His analyses of the data indicated that the teachers' language learning experiences determined their KAL which subsequently influenced the ways the teachers operated their classrooms. His conclusion on the basis of this finding was that KAL worked as a driving force in classroom decision-making, thus shaping the teachers' cognitions and classroom practices.

In their study, also focusing on KAL, Burns and Knox (2005) studied how two experienced TESOL teachers, who were studying in a masters' program, applied their new KAL (in their case, it was knowledge about systemic-functional linguistics, or SFL) into their classroom teaching. Based on qualitative data obtained from interviews and classroom observations, the authors found that the teachers' ways of teaching grammar were shaped by (1) contextual factors, for example, the prescribed curriculum, students' anxiety and needs, and personal theories about learning and teaching; and (2) personal factors such as their own learning and teaching experiences and the experiences the teachers gained from their training program. The teachers' KAL was also found to shift as a result of their newly learnt knowledge about SFL. This shift in KAL, as the authors found, also resulted in changes in practices. However, it was reported also that a certain degree of change, that is, increasingly adopting SFL approaches to teaching grammar, was attributed to the presence of the authors who were observing the class.

Popko (2005) also studied the application of teachers' KAL into classroom teaching, conceptualised as "professionalization processes" (p. 388). Popko (2005) reports on four case studies among thirteen MA-TESL students who were involved in his doctoral degree project. The study employed commonly used data collection methods–interviews, questionnaires, and classroom observations. On the basis of these data, Popko identified the relationships, but not necessarily the causal ones, between teachers' KAL and their classroom practice, reporting on four different ways used by the observed teachers in regards to their application of KAL in teaching grammar and vocabulary in ESL classes. The author concluded that the KAL applications were indirect in that the KAL used during their teaching did not always come from the MA course they had learnt. In the light of this finding, the author suggested, for the purpose of teacher education, that what mattered is "not KAL as such, but the application of KAL during [their teaching activities]. If that is the case, it may be that what is of importance to ESL teachers [...] is not so much KAL, but the ways in which that knowledge can be used to inform their practice" (p.

402). This conclusion appears to resonate with a widely known dichotomy between declarative knowledge and procedural knowledge in the field of SLA (see for example K. R. Johnson, 1998).

A concept closely related to KAL, also found in the literature of LTC, is teacher language awareness. It is reviewed next.

Teacher Language Awareness (TLA)

Although it does not bear the word 'knowledge', TLA is virtually synonymous to KAL as they are generally used interchangeably in the literature (e.g., van Essen, 1997). In fact, TLA is also defined as a form of knowledge. According to Thornbury (1997, p. x), TLA is "explicit knowledge about language [...] the knowledge that teachers have of the underlying systems of the language that enables them to teach effectively" (emphasis original). Andrews and McNeill (2005) make it very explicit that KAL and TLA are the same, and although the title of their manuscript bears the term KAL, it was TLA that they used to outline their arguments. However, to them, TLA encompasses not only knowledge but also beliefs about language teaching and learning. Moreover, unlike Popko (2005) reviewed above, who seems to suggest that procedural knowledge is more important than declarative knowledge, Andrews and McNeill (2005) are concerned with both of these aspects of TLA.

Andrews and McNeill (2005) involved three 'highly experienced' NNES teachers of ESOL in a study of TLA of the 'good language teacher'. Two of the teachers were teaching in Hong Kong while another was in the UK. All of them, female teachers, were referred to as 'good language teachers' because of the award they had obtained from their teacher education: "a Distinction for the practical component of their professional training" (p. 162). Using a language awareness (LA) test, interviews, classroom observations, stimulated recall procedures, the authors aimed to find out if these 'good' language teachers possessed 'highly developed levels' of declarative knowledge of the language systems (particularly grammar and vocabulary) and if they had TLA in pedagogical practice (i.e., the procedural knowledge dimension) in the areas of teaching grammar and vocabulary. The authors also set out to explore the characteristics of the teachers' TLA. Based on the LA test which focused on grammar and vocabulary across four areas—correction of errors, recognition of metalanguage, production of metalanguage, and explanation of errors—Andrews and McNeill (2005, p. 165) found that, in terms of grammatical knowledge, the 'good' teachers' scores were "not more markedly

above" those of the teachers who did not have a professional qualification and who had little teaching experience (reported in one of the authors' earlier study, Andrews, 1999). In terms of vocabulary knowledge, Andrews and McNeill could only compare the teachers' test scores among the three participating teachers themselves (due to lack of normative data in this area), and they showed that the two Hong Kong teachers scored relatively the same and significantly lower than the UK teacher. The authors speculated that the low scores on the vocabulary test exhibited by the Hong Kong teachers could have been because of "the relative lack of attention paid to vocabulary" in their teacher education courses which "traditionally" placed a larger emphasis on grammar teaching and learning (p. 166).

In terms of the teachers' procedural knowledge in their pedagogical practices, Andrews and McNeill found that the teachers displayed highly developed levels of TLA in pedagogical practice. However, subjectively judged by the authors, the participating teachers also showed limitations in their vocabulary (procedural or pedagogical content) knowledge. Such limitations were judged by the authors in terms of the teachers' failure to maximise the language input being presented to their students. For example, as Andrews and McNeill (2005, p. 168) reported, when teaching pairs of synonyms, a teacher "gave no indication to the students that there were differences in the patterns of complementation associated with each verb in the pair"–in this case, 'increase' and 'augment'. As will be seen, this particular issue was also encountered by the teachers in the present study. Finally, the authors reported on the characteristics of TLA of the three participating teachers. One of the characteristics was teachers' "willingness to engage with language" drawing on teachers' awareness of the complexity of the language systems and of the difficulties students could face in learning such systems (p. 171). Another TLA characteristic they found was teachers' self-awareness of their own limitations, for example in terms of grammar and vocabulary, and how such self-awareness is related to teachers' willingness "to engage in reflection about the content of learning, and the extent to which they engage in such reflection as part of their pedagogical practice" (p. 172). Andrews and McNeill (2005) also reported other characteristics of the teachers' classroom practices such as focusing on forms (for example, grammatical and vocabulary forms) and promoting students' noticing of forms by using coloured Powerpoint slides and different colour chalks. Consequentially, the authors argued that these classroom characteristics are "either facets of teacher language awareness or aspects of pedagogical content knowledge which impact upon teacher language awareness in operation" (p. 173).

This argument, once again, highlights the close resemblance between KAL and TLA (see also Andrews, 2007) and their interrelationship with classroom practices.

TLA is, thus, argued to be an important part of teacher knowledge, or LTC more generally. It has also been seen as an integral component in continuing teacher development programs (e.g., Wright & Bolitho, 1997) and in the triadic relationships between teacher knowledge, teaching and student learning. In arguing for the latter case, Andrews (2007, p. ix) puts it as follows:

> [...] the possession of an adequate level of TLA is an essential attribute of any competent L2 teacher. The assumption underlying that argument is that there a relationship between the language awareness of the L2 teacher and the effectiveness of that teacher as indicated by the language learning achieved by his/her students.

As can be seen here, TLA is viewed as a central indicator of L2 teacher competence, a concept that bears a close resemblance with teacher or teaching expertise. In the literature of SLTE that has largely been informed by LTC research (Burns & Richards, 2009; K. E. Johnson & Golombek, 2009), teacher or teaching expertise has also attracted researchers' attention in the investigation of effective teachers. As can be seen in the following review, this concept also invokes the construct of teacher knowledge.

Teaching Expertise

The emergence of 'teaching expertise' as a construct in teaching was seen in the 1980s, but its presence in L2 teaching specifically emerged relatively recently (Tsui, 2009). As Tsui (2009) comments, early research on teaching expertise was based on an information-processing approach to knowledge, aiming to compare the knowledge of expert and novice teachers. In this regard, research on teaching expertise is akin to KAL and TLA research, setting out to investigate how teachers use or apply their learnt knowledge from their teacher training program into their classroom practice. However, Tsui (2009, p. 191) argues that more recent research on teaching expertise has "adopted a sociocultural approach in which teacher knowledge has been conceived as situated, and teachers have been studied as 'the whole person in action, acting with the settings of that activity' (Lave, 1988: 17)" (see also Tsui, 2003). Such a research aim resembles that of PPK studies reviewed earlier. This means, in other words, that research on teaching expertise

and that on PPK, as well as BAK, KAL and TLA, can be seen as closely linked to one another.

As part of the teacher knowledge research movement, teaching expertise research has been approached in terms of teachers' pedagogical skills in and understanding about various aspects of teaching and learning. In teacher education, 'expertise' has been defined as "the skills and knowledge" that teacher educators need to help teachers learn to teach (Waters, 2005, p. 210). Such skills and knowledge, as Waters (2005, p. 226) argues, are teacher educators' "understanding of the nature of teacher learning and an ability to translate this knowledge into practice in such a way as to maximise the potential for the uptake of teacher learning opportunities". In classroom teaching, on the other hand, the nature of expertise has been associated closely with, among others, pedagogical reasoning, decision-making, planning thoughts, improvisational skills, and problem-solving undertaken by teachers (Tsui, 2003). These characteristics are much alike those discussed in relation to BAK, PPK, KAL or TLA reviewed in the preceding sections. In fact, Tsui (2003) appears to use the terms 'expertise in teaching' and 'teacher knowledge' interchangeably.

From the reviews provided here, it becomes clear that the various constructs used in the literature of language teacher education as well as SLTE reflect certain forms of teacher knowledge. In the section that follows, I review, nonetheless, other constructs found in the literature of LTC.

2.1.2.2 Constructs Related to Teacher Knowledge

There are a number of other studies that do not explicitly use any of the constructs reviewed in 2.1.2.1 (i.e., BAK, PPK, KAL, TLA or Teaching Expertise), but they examine teacher knowledge in some sort. I review these study here.

In their studies of teachers' 'pedagogical reasoning skills', J. C. Richards et al. (1995) compared this aspect of teacher knowledge or expertise between 'novice' and 'experienced' ESL teachers. J. C. Richards et al. (1995) reported on two studies. In the first, they compared ten student teachers and ten secondary school practising teachers in terms of their approaches to planning a reading lesson and teaching literature. In one study, the authors found that the novices (who were referred to as the student teachers in training) had different ways of planning their reading lesson than those performed by their experienced counterparts. J. C. Richards et al. (1995) reported that the novice teachers focused more on teaching the language (for example, teaching vocabulary in the text), were concerned about

the difficulty of the text for their learners, approached their teaching from their perspectives and aimed for their learners to comprehend the literal message of the text without focusing deeply on the characters in the story text. The experienced teachers did not share these preferences, as the authors found. They considered the interest of the text and saw that as an opportunity for their learners to learn not only the language but also the moral of the story; they focused less on (explicit) vocabulary teaching, encouraging their students instead to work it out from the reading contexts. Another difference Richards et al. found in their study is that, unlike the novices, the experienced teachers approached their teaching from the students' perspectives, involving students in discussing the text, finding out if the text interested them, and helping them to interpret the text more broadly.

In another study also reported in J. C. Richards et al. (1995), the authors examined how twelve teachers with different specialisations (e.g., a degree in English literature rather than TESOL) and teaching experiences approached teaching literature in an ESL context. They compared three groups of teachers: one with degrees majoring in teaching literature and with experience in teaching literature, another with the same degree and major but with no experience, and another one with a degree in a different major and without experience. Respectively, the first group was reported to be enthusiastic about literature, giving high value to teaching it and approached the teaching broadly, going beyond teaching the language. The second group was found to have similar perceptions of and beliefs about literature teaching, except that this group expressed their concerns over the usefulness of literature in the course exam. The third group "had mixed opinions about the value of literature and saw its role in ESL teaching simply as a way of supporting the development of reading skills" (pp. 15-16). Given their different beliefs and views about literature (and literature teaching), these teachers were found to approach literature teaching differently, with the ones with training in literature being more critical and creative in their teaching than the ones with no major in the subject-matter. The last interesting finding reported in Richards et al. is that even the teachers with literature majors differed in their teaching approaches because they differed in teaching experience. The more experienced the teachers were, the authors found, the more flexible they became in preparing and teaching the subject. J. C. Richards et al.'s (1995) findings illustrate that teachers hold different beliefs and thus teach differently because they have different professional training (i.e., professional knowledge) and experiences.

Burns (1996) explored the beliefs and thinking of teachers, and analysed how these cognitive attributes influenced their ways of teaching, and how they might change or develop. Burns studied six experienced teachers with TESOL training, teaching adult beginners of ESL in Australia. Using a collaborative, ethnographic and interpretive approach to exploring the teachers' cognitions and their teaching practices, Burns interviewed the teachers and observed their teaching in action. She found that the teachers' theoretical and pedagogical thinking and beliefs were interconnected and interacted with different "contextual" levels (p. 157)–from the very top, the institution that set out the philosophical framework for the teachers' thinking; to the teachers' individual cognitions about language, learning and learners; to the teachers' instructional decisions. Burns found that the teachers' cognitive processes regarding instructional decisions were shaped by the institutional culture (i.e., the curriculum, the placement of the learners, the timetabling of the class, inter alia). These cognitions, she found, determined the teachers' approach to teaching. For instance, one teacher in her case study was reported to interpret the school's arrangement for her learners as being withdrawn from a larger group, since they had limited language ability. As a result, such interpretations by the teacher made her decide that her teaching approach would be less traditional, encouraging more student involvement in the learning process than was seen in other beginner classes. Burns further showed that the teacher's approach was also influenced by the classroom context–namely the learners' characteristics and the nature of learning that occurred in the class. In addition, Burns reported that the teacher's teaching approach further shaped instructional decisions, specifically about learning tasks and materials. This interconnectedness of the teachers' belief networks (i.e., the institution, the classroom, and the instruction) is what Burns (1996, p. 159) calls the teacher's "theories for practice" which "construct the cognitive structures for planning, decision making and teaching behaviours in the language classroom".

In a study aiming to survey teachers' understanding about ELT and their own profession, Lee (1996) involved 238 primary English teachers in Hong Kong to answer a questionnaire with six sections: (1) views of basic requirements for primary English teachers, (2) self-evaluation of English language proficiency, (3) self-evaluation of classroom practice, (4) self-perceptions as professionals, (5) primary ELT: problems and solutions, and (6) professional development. The author found the teachers' views and beliefs varied according to the training and experience they had gained. The more experienced teachers were found to be more aware of the

essence of the particular knowledge required of ELT teachers (for example, understanding of child development) than were the less experienced ones. Lee's study, like those reviewed here, indicated that teaching experience played a role in the construction of teacher knowledge and thus LTC itself.

In a qualitative study of a teacher's personal pedagogical systems defined as teachers' "beliefs, knowledge, theories, assumptions and attitudes" (p. 9), Borg (1998) reported on how such systems were related to grammatical instruction and how they were influenced or developed by various factors. Borg's (1998) study was an EFL context. The teacher was an experienced native English speaking teacher with professional training in TEFL, and the students were young adults and adults EFL learners from European countries. Using an exploratory-interpretive paradigm, the author conducted interviews and classroom observations in a cyclical fashion to collect and analyse the data. Borg found, inter alia, that the teacher's beliefs about the students' expectations (that is, to have discussions on grammar points during the lesson) largely influenced the teacher's instruction in that he regularly focused on grammar, particularly on analysing grammatical errors produced by the students. Borg concluded that the teacher's cognitions were influenced by "internal contextual factors" (for example, the learners' understanding of the lesson). External contexts such as the school requirement, parents or curriculum mandates were not found to be affecting the beliefs of the teacher in question.

In a similar vein, Lacorte (2005) investigated teachers' knowledge and beliefs in the management of the transitions between instructional stages that made up foreign language lessons (in this case, Spanish as a foreign language in the USA). Using interviews and classroom observations, Lacorte revealed that his teachers' ways of teaching were informed by their "personal theories of teaching", developed from the teachers' professional knowledge and experiences (pp. 387-388). This finding falls well in line with those reviewed above, showing that teacher knowledge (and beliefs) has its personal, practical and professional aspects.

Gatbonton (2008) looked into teacher pedagogical knowledge, broadly defined as "knowledge, theories and beliefs about the act of teaching and the process of learning" (p. 162) of both novice and experienced teachers of ESL. Using a stimulated recall protocol, the author had the novice ESL teachers explain their thoughts as they underwent their teaching. Data collected from this study were then compared with those obtained from experienced ESL teachers in the author's earlier study (Gatbonton, 1999), with regard to two areas of focus: categories of the teachers' pedagogical knowledge and the comparisons of such categories between

the novice and experienced teachers. Gatbonton (2008) identified three prevalent pedagogical knowledge categories among the participating teachers: "language management", "note student behaviour and reactions", and "procedure check" (p. 169). Moreover, the novices were found to possess a great deal of knowledge that was shared by the experienced teachers. The novices were also reported to have obtained this body of knowledge from a short teacher-training course and from the novices' prior learning experiences as L2 learners themselves. Differences were also reported among these teachers in terms of their teaching practices. While the novices were found to focus more on the students, the experienced teachers cared more about the teaching and learning processes.

A number of other LTC studies that can be conceived of as focusing on teacher knowledge, despite the conceptual terminology used in their respective studies, examine the nature of change in what teachers learn from their teacher education program or the impact such a program has on teachers' knowledge. Thus, in some sort, these studies reflect the investigation of the application of teacher knowledge. One of such studies is Ting (2007). Focusing on change in teachers' beliefs as a result of a teacher professional training program, Ting (2007) studied both pre-service teachers (student teachers) and in-service teachers. The author used a number of data collection tools including questionnaires, lesson plans, and teaching practicum observations. Ting found out that the professional program the teachers had been enrolled in did not become 'an agent of change' (to use Busch's, 2010, term reviewed below) of beliefs for the in-service teachers, but the program appeared to have a positive impact on the pre-service teachers. That is, the program tried to promote teaching grammar in context: while the pre-service teachers could adopt this grammar teaching approach, the in-service teachers were "resistant to change" (Ting, 2007, p. 47).

In a similar vein, Busch (2010), using Likert-rating scale questionnaires and written comments, examined the impact a teacher education program, in particular an 'Introductory Second Language Acquisition' course, would have on pre-service teachers' beliefs about various propositions of second language learning (processes). Using a phenomenological approach (Creswell, 2007) to analysing the teachers' beliefs, Busch focused on four major areas of SLA: difficulty of learning a second language, the role of foreign language aptitude, the nature of language learning, and learning and communication strategies, and found that there were changes in their beliefs as a result of the course. Such changes were attributed to "the depth of knowledge" the student teachers had gained from the SLA course or

what the author called "the agent of change" (p. 331). Likewise, Borg (2011) also aimed to test the impact teacher education programs have on teachers' beliefs. His qualitative and longitudinal study produced findings that were supportive of Busch's (2010). Cautiously and broadly interpreting the term 'impact', Borg (2011) concluded that there was indeed a "considerable" level of impact from teacher education on his participating teachers' beliefs about English language teaching. Whether the impact is understood as reversing, strengthening, or extending beliefs, findings from these two studies and others (e.g., Farrell, 1999) alike seem to be clear that teachers' cognitions (knowledge, beliefs, thinking, assumptions and interpretations, among others) can be shaped by professional teacher training programs.

As has been seen so far, despite the various conceptual terms, teacher knowledge appears to remain the central focus of LTC research. As research in this domain continues to grow and is conducted from interdisciplinary perspectives, new constructs emerge.

2.1.3 Emerging Constructs in LTC Research

In the last decade or so, emerging constructs such as language teacher identity, agency and emotion have made their presence felt in the literature of LTC research, especially as the field began to embrace sociocultural perspectives (see Section 2.2 below). Their presence shapes the nature of LTC by incorporating, as much as highlighting, the social, historical, cultural, affective and moral aspects of the teaching activity. By Borg's (2003, 2006) definition, these constructs can be subsumed under LTC because they all are unobservable dimensions of teaching although such subsuming might overlook the complexity of the individual constructs. As will be seen in Section 2.2, following Kubanyiova and Feryok (2015), I argue for a bottom-up, open-ended approach to LTC investigation, which does not conflate but allow LTC constructs to be illuminated from within research data themselves. However, before I do that, in the remainder of this sub-section, I review the emerging constructs found in LTC research: teacher identity, agency and emotion.

Teacher Identity

Teacher identity is in itself a complex construct, like the construct of teacher knowledge, in part due to its multi-faceted nature reflected through such terms as

"social identity, ethnic identity, cultural identity, linguistic identity, sociocultural identity, subjectivity, the self, and voice" (J. Miller, 2009, p. 173). According to Nunan and Choi (2010, p. 3), "there are literally hundreds of definitions" of the constructs language, culture, identity and reflexivity.

Although it is claimed that within the field of TESOL, language teacher identity is an emerging field of inquiry on its own (e.g., J. Miller, 2009; Varghese, Morgan, Johnston, & Johnson, 2005), research on language teachers' sociocultural identities can be traced back to as early as the 1990s (e.g., Duff & Uchida, 1997; Norton, 1997). In their ethnographic case study, Duff and Uchida (1997) report on four EFL teachers in a language centre in Japan. Their main foci were to explore how these "teachers' sociocultural identities, understandings, and practices [are] negotiated and transformed over time" and what "factors" were involved in such negotiation and transformation processes. Using a wide range of data collection means such as questionnaires, interviews, observations, document analysis, teachers' journal entries, and researchers' field notes and journals, the authors revealed two dimensions of the teachers' identities in English language and culture teaching in a Japanese context. The first dimension referred to the teachers' past experiences (such as language learning, teaching and cross-cultural experiences) that characterised the teachers' personal, sociocultural identities. The second dimension reflected the contextual factors including "the local classroom culture, the institutional culture [and goals], and the textbook or curriculum" (p. 469) that shaped such characteristics. It is through the negotiation of these contextual factors that the teachers' past experiences (or what the authors referred to as the 'biographical/professional basis' of the teachers' personal identities) were enacted and their sociocultural identities constructed. The teachers' identities were found to be dynamic and complex as they took shape through the process of teachers' negotiations with their contradictions and tensions. Such conceptualisations of language teacher identity resonate with later research in this domain.

In Varghese et al. (2005, p. 35), three research studies that adopted three different perspectives on language teacher identity were reviewed, and a number of characteristics of language teacher identity were reported. They include:

1. Identity as multiple, shifting, and in conflict;
2. Identity as crucially related to social, cultural, and political context; and
3. Identity being constructed, maintained, and negotiated primarily through discourse.

These themes, therefore, reflect the nature of language teacher identity as a construct. That is, it is situated, (co-)constructed, and negotiated in social communities of practice confined to classroom settings, the premises of an educational institution, a society at large, or even an 'imagined' discourse (Clarke, 2008; Kanno & Norton, 2003; Kanno & Stuart, 2011; Kiely, 2015; J. Miller, 2007; Norton, 2013). The word 'imagined' here refers to the formation of a mental image, in a sense closely denoted in the word 'image' used in language teacher knowledge research, particularly PPK. It could be argued that language teacher identity and language teacher knowledge research realise the same aspect of teacher cognition. In other words, they are closely related constructs of LTC that differentiating one from another may be counter-productive in understanding the process of teacher learning or teacher development generally.

Nonetheless, teacher identity itself remains a domain of inquiry. Varghese et al. (2005) also mention four 'substantive' research areas regarding language teacher identity. These are "marginalization", "the position of nonnative speaker teachers", "the status of language teaching as a profession", and "the teacher-student relation" (p. 35). The present study deals with language teacher identity as it is related to NNES teachers, their cognitions and practices, how they identify themselves as language teachers and how others, or how they think others, view them. A related review of research on this topic is provided in Section 2.3. However, what is notable, here, about language teacher identity is the emphasis in the literature that is continually placed on how language teachers learn to teach, a process by which teachers become members of the community of practice (Clarke, 2008; Kiely, 2015). As will be seen in the present study (particularly, in Chapter 9), the focus on teacher learning only emerges as a posteriori theme.

Teacher Agency

As has been illustrated, language teacher identity has its multi-faceted characters, one of which is teachers negotiating their contextual variables (e.g., Duff & Uchida, 1997). It is through such a negotiating role that language teacher agency is illuminated. Agency as a construct is closely related to identity (Deters, 2011), and its presence in the field of language education has emerged only recently (Vitanova, 2005). Viewing agency in terms of negotiation suggests an embodied action. However, Vitanova (2005) reports that resistance on the part of actors also reflects their agency. Thus, agency invokes the concepts of power and relations between

individuals and society (Feryok, 2012). Based on her study on 'personal practical theories', Feryok (2012) reports on an Armenian EFL teacher's agency as framed from within an activity theoretical perspective. The report aims to illustrate how the teacher's 'sense of agency' was developed across different sociocultural contexts. Using Gal'perin's 'orienting theory', Feryok (2012) finds that the teacher's "understanding of her experiences with her school English teacher appears to have oriented [her] to her actions as a language teaching student, English teacher, and teacher trainer by being abstracted into an image", and it is such an image that "mediated the development of her sense of agency" (p. 104). The author notes also that this image was based on the teacher's personal experience rather than her professional knowledge and skills obtained from the training/development program. It is noticeable, then, that the concept 'image' here is very similar to that used in PPK research reviewed in 2.1.2, once again suggesting that despite its expanding horizon, LTC research continues to centre around the notion of teacher knowledge.

Teacher Emotion

The final emerging construct found in LTC research that is reviewed here deals with teacher emotion, a conceptual term also intricately intertwined with teacher identity (see e.g., Kubanyiova, 2012). Although it can be noticed from the reviews provided so far that the concept of emotion or emotionality was attached to the notion of teacher knowledge a long time ago (e.g., Clandinin, 1985), it has become a nascent construct in LTC research only recently (Kubanyiova & Feryok, 2015). Like teacher identity, teacher emotion is also viewed in terms of teacher knowledge in such a fashion as it is called 'emotional knowledge' (Zembylas, 2007). In Duff and Uchida's (1997) study reviewed earlier, teacher identity was found to be socioculturally constructed as teachers negotiate their teaching with contradictions and tensions. The contradiction and/or tension illuminates the emotional aspect of teaching (see the review of Golombek and K. E. Johnson, 2004, below).

Research on language teacher emotion, like those studies on other constructs reviewed so far, examines how the emotional aspect found on the part of the teacher interacts with classroom practice and also with teacher (conceptual) development, learning or change. In her study on language teacher conceptual change, Kubanyiova (2012) reports two types of emotions: emotional dissonance and threat. The former refers to an emotional state where teachers realise or notice

"the discrepancy between their current and desired future states"—for example, how teachers think their teaching will benefit their students and what it actually does to the students. Threat, according to Kubanyiova (2012, p. 137), arises:

> from [teachers'] awareness that not only does their engagement with the new ideas not lead to what they would consider as effective teaching, but it also makes them feel disoriented, demoralised or even angry and can in fact alienate them from their deeply cherished visions of who they would like to become. This threat to one's sense of self can be profoundly traumatising and in order to avert it, the teachers tend to respond by withdrawing any intellectual involvement with the new material.

Such a 'withdrawal' can be characterised as a kind of resistance, mentioned earlier, thus reflecting teachers' sense of agency in itself. As in the case of reviewing the notion of teacher knowledge and its related constructs (BAK, PPK, KAL, TLA and teacher expertise), teacher identity, agency and emotion are also interconnected constructs in such multiplex manners that differentiating one from another does more harm than good to the understanding of teacher learning or development as a process (cf., Freeman's, 2016, discussions on some of these concepts—e.g., thinking, knowledge and agency—in terms of knowledge generations).

It has become clear also that the surge in research on language teacher identity, agency and emotion indicates the continuing recognition that the activity of teaching is not confined to only the classroom setting, but it also resides in the teacher as whole person and in the broader sociocultural situations whose influences shape the teacher and the teaching (as well as the learner and the learning). Importantly, the role of teachers as active, decision-making agents appears to have been collectively recognised within the community of SLTE researchers, if not of practitioners as yet. The majority of practitioners may not see themselves as active, critical agents, looking instead to so-called experts for guidance about 'what to do' in their daily practice (e.g., Clark, 1994). Seen from sociocultural perspectives, the role of teachers is heightened and is viewed as embedded in the social, historical and cultural context in which they work and live. That is, to understand teaching, teacher learning and student learning, researchers need to examine the dialectical relations between teachers (and their unobservable characteristics such as knowledge, beliefs, thinking, identity, agency and emotion), their act of teaching and their sociocultural contexts. It is through these

sociocultural lenses, and particularly through CHAT, that LTC is approached in the present study.

The studies reviewed in this section have provided a landscape of the terminology and the research related to it that has flourished within the LTC research domain, at least since the 1990s. During this period, an area of the language curriculum that appears to have received much attention from LTC researchers is grammar teaching. Because of its dominance, in the section that follows, I review research that has examined LTC in this language area, in order to illustrate the kinds of research that have tended to permeate the LTC field.

2.1.4 Research on LTC and Grammar Teaching

As noted, a majority of LTC research has been conducted in relation to the teaching of grammar. There are many studies that have focused on LTC in grammar teaching, which are highlighted in Borg's (2003a) review. While not all of these studies are covered again here, I highlight a select few of the more notable studies published before and after 2003.

One of the early studies that investigated LTC about grammar teaching is Borg (1999a). Borg explored the use of grammatical terminology in their ESL classrooms by four native English speaking teachers. Through interviews, one teacher in Borg's study reported that the reasons she did not use grammatical terms stemmed from (1) her first language learning experience that did not require her to learn grammatical terminology in English classes and (2) her negative experience of learning L2 (French) grammatical terms. Another teacher was reported to have mixed beliefs about whether grammatical terms should be used in class. Such beliefs, as Borg found, were influenced by the teacher's TEFL training from which he learnt to appreciate students' individual learning strategies. In addition, Borg reported that while the third teacher's beliefs in using grammatical labels in teaching had been shaped by the students' English ability, the fourth teacher's beliefs were found to be influenced by the teacher's negative L2 learning experience, professional training, and what the teacher saw as the most effective way for the learners to learn the language. In light of these findings, Borg concluded that the teachers' cognitions about using grammatical terminologies in their classrooms were influenced by three "interacting" factors—namely, "experiential, cognitive, and contextual" (Borg, 1999a, p. 118).

Also focusing on grammar and LTC, Farrell (1999) studied 34 pre-service English teachers' beliefs about grammar teaching in Singapore, using what he called

a reflective assignment. This assignment was in three parts: the teachers wrote about their experiences of learning English and their personal approach to teaching English grammar; the teachers then produced a detailed plan for a lesson that focused on "any grammatical structure" to teach to secondary school students; finally, the teachers were asked to reflect on their teaching after using their planned techniques and tasks (Farrell, 1999, pp. 5-6). Farrell's analyses of these written data revealed that the pre-service teachers' beliefs were influenced by their previous learning experiences and the training they received, which subsequently formed their decisions to adopt a particular approach to teaching grammar. Interestingly, when the teachers' previous learning experience contradicted their newly learnt knowledge (from their professional training program), Farrell (1999) reported that the teachers decided to follow what they learnt from the program although some of them expressed uncomfortable feelings about such a decision.

In a more recent study, Borg and Burns (2008) involved 176 TESOL teachers coming from various parts of the world (Australia, New Zealand, Europe and Asia). The authors used five-point Likert scale questionnaires that covered a range of key issues in grammar teaching (such as teaching grammar explicitly, deductively and inductively). The majority of the surveyed teachers, as the authors found, held the beliefs that grammar should be taught together with skills rather than in isolation. These teachers reported in their written responses that they integrated grammar teaching with the teaching of other skills, in their actual practices. The authors also found that the major rationales for teachers' decision to integrate grammar into skills teaching were: the students' enhanced communicative ability, learning progress, positive affect, and positive feedback. In the light of this finding, the authors concluded that the teachers made their pedagogical decisions on grammar teaching for "practical and experiential" reasons (Borg & Burns, 2008, p. 478). However, echoing Macalister's comments cited earlier, Borg and Burns also found that the teachers made very little reference to formal theory and research in their justifications for their practices.

Phipps and Borg's (2009) also studied teachers' beliefs about grammar teaching, but they examined specifically the conflicts or tensions in teacher beliefs, categorised into 'core' and 'peripheral' beliefs. Adopting Freeman's (1993) definition of tensions, the authors explored this issue in relation to the practices of three experienced EFL teachers. From their qualitative data obtained from interviews and observations over a period of 18 months, the authors identified various tensions between the teachers' stated beliefs and their grammar teaching. The tensions

were reported to have been caused by two factors: "student expectations and preferences and classroom management concerns", and while tensions did occur and forced the teachers to teach grammar in a way deviant from their held beliefs, the practices nonetheless "were consistent with deeper, more general beliefs about learning" (p. 387, emphasis original). These deeper, more general beliefs were what the authors called core beliefs which were held strongly and firmly by the participating teachers. Such core beliefs, as the authors commented, seemed to have been formed by the teachers' experiences, reflecting the nature of teacher knowledge reviewed earlier. In light of these findings, Phipps and Borg (2009, p. 388) hypothesised that:

> [A] characteristic of core beliefs is that they are experientially ingrained, while peripheral beliefs, though theoretically embraced, will not be held with the same level of conviction. Where core and peripheral beliefs can be implemented harmoniously, teachers' practices will be characterized by fewer tensions; where, though, the actions implied by core and peripheral beliefs are at odds [...] peripheral beliefs will not necessarily be reflected in practice.

This typology of 'core' and 'peripheral' beliefs echoes what was put forth in Breen, Hird, Milton, Oliver, and Thwaite (2001), who focus on teacher 'principles' and classroom practices. In terms of tensions in teachers' beliefs, Phipps and Borg's (2009) finding is supported by Mak's (2011) study that found tensions occurred when the participating teacher's beliefs were not in line with what was expected of her by her supervisor and teaching advisor.

As can be seen in this short review, research in LTC and grammar teaching continues to attract researchers' strong attention, suggesting that grammar, as a component of the language curriculum, remains a significant focus not only in research but also in classroom practice. Vocabulary teaching, however, remains an overlooked and barely researched language area in research and practice. In the following section, two studies dealt specifically with LTC and vocabulary instruction are available for the review. The section also discusses key issues in vocabulary research relevant to the present study.

2.2 A REVIEW OF VOCABULARY INSTRUCTION RESEARCH

This literature review section comprises two parts. The first part (sub-section 2.2.1) reviews research in LTC and vocabulary teaching, and the second part (sub-section 2.2.2) focuses more specifically on vocabulary instructional research itself.

2.2.1 Research in LTC and Vocabulary Instruction

The literature of mainstream LTC research focusing on vocabulary instruction is scant. Two recent exceptions, however, are available for review here. The first is Gao and Ma (2011). Using a mixed-methods research design that involves questionnaires with close- and open-ended items and interviews, Gao and Ma (2011) investigated beliefs about vocabulary learning and teaching as held by pre-service and in-service teachers both in Hong Kong and mainland China. While the pre-services were undertaking their teacher preparation programs in a Hong Kong institution, some of the in-services were enrolled in a professional development program in the same institution and some others were teaching in kindergarten, primary and secondary schools in either Hong Kong or mainland China. The authors explored and compared vocabulary learning and teaching beliefs of 250 teachers in total coming from these two different educational backgrounds (89 pre-service and 37 in-service teachers from Hong Kong and 44 pre-service and 80 in-service teachers from China) and mapped "the contextual mediation on [their] vocabulary learning/teaching beliefs" (p. 328). Based on statistical and content analyses, Gao and Ma (2011) reported that while there were variations in beliefs as held by the participants across the two educational systems, the variations were even more significant between the Hong Kong group and the China group than those found within each group. In other words, the authors reported that, in terms of vocabulary learning beliefs, there were more similarities than differences among all the participants regardless of their educational backgrounds.

More specifically, regarding the differences, Gao and Ma (2011, p. 334, emphases original) reported that the Hong Kong group "tend to value memorisation-related beliefs more than the [China group] who, on the other hand, tend to appreciate contextual use more regarding vocabulary learning beliefs". Within-group comparisons based on the participants' responses to open-ended questions were reported in regards to seven vocabulary teaching areas: learning strategy, lexical knowledge, presentation (of lexical items), practice, application, motivation, and teaching resources. That is, Gao and Ma (2011) found that the Chinese pre-services and in-services held similar views about vocabulary teaching, while the Hong Kong pre-services and in-services differed more noticeably in terms of their vocabulary teaching beliefs. The authors refer to the participants' past language learning and professional training experiences to account for these findings. As they argued, because the Chinese in-services "were teaching in secondary school and the majority of mainland pre-service teachers were fresh

secondary school graduates, it is not surprising that they share similar views", situations that did not applied to the Hong Kong group (p. 335). The authors' analysis of the interview data was also reported to shed light on the questionnaire data. Gao and Ma (2011) noted that most of the similarities and differences found in vocabulary beliefs were attributable to the approaches the participants themselves had been acquainted with when learning vocabulary themselves, leading them to conclude that contextual variables "have mediated" the participants' beliefs (p. 339).

While Gao and Ma's (2011) study is a notable contribution to the literature on LTC in vocabulary instruction, which as mentioned is extremely scarce, the way the authors reported their findings is troubling. As reviewed, Gao and Ma (2011) first reported on their questionnaire data showing that Hong Kong teachers favoured memorisation-related beliefs, while the China group preferred contextual use. Later, however, from the analysis of the open-ended items they appeared to assert the opposite (Gao & Ma, 2011, p. 337, emphasis added), but also to claim that their findings across both sets of data were consistent:

> The mainland Chinese participants were much more inclined to rate highly the teaching of vocabulary learning strategies, particularly memorisation techniques, than their Hong Kong counterparts. On the other hand, the former tended to value much more than the latter the importance for learners to be able to apply the lexical knowledge taught (e.g. 'using the word in our daily life'); this is consistent with what was found from the Likert-scale questions.

Since the finding of memorisation-based learning techniques is a major theme discussed throughout their paper, this inconsistency is confusing.

Within the scantily researched territory of the LTC domain, Macalister (2012) is one other study that investigated language teacher cognitions in vocabulary teaching. Premised on the assumption that pre-service teachers would hold beliefs that reflected those espoused by their trainers and supported by theory and research on effective language learning, Macalister's study compared the beliefs about vocabulary teaching of 60 Malaysian pre-service teachers and those of 22 trainers (16 of whom were based in Malaysia and the other six in New Zealand). The pre-services were undertaking their teacher preparation program both in Malaysia and in New Zealand in a 'sandwich-like' program. Survey questionnaires were obtained from all the pre-services, 11 Malaysia-based and 6 New Zealand-based trainers, and interviews were conducted with 12 pre-services and all 22 trainers;

these data were collected before the New Zealand-based component of the program began. Findings from the survey questionnaires were compared across the three groups (the pre-services, Malaysian trainers and New Zealand trainers) before they were compared with the participants' interview data. During the interviews, the pre-service participants were asked to describe their lessons in an "imagined teaching" situation based on two texts (imaginative and informative prose) provided to them by the researcher.

Macalister (2012) reported on the pre-services' findings and compared them with those of the trainers previously reported in Macalister (2011) and based on the same informative text. He found in general that there were similarities between the pre-services and the Malaysian trainers in terms of their beliefs about language learning based on the survey questionnaires. However, the pre-services were found to have beliefs about the role of vocabulary in language learning similar to those held by the New Zealand trainers and beliefs against learning vocabulary in isolation similar to those espoused by the Malaysia trainers. The comparison between the three groups in terms of their lesson descriptions, that Macalister (2012, p. 104) reported, showed "one strong similarity between the reactions of the pre-service teachers and those of the two groups of trainers—the use of experience tasks to orient the learners to the text"—a finding Macalister lauded as "encouraging" (p. 106). However, Macalister also reported that there were complex differences among these three groups as to how they perceived the role of vocabulary and the way vocabulary should be learnt. Interestingly, it was reported that although the pre-services indicated vocabulary as a goal in language teaching, during their lesson descriptions "there was little deliberate attention given to vocabulary, and none to strategies that might promote vocabulary learning" (p. 106). Although he acknowledged that this finding was realistically unsurprising, the author concluded with a suggestion that "it is knowledge about language teaching practices that should be the primary focus of pre-service education courses rather than beliefs about language learning" (p. 108).

Macalister's (2012) study reports an LTC investigation in relation to vocabulary teaching; however, the reading of the report itself suggests that the study was framed from a reading instruction perspective. Vocabulary and reading, as well as listening, are intricately intertwined because they dialectically influence one another. Vocabulary, or to use a more technical linguistic term 'lexis', is a complex phenomenon, and its importance in language learning is unarguably significant. Nonetheless, as stated, scant attention is paid to LTC in vocabulary

instruction despite the long history of vocabulary research both in L1 and L2. In addition to the two studies reviewed here, McNeill (2005) also investigates teachers' awareness in vocabulary teaching. However, since his study was framed within TLA research, rather than as LTC, and focused on the comparisons between NES and NNES teachers, I will review this study later in Section 2.3, where the discussion is on the notions of NES and NNES teachers. Consequently, in the following section, I review research on vocabulary instruction that is not specifically related to LTC research, but is found within mainstream vocabulary research itself. This review not only sets the background for the present study focusing on vocabulary instruction, but it also provides a historical perspective on the development of vocabulary research in language education.

2.2.2 L2 Vocabulary Instruction Research

The study of vocabulary in the field of language education goes back at least as early as the 1970s (e.g., Burns & de Silva Joyce, 2001; Carter, 1998; Carter & McCarthy, 1988; Hatch & Brown, 1995; Lewis, 2002; Meara, 1980; Nation, 2001; J. C. Richards, 1976; Schmitt, 2000), and it remains an active field of inquiry in recent times (see Coxhead, 2015; Schmitt, 2008, 2010). Throughout its history, vocabulary research has centred around key themes such as what is meant by vocabulary, how it is determined, how it is learned, how it is taught, and how it is assessed. These themes have been approached from various perspectives: from applied linguistics (Carter, 1998), from language education (Nation, 2001), from teacher education or development (Burns & de Silva Joyce, 2001), and from second language acquisition (SLA) (Milton, 2009). Stemming from these perspectives are seemingly competing views about vocabulary research: vocabulary teaching and vocabulary learning.

For example, in his survey article, Meara (1980) pointed to research foci that foregrounded vocabulary teaching, for instance vocabulary selection based on frequency counts, and called for more research on vocabulary learning, which he suggested was more pressing. He reviewed an important area of vocabulary learning research: word associations, which were perceived as a significant learning strategy or technique to enhance the acquisition of vocabulary. Despite the large amount of research conducted in the area at the time, Meara (1980) concluded that "the study of vocabulary acquisition is an area where the sort of research work that has been carried out is far from satisfactory" (p. 240). Reading other reviews (e.g., Hirsh, 2012; Read, 2004b; Schmitt, 2008) one can identity many similarities in terms of these two main views, one as seen from the learning perspective and the other

from the teaching perspective. Most of the reviews, however, seem to leave out what is actually crucial in the process of classroom language instruction: vocabulary testing and assessment. This study views these three perspectives as interconnected dimensions of vocabulary instruction, but it approaches the practice of vocabulary instruction in the present context from the perspectives of the teachers. Therefore, to lay the ground work for the present investigation in terms of vocabulary instruction, in the remainder of this section, I present my review in terms of these three major themes: a learning perspective, a teaching perspective and a testing or assessment perspective on vocabulary instruction.

2.2.2.1 A Learning Perspective on Vocabulary Instruction

This perspective in vocabulary research is dominantly found within the field of SLA, whose logic is, as Carter (1998) argues, that the more teachers know about vocabulary acquisition, the better they become informed, thus being able to teach more effectively. Topics identified within this perspective include how vocabulary is learned (e.g., incidental vs. intentional learning), the type of word knowledge that should be learned (e.g., meaning, form, and use), what resources the learners should use to help them learn vocabulary (e.g., use of dictionary and of L1), and what learning strategies learners should be used to assist in their vocabulary acquisition.

Incidental and intentional vocabulary learning as a research topic does not seem to escape any review on vocabulary instruction research, apparently because of their significant pedagogical implications. It is generally perceived that incidental vocabulary learning is better and more effective than the intentional learning mode. Read (2004b, p. 147), for instance, in his survey on the topic, comments inter alia that:

> In the heyday of the communicative approach to language teaching, the concept of incidental learning offered the seductive prospect that, provided the learners had access to sufficient comprehensible input, L2 vocabulary acquisition would largely take care of itself, without the need for any substantial pedagogical intervention. However, the research makes it clear that this strong position is no longer tenable.

Incidental vocabulary learning, which posits that learners 'unconsciously' pick up lexical items especially through (extensive) reading and listening, is known to be a slower process than intentional, or explicit, vocabulary learning that "focuses [learners'] attention directly on the information to be learned" but which,

otherwise, is “too laborious” (Schmitt, 2000, p. 120). One form of incidental vocabulary learning takes place through reading, an area that has received much more research attention than others, such as learning vocabulary from listening, speaking, or writing. However, Schmitt’s (2008, p. 347) review shows that there was “a discouragingly low pick-up rate” of vocabulary just by exposure to the reading text, especially when the learners had the chance to be exposed to the text only once. The amount of exposure, therefore, plays a significant role in incidental vocabulary learning, as discussed in Reynolds and Wible (2014) (cf., Webb & Chang, 2015). Nation (2001/2013) suggests that learners need certain strategies in order to benefit from such an incidental learning mode, for instance guessing words from context. Such a suggestion entails active involvement on the part of learners, thus realising their ‘consciousness’. In other words, even for incidental learning, there is a certain level of conscious learning involved.

On the other hand, intentional vocabulary learning is explicit and has also been found to be an effective instructional activity, helping learners enhance their vocabulary knowledge. Burns and de Silva Joyce (2001) report on an action research project conducted on a national scale that involved 25 ESL teachers of adults from most of the states of Australia. The project focused on the teaching of vocabulary as the teachers worked their ways through researching and investigating various issues in their practical classroom contexts. Among other things, they found that explicit vocabulary teaching worked favourably in terms of giving the students focused opportunities to expand their targeted vocabulary knowledge. Likewise, in his experimental study Barcroft (2009) also reported favourable results for intentional vocabulary learning. Barcroft involved 114 Spanish students of English in a Mexican university context, who were classified into two proficiency groups: low-intermediate and high-intermediate. Designed to examine the effect intentional learning (e.g., students being conscious about the learning tasks) had on the outcome of vocabulary learning, his study revealed that when learners were taught vocabulary explicitly and know that they would be tested on the vocabulary (thus, intentional vocabulary learning), it “positively affected L2 word-form learning during reading as compared with instructing learners to read for meaning only (incidental learning)” (p. 97). Therefore, both incidental and intentional approaches to vocabulary learning can be pedagogically sound. Theoretically, however, as argued by Hulstijin (2001, p. 274), “the labels incidental and intentional learning no longer reflect a major theoretical distinction”.

Another key discussion on vocabulary acquisition found in the literature deals with the aspects of word knowledge, giving rise to two very important, interconnected, questions: What does it mean to know a word? What counts as a word? The latter question is the pre-requisite to the former, whose insights reflect how individual lexical items should be taught as well. Nation (2013) provides a model of vocabulary knowledge that includes learning about the meanings, forms and uses of words. Through support from empirical studies, he argues, these aspects can be perceived on a scale of receptive and productive knowledge. While the former is associated with reading and listening skills, the latter refers to speaking and writing.

Table 2.1 Nation's (2013, p. 27) model of vocabulary knowledge in relation to receptive and productive knowledge.

Form	spoken	R	What does the word sound like?
		P	How is the word pronounced?
	written	R	What does the word look like?
		P	How is the word written and spelled?
	word parts	R	What parts are recognisable in this word?
		P	What word parts are needed to express the meaning?
Meaning	form and meaning	R	What meaning does this word form signal?
		P	What word form can be used to express this meaning?
	concept and referents	R	What is included in the concept?
		P	What items can the concept refer to?
	associations	R	What other words does this make us think of?
		P	What other words could we use instead of this one?
Use	grammatical functions	R	In what patterns does the word occur?
		P	In what patterns must we use this word?
	collocations	R	What words or types of words occur with this one?
		P	What words or types of words must we use with this one?
	constraints on use (register, frequency ...)	R	Where, when, and how often would we expect to meet this word?
		P	Where, when, and how often can we use this word?

Note: In column 3, R = receptive knowledge, P = productive knowledge.

Nation's (2001/2013) model of vocabulary knowledge is reproduced here in Table 2.1. This model can be relevant for both teaching and learning vocabulary. According to Nation (2001/2013), while some of these aspects (e.g., word forms) can be most effectively realised by intentional learning, some others are better learned incidentally. As a result, both teachers and learners need to be well informed of the research and theory of such learning strategies. However, at the same time, the model's earlier version (Nation, 1990) which shared a strong resemblance to the one

in Table 2.1 was criticised for its limited practicality. It was pointed out that the model reflected an idealised rather than practical framework of vocabulary knowledge (e.g., Read, 2000).

As mentioned, strategies are needed for both incidental and intentional learning. The SLA literature comprises extensive research examining learning strategies, for example O'Malley and Chamot (1990), Oxford (1990), Macaro (2001), A. D. Cohen and Macaro (2007), Griffiths (2013), A. D. Cohen (2014), and A. D. Cohen and Griffiths (2015). More specifically, for vocabulary learning strategies, some examine what strategies are valuable for learning multi-word units (MWU) such as idioms, as well as individual words (Boers, Demecheleer, & Eyckmans, 2004; Gu & Johnson, 1996; Nassaji, 2003; Nation, 2001, 2013). For example, Nation (2013) discusses three strategic means in learning individual words: using word parts (e.g., identifying affixes of the words), dictionaries and word cards. Some of these strategies, for example the use of dictionaries (Gu & Johnson, 1996), have been found to lead to positive learning outcomes. In terms of MWU, Boers et al. (2004) investigated what they call 'etymological elaboration' as a technique to help L2 learners acquire idioms and retain their meanings for later use. The authors report that learners could comprehend idiomatic expressions more easily if they knew about the origins or etymologies of such idioms. Nation (2013) also promotes and discusses guessing words from context (e.g., a reading context) as a viable strategy for vocabulary learning, a strategy that teachers should train their students to use. However, it has been argued that guessing word meanings from context may not be as effective as using bilingual dictionaries (e.g., Chen, 2012).

Other scholars in the field study semantic transfer between the learners' L1 and their L2 (e.g., Jiang, 2004), while some others investigate the difference between bottom-up and top-down approaches to vocabulary learning (e.g., Moskovsky, Jiang, Libert, & Fagan, 2015), aiming to provide accounts of vocabulary learning or acquisition processes. All these vocabulary learning perspectives are assumed to be translatable for teaching. That is, if the teachers are well informed or, even better, can make sense of this empirical research and the theoretical underpinnings, they are believed to be able to set up plausible conditions for the benefits of their learners.

2.2.2.2 A Teaching Perspective in Vocabulary Instruction

While the learning perspective reviewed above seems dominant in L2 vocabulary research, the teaching perspective has also been adopted—unfortunately in an

apparent competing trend. This latter perspective contributes to how and what vocabulary can be selected and determined for a language curriculum. In other words, it controls the vocabulary content in the syllabus (Meara, 1980). As a general rule, it is argued that the vocabulary to be learnt should be high-frequency words because they are found to be the most useful and relevant for learners (Nation, 2005, 2013; Schmitt, 2000, 2008). These words constitute 'the' vocabulary size any language learner should possess in order to succeed in their study (or life) trajectories. However, different figures have been proposed, ranging from 2000 to 7000, for what are counted as high-frequency words (Schmitt, 2008, provides a detailed review). Various factors account for such differences, for example what is being counted (token vs. type; stem word vs. word family). Despite such a difference in figures, vocabulary size has been the basis for both vocabulary research and vocabulary teaching material design.

The determination of high- and low-frequency words is made possible by the fast growing field of corpus linguistics, whose applications range from theory to research to classroom pedagogy (Coxhead, 2014; O'Keeffe & McCarthy, 2010; O'Keeffe, McCarthy, & Carter, 2007). With computer systems, and now that most 'texts' are available in electronic forms, corpora can be quickly constructed and both written and spoken texts analysed rapidly to reveal, among other dimensions, the frequency counts of the targeted words. Corpora can be very useful tools for language teachers and material developers alike in determining how particular words are used in 'real' life, or in language as discourse. They can provide information about how words are used syntactically, semantically, and pragmatically (Carter, 1998). Carter (1998, p. 232, emphasis original) comments further that:

> The most fundamental 'information' to be obtained from a multi-million-word corpus concerns frequency of use. It is of obvious utility to learners of a language to know the most frequent collocational and stylistic patterns.

As far as corpus studies are concerned, two major English corpora are the Corpus of Contemporary American English (COCA)[4] and the British National Corpus (BNC)[5]. Nonetheless, while they can certainly be useful as pedagogical and research references, other English corpora are also available, specifically developed in

[4] http://corpus.byu.edu/coca/

[5] http://corpus.byu.edu/bnc/

response to the status of English as an international language (EIL) in local contexts such as ASEAN within which the present study is positioned. These context-specific corpora are generally found within the framework of World Englishes (B. B. Kachru, 1992a, 1992b), such as the Asian Corpus of English (ACE)[6] and the Vienna-Oxford International Corpus of English (VOICE)[7], and are created to reflect the ways the English language is used outside Kachru's so-called Inner Circle, that is the English-medium countries. All of these corpora are useful resources containing both spoken and written texts that can be used by teachers to enhance their learners' vocabulary knowledge in broader sociocultural contexts such as ASEAN (Kirkpatrick, 2010). Their development reflects teaching research in this area, but so far, little LTC research has focused on this issue. It remains to be seen whether teachers' awareness of corpus-oriented research features in any way in the present study.

As set out in this part of the review, research attempts to select and determine appropriate lexical items to be included in the language curriculum have motivated the teaching perspective. However, both the learning and teaching perspectives are not two distinct aspects of vocabulary instruction, as have generally been perceived. They are complementary. While the learning perspective highlighted in 2.3.1 is associated with the concept of vocabulary 'depth', the teaching perspective outlined in this sub-section reflects vocabulary 'breadth'. In other words, vocabulary depth involves how well learners acquire a particular lexis, and vocabulary breadth reflects the learners' vocabulary size or mental lexicon. Yet, as far as the classroom context is concerned, there is a third dimension of vocabulary instruction, to which I shall now outline.

2.2.2.3 A Testing/Assessment Perspective in Vocabulary Instruction

As noted, this aspect of vocabulary instruction—vocabulary testing or assessment—appears to be marginalised in most reviews of vocabulary studies. While this aspect is itself a complex phenomenon in language assessment and generally requires lengthy discussions, it is viewed here as an indispensable feature of vocabulary instruction. In other words, vocabulary tests are typically part of the teacher's daily practices in school or university settings, and have a powerful influence on the teaching activities themselves (e.g., Cheng, Watanabe, & Curtis, 2004). As Read (2000, pp. 1-2) points out, aiming to place vocabulary within language assessment,

[6] http://corpus.ied.edu.hk/ace/

[7] https://www.univie.ac.at/voice/page/corpus_information

“from various points of view, vocabulary can be seen as a priority area in language teaching, requiring tests to monitor the learners’ progress in vocabulary learning and to assess how adequate their vocabulary knowledge is to meet their communication needs”. He outlines three dimensions of vocabulary assessment, reproduced in Table 2.2.

Table 2.2 Read’s (2000, p. 9) three dimensions of vocabulary assessment

Discrete A measure of vocabulary knowledge or use as an independent construct	<——————>	**Embedded** A measure of vocabulary which forms part of the assessment of some other, larger construct
Selective A measure in which specific vocabulary items are the focus of the assessment	<——————>	**Comprehensive** A measure which takes account of the whole vocabulary content of the input material (reading/listening tasks) or the test-taker’s response (writing/ speaking tasks)
Context-independent A vocabulary measure in which the test-taker can produce the expected response without referring to any context	<——————>	**Context-dependent** A vocabulary measure which assesses the test-taker’s ability to take account of contextual information in order to produce the expected response

Read (2000) suggests that on the left side of these dimensions are aspects of vocabulary tests that are generally administered in the classroom context but also in major standardised tests such as the Test of English as a Foreign Language (TOEFL). These test forms are referred to as ‘discrete-point tests’ that generally use multiple-choice questions (MCQ), matching, gap-filling (in phrases, sentences, or paragraphs), inter alia. On the other side of Table 2.2 are dimensions that reflect a more holistic view of vocabulary assessment. Tests of this kind are called ‘comprehensive measures or testing’. According to Read (2000), tests designed to achieve this purpose embed a vocabulary or lexical item measure into other language tasks such as reading or listening comprehension questions, which

generally requires learners to depend on the context of reading or listening to perform the tasks at hand.

An important notion of vocabulary testing or assessment that Read (2000) emphasises is, following Bachman and Palmer's (1996) framework of testing language (ability), 'construct definition' (see also Read, 2004a). This notion, according to Bachman and Palmer (1996), is used by test developers to decide on which specific components of language ability to include in the test; for example, should vocabulary be included explicitly? For instructional settings such as the one in the present study, test developers or designers "most likely base the construct definition on the specific components of language ability that are included in the course syllabus" (Bachman & Palmer, 1996, p. 117). This is one of the issues explored in this study, that is, how vocabulary testing is realised in the practice of vocabulary instruction.

The vocabulary literature reviewed in this section is far from being exhaustive, but it indicates key areas investigated in L2 vocabulary research that are pertinent to the present investigation. In the next section of this chapter, the aspect of NNES teachers, which is also an important facet of the present study, is reviewed.

2.3 A REVIEW OF NON-NATIVE SPEAKER TEACHER RESEARCH

The present study also deals with Cambodians as NNES teachers working in their national context. This 'non-nativeness' status reflects an aspect of their language teacher identity, as discussed in sub-section 2.1.3 on language teacher identity, but it also relates to how the process of teaching is realised by teachers whose target language is an L2. By researching NNES teachers teaching in their national context, the study can contribute not only to the development of SLTE more generally, but also to those ELT contexts in which teachers are NNES. Llurda (2005b), in this regard, argues that research on NNES teachers in the field of SLTE is burgeoning. In fact, it is a research domain that is becoming well-documented. Moussu and Llurda (2008) provide a comprehensive review of NNES teacher research and its history. My intention here, however, is to underscore only a few select studies that investigate the differences between NES and NNES teachers, and particularly, what those studies have highlighted about the characteristics of NNES teachers that can be related to the study of LTC. The reason is that much of the literature on NNES teachers has arisen from the previous dominance of native speaker targets in language teaching, including longstanding notions of the superiority of NES

teachers. The gradual breakdown of the notion of English in particular as 'belonging' to native speakers has also led to reassessment of the role and contributions of the NNES teacher.

However, before I continue to discuss this issue of native and non-native teachers of English, it is useful to begin with the question: what makes LTC research different from that found in mainstream teacher cognition investigations? More generally, what makes a 'language' teacher different from a subject-area teacher? As has already been indicated, LTC research originates from general education research on teacher cognition. Nonetheless, the position taken in this study is that there are certain characteristics found in language teaching, which makes it different from other subject areas such as mathematics, physics, science, and other content areas (Borg, 2006a; Freeman, 2016). Some of these characteristics, for example being able to feel empathy with students' learning needs and difficulties and feeling committed to the profession, may be more illuminated when the teachers involved are NNES teaching in their national context (e.g., Hayes, 2009a, 2009b). As argued particularly by Freeman (2016), the process of language teaching is done differently from that of subject-area teaching such as teaching mathematics, and it becomes even more complex when teachers involved are NNES. As Freeman (2016, pp. 179-180) puts it:

> Language happens three ways in the work language teachers do. It is the content of the lesson; it is the means of teaching that lesson; and it is the professional discourse that conveys the teacher's identity in the world of language teaching. These three uses can align when they are all in the target language, which usually happens for people teaching their own language. But more commonly, the three uses differ, which they often do for people for whom the target language is a second language. In this case, although the content is in the target language (in the curricular materials), the teachers may often use their own language to teach it, as in grammar translation lessons. And they may not be confident or fluent enough in the target language for it to be their language of professional discourse. This distinction in how the uses play out in the classroom and professional lives for teachers is often short-handed as 'native' and 'non-native', in which the three uses are aligned for the former but mixed for the latter. The assumption that the uses ought always to align is more socio-political than empirical, however.

Such a socio-political conception of language teaching permeates the literature on NES and NNES teacher research. Consequently, within the literature in this research domain, an important debate is on the dichotomy between NES and NNES teachers. Some researchers argue that it is morally inappropriate and sociolinguistically problematic. The latter argument is generally based on the increasingly complex diffusion of English around the world, which subsequently leads to questions about the ownership of the language (Norton, 1997). Nonetheless, in his article, Medgyes (1992) contends that the dichotomy exists and "plays a key role in determining the teaching practice of all teachers" (p. 343). Medgyes argues further that what makes a qualified NES teacher different from his/her NNES counterpart is English proficiency, but that quality does not render the NES teacher any more effective in his/her teaching than the NNES teacher. Rather, he maintains, the NNES teacher can make use of his/her personal language learning experience as the 'learner model', but not the 'language model', a role that can only be fulfilled by an NES teacher (cf., Kirkpatrick, 2010, for his proposal of a multilingual model of ELT in a multilingual context such as ASEAN in which the present study is located). In that respect, Medgyes (1992) suggests that NNES teachers improve their English proficiency, an issue that resonates in the LTC literature concerning particularly the (subject-matter) knowledge dimension (see the review in Section 2.1 above).

The dichotomy between NES and NNES teachers is still generally adopted in research on language teaching in the widening context of World Englishes. The resulting effects continue to shape both NES and NNES teachers' identities in teaching and learning to teach, as well as the perceptions of various stakeholders in ELT field. These stakeholders include policy makers, researchers, practitioners themselves, learners, school principals and managers, the learners' parents, and even NNES teachers' own colleagues. For example, Llurda (2005a) investigated how practicum supervisors perceived their NNES students in North-American university TESOL programs and found that NNES student teachers were perceived to differ from their NES counterparts, particularly in terms of their teaching preferences and language abilities, with the latter entailing the former. Benke and Medgyes (2005) surveyed 422 Hungarian EFL students' perceptions of the differences in teaching behaviours between NES and NNES teachers. Using questionnaires whose reported responses were calculated statistically, the authors found mixed results in a broad range of teaching areas such as homework assignment, strict use of the course book, focus on speaking skills, and teacher patience. Top rated teaching behaviours of the NNES teachers reported by their learners were a key emphasis on homework

assignments, thorough lesson planning, and consistent checking of errors. The NES teachers, on the other hand, were reported to focus more on speaking skills, provide cultural information, and deviate from planned lessons. However, there were some similarities. For instance, both groups were reported to be patient in their teaching. It was also found that the learner participants tended to value equally their NNES and NES teachers. Drawing on the research findings of one of the authors (i.e., Medgyes, 1994), Benke and Medgyes (2005) concluded that the two groups were distinguishable in that they "form two easily identifiable groups, who adopt distinctly teaching attitudes and teaching methods", but such differences carry "no value judgement: neither group is supposed to be better on account of their specific teaching styles". Studies such as Benke and Medgyes's (2005) reviewed here highlight the attitudes of 'others' towards NES and NNES teachers. They underscore NNES teachers' identities as ascribed by others rather than by themselves (i.e., self-ascribed identities). The issue of self-ascribed language identity is investigated in Inbar-Lourie's (2005) study, reviewed below.

Inbar-Lourie (2005), through questionnaires, investigated identity 'gaps'. In the first phase of her research, she involved 102 experienced EFL teachers in Israel and explored possible gaps in the teachers' self-ascribed and perceived identities. The latter referred to how the teachers thought 'others' would identify them as having an NNES or NES teacher identity. The 'others' included the NNES teachers' NES and NNES colleagues and their own students. In the second phase designed to validate the first phase findings, the author distributed questionnaires to a new group of 16 teachers and 31 students. The teachers were asked to identify themselves as either NES or NNES teachers (i.e., self-ascribed identities) and to report what they thought their colleagues and students would perceive them (i.e., perceived identities). The students were asked to identify their teachers as either NES or NNES. Cross-comparing different sets of questionnaire scores, Inbar-Lourie (2005) reports that she found gaps in identity construction, particularly for the NNES groups. The gaps were identified in terms of the differences between how the teachers assigned their own identity (i.e., self-ascribed identities), how they thought others would identify them (i.e., perceived identities) and how their students actually identified them (i.e., others-ascribed identities). In the light of the stated differences, the teachers were also asked to explain possible causes of such divergence. The author found that there were indeed differences in identity formation, particularly in the case of NNES teachers. That is, as she reports, while the NES teachers' self-ascribed and perceived identities were generally matched,

there were gaps in those of the NNES teachers. The author refers to this gap as "the multi-identity reality teachers function in and accept as a natural part of their professional existence" (p. 277), which stemmed from the teachers' accents and language knowledge. This study as well as others reviewed in this section indicate that the sense of their status and identity contribute to teachers' professional and life experiences, but also to their classroom practices. This means, in other words, that language teacher identity is both personal and professional (see also Section 2.1.5 above).

In terms of vocabulary instruction, McNeill (2005), working within the framework of TLA (discussed in Section 2.1.2 above), looked into teachers' decisions about lexical difficulty in a reading text. He involved both groups of teachers (NES and NNES) and a group of 200 secondary school students in Hong Kong, with the former group categorised into NES experts (N=15), NES novices (N=15), NNES experts (N=20), and NNES novices (N=15) in terms of their teaching experiences and professional qualifications. McNeill asked the teachers to read the same text and predict what lexical items could be found difficult by the students whose understanding of those words were tested. The teachers' predictions or anticipations were then compared with the students' test results, that the author claimed as their "actual difficulties" (p. 112). To test the students' knowledge of the 'difficult' words, they were first identified "[w]ith the co-operation of two experienced secondary school teachers [...] from a typical student's point of view. These words were then used to construct a simple 40-item vocabulary test" (p. 113). The students first took the test (i.e., isolated words test) which required them to translate the words into their L1, Chinese. Then they were given the text to read and asked to do the test again, at which time they could refer to the text as many times as they needed (i.e., contextualised words test). The teachers were asked to read the same text and predict 12 words they perceived as the most difficult for the type of students who took the test and as "essential" for their reading comprehension, and also to explain why they thought those words were difficult for the student readers. Using statistical analysis, McNeill (2005) found that the NNES teachers (both experts and novices) outperformed their NES counterparts in their predictions of lexical difficulty for reading comprehension. Interestingly, the NNES novices, "a group of teachers with no real background in education or applied linguistics" (p. 115), were found to be the best group in their anticipation of this issue. The author accounted for this finding by referring to the teachers' general attributes. One was, he explained, the NNES teachers' familiarity with the students'

L1, allowing them to reflect on possible lexical difficulties the students would encounter when reading the text. Another explanation for the best performance of the NNES novices, in addition to their L1 familiarity, was their similarity in experience and age range compared to that of the students, which "no doubt allowed them to empathise more with their students' difficulties" (pp. 115-116). However, as McNeill (2005, p. 119) explained further:

> it is quite possible that the NNNs [non-native novices] were too close in experience and language proficiency to the student group and that their good prediction was largely a result of estimating their own vocabulary difficulties, rather than any real awareness of the students' needs.

Moreover, an insightful finding from this study relates to the teachers' beliefs about vocabulary items they perceived as difficult for the students, but which were proven otherwise based on either the isolated or contextualised words tests. McNeill reported that the teachers rationalised their difficult word selections in terms of the linguistic nature of those words. That is, the teachers thought that words with derived forms (e.g., microscopic, preferential, and vaporise), with polysemous meanings (e.g., laser, cells, fibre, and application), with 'deceptive transparency' forms (e.g., invaluable) would pose difficulty for the students in comprehending the text, beliefs which the author found to be either wrong or rendering the teachers as "poor judges" of word difficulty. Based on the teachers' rationales, he therefore concluded that:

> those who emerged as good judges of lexical difficulty tended to relate their decisions to their students' prior knowledge and their students' reading habits. By contrast, the poor judges tended to justify their selections with reference to properties of individual words (p. 123).

This conclusion underlies the importance of teacher knowledge about students. As a result, raising teachers' awareness of or enhancing their knowledge about their students, as found in McNeill's (2005) study reviewed here, appears to be more important than the teachers' language proficiency itself for teaching expertise. Studies such as this are relevant for language teacher education. The present study also aims to explore how the participating Cambodian teachers rationalise the ways they teach vocabulary if they identify themselves as NNES teachers.

Once again, it should be stressed that the status of NNES teachers as an aspect of language teacher identity is essentially a social phenomenon—a view

increasingly adopted by SLTE researchers (J. Miller, 2009). The status of NNES teachers deals mainly with how teachers identify themselves in relation to their work (e.g., teaching English in their national context) and how 'others'—or how they perceive how others—see them as language teachers. A closely related aspect of NNES teacher identity is how teachers conceive of the status of English, the language they are teaching in their national context, and what pedagogical implications are entailed from such conceptions. Research in this particular area, generally operating within the framework of World Englishes, investigates NES and NNES teachers' perceptions about the local and/or global status of English, that is, as an international language (e.g., Burns, 2013; Ha, 2008; Marlina & Giri, 2014; Sharifian, 2009), lingua franca (e.g., W. Baker, 2015; J. Jenkins, 2009; Kirkpatrick, 2010), or global language (e.g., Crystal, 2003). Research studies working within these areas all show that the perceived status of English does have an effect on the teacher's mind that subsequently influences their pedagogical practices.

Research that involves NNES teachers can be said to be part of what Braine (2010, 2013) calls the 'non-native speaker teacher movement', and the present study joins this movement by involving a group of Cambodian teachers of English. Through their participation in this research they are provided with a platform (mainly, during their interviews) to have their voices heard, to make 'the unobservable' observable. Understanding this unobservable or the 'hidden side' of teachers' work, to use Freeman's (2002) phrase, is a crucial step towards explicating the complexity of teaching.

Before turning to discuss how teachers' mental lives can be understood even better from a CHAT perspective (Section 2.4), I synthesise the constructs and key conceptions of LTC, on the basis of LTC research reviewed so far, in order to provide a backdrop for the next review and also for the study itself.

CONCEPTUALISING LTC

As has been shown in the above sub-sections (2.1.1, 2.1.2, 2.1.3 and 2.1.4), there has been a wide range of key constructs used in LTC research reflecting the psychological or cognitive, personal and professional, affective, moral and social aspects of teaching and teachers. These conceptual constructs are used by researchers to explain that the activity of teaching is not a mere set of physical or observable behaviours as performed by the teacher, a commonly held view from behaviourist perspectives. Rather, teaching also involves unobservable, complex processes that give rise to teachers' pedagogical decisions, which in turn embodies

the teaching activity itself. The development of LTC research, thus, has shown that classroom teaching and learning processes cannot be adequately understood from behaviourist perspectives; one also needs to approach these processes from the cognitive, psychological and social framing informed by such fields as cognitive science and psychology. The studies reviewed in these sections indicate also that LTC is shaped by teachers' personal learning histories, professional training programs and their practical experiences, and that it interacts in a complex way with dimensions of teachers' working contexts such as the students, the status of teachers as NNES, the teaching contents (such as vocabulary instruction) and the school. As will be seen later in Section 2.4, the emphasis on the context of teaching in studying LTC has been increasingly recognised by researchers, especially those embracing a sociocultural perspective such as CHAT.

The literature reviewed so far is certainly not exhaustive. However, it is indicative in showing how LTC come into being. In the light of this literature, I conceive of LTC as a conceptual term in relation to teacher decision-making and classroom practice. Consequently, I present in Figure 2.1 a schematic conceptualisation of LTC, its sources of development, and its relationship with teacher decision-making and classroom practices that can inform this study. As can be seen in Figure 2.1, LTC is adopted as a superordinate conceptual term encapsulating other related constructs such as knowledge, beliefs, thinking, assumptions, theories, attitudes, identities, agency, emotions and perspectives that bear cognitive, emotive, and perceptual attributes. These constructs have been variously employed in the LTC studies reviewed in Section 2.1 and have been found to relate to the cognitions that influence teachers' decisions and subsequently their classroom practices. As the diagram also shows, LTC takes a central role in the teaching and learning process. The sources or factors found to have contributed to the development of LTC include teachers' experiences as language learners themselves, their practical teaching experiences, their professional training, and professional development programs. Seen this way, Figure 2.1 depicts an emic, or insider, perspective on understanding classroom practices, that is through the lens of teachers and their (stated) cognitions.

However, since LTC research continues to grow and is conducted from interdisciplinary perspectives, a more coherent framework to study LTC seems necessary. In the following section, I review a sociocultural framework, referred to in this study as CHAT, and how LTC can be approached from this perspective.

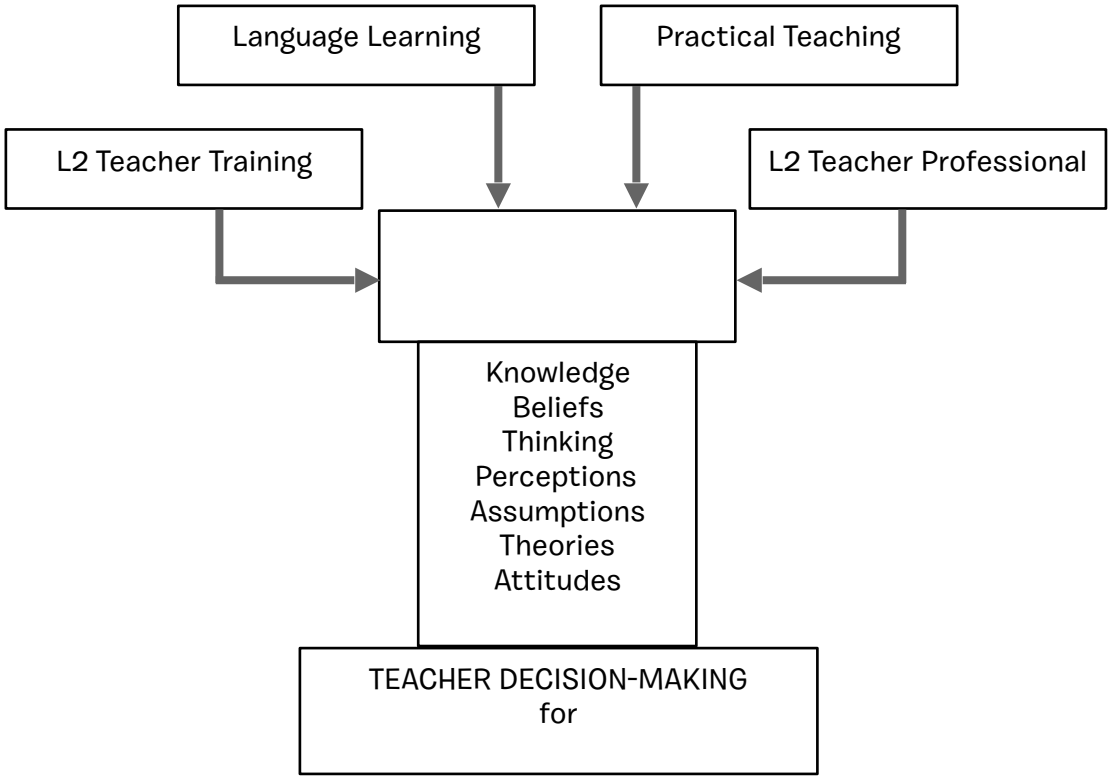

Figure 2.1 Schematic conceptualisation of language teacher cognition, its sources of development, and its relationships with

2.4 THE APPLICATION OF CHAT IN TEACHER COGNITION RESEARCH

As already noted in Chapter 1, the shift towards sociocultural perspectives, from which CHAT frameworks emerge, in SLTE follows a contemporary line of thinking in the mainstream of teacher education research. According to K. E. Johnson (2006), this shift is part of 'the sociocultural turn'. Moreover, recognising LTC research's contributions to the development of a sociocultural perspective in SLTE, K. E. Johnson (2006, p. 239) explains the shift as follows:

> This [teacher cognition] research depicts L2 teacher learning as normative and lifelong, as emerging out of and through experiences in social contexts: as learners in classrooms and schools, as participants in professional teacher education programs, and later as teachers in the settings where they work. It describes L2 teacher learning as socially negotiated and contingent on knowledge of self, students, subject matter, curricula, and setting. It shows L2 teachers as users and creators of legitimate forms of knowledge who make decisions about how best to teach their L2 students within complex socially, culturally, and historically situated contexts. And most significantly, it exposes an epistemological gap between how L2 teacher educators have

> traditionally prepared L2 teachers to do their work and how L2 teachers actually learn to teach and carry out their work.

This sociocultural conceptualisation of LTC places a much greater emphasis on the role of "the contexts and the particulars" of teachers and teaching than does a positivist approach (K. E. Johnson, 2009, p. 8). This perspective questions the conventionally received causal relationship between teaching and learning (both in the case of teacher learning and student learning). As the above quote also shows, the sociocultural turn in SLTE research challenges the widely perceived knowledge transmission view, from teacher trainers to teacher trainees, advocating instead an interpretative, ecological approach to learning (Kubanyiova & Feryok, 2015).

Building on Vygotsky's research focusing on the role of society in the formation of human mind or psychological functions (Vygotsky, 1978; Wertsch, 1985), this contemporary epistemological orientation to LTC research also brings about new insights into how LTC can be studied, that is, what counts as the unit of analysis in LTC research that adopts a sociocultural epistemology, a topic I will discuss more extensively in sub-section 2.2.1 in this chapter. If a sociocultural theoretical perspective is seen as associated with the 'sociohistorical ontological generation' of LTC research as classified in Burns et al. (2015), its inception can be traced back to as early as the 2000s, or perhaps even slightly before, during which time both empirical and conceptual writings on the topic began to emerge. However, my focus here is on research that refers more directly to the works of Vygotsky (such as mediation or mediating tools), Leont'ev (such as collective activity), and Engeström (such as activity systems analysis) (Engeström, 1987, 1999; Leont'ev, 1978, 1981; Vygotsky, 1978). One of the studies reviewed in Burns et al. (2015), which is placed within the sociohistorical ontological generation, is Breen et al. (2001)—but these authors used Bourdieu's concepts of the habitus and the (social) field in their analysis of a group of ESL teachers' principles and classroom practices. While these Bourdieuian conceptions can be traced back to Marx's emphasis on the role of practice in society (R. Jenkins, 1992), and the same theoretical underpinnings in the works of Vygotsky (1978), Leont'ev (1978) and Engeström (1987)—they nevertheless are essentially different from the CHAT core principles adopted in the present investigation.

What does a CHAT framework have to offer to the field of LTC or applied linguistics? As mentioned, some of CHAT's central tenets focus on (1) the multi-level analysis of the phenomenon under investigation (i.e., the object-oriented activity

systems analysis), (2) the mediating role of tools and/or social interactions in teacher learning or development, and (3) the notion of contradictions inherent in such a development process (Daniels, 2008; Wertsch, 1981). In addition to traditional investigations of LTC that explore teachers' cognitions, how they relate to classroom practice, and how they come into being (see Figure 2.1), a CHAT investigation offers a holistic and systematic way of studying teachers' cognitions and practices in situ, with an emphasis on how teachers learn to teach and/or how they develop professionally and personally from within the contexts where they work and live. These are additional insights afforded to the present paradigm of LTC research, where many studies are concerned with the individualistic and cognitive nature of teacher knowledge compartmentalised into disparate aspects, which otherwise could be more productively be conceived of as a coherent whole (cf., Freeman, 2016). I discuss some of the key tenets espoused in CHAT frameworks below.

2.4.1 A Multi-level, Systematic Analysis Framework

It can probably be considered a crucial requirement that any study adopting a CHAT framework needs to apply a multi-level, systematic analytic framework of activity in the investigation, because this framework brings together the focus on the individual and the collective nature of the phenomenon in question. At the heart of this analytic framework are three conceptual terms: activity, action and operation. As noted in Chapter 1, activity is a key concept in CHAT perspectives. Originated from Leont'ev's research (e.g., Leont'ev, 1978, p. 3), activity is defined as:

> a non-additive unit of the corporeal, material life of the material subject. In the narrower sense, i.e., on the psychological plane, it is a unit of life, mediated by mental reflection, by an image, whose real function is to orientate the subject in the objective world (emphasis original).

As can be seen, there are two forms of activity: the material and psychological forms. An individual, it is submitted, develops psychologically through their participation in the material form of activity. The emphasis on the function of the mental image of an individual in orienting him or her to the (cultural) context(s) reflects the intertwined nature of internal and external forms of activity. In other words, "activity that is internal in its form, originating from external practical activity, is not separated from it and does not stand above it but continues to preserve an essential, two-fold connection with it" (Leont'ev, 1978, p. 97). Leont'ev

noted also that human cognition resides in activity or practice (see e.g., Lave, 1988), so in order to study someone's cognitions, investigators need to examine his/her practice. For example, language teaching is a form of practice that can be viewed as an 'activity' in Leont'ev's sense of the word defined above. That is, language teaching is a 'unit of life' in whose participation, a teacher develops psychologically and professionally. It is, however, only one activity a teacher participates in throughout his or her lifetime. Obviously, there are many more activities teachers engage themselves in, which are unlikely to be accounted for in their practice of teaching. The present study focuses on language teaching as a salient activity for teachers, just like other studies would focus on medical or legal practice for doctors or lawyers, respectively.

The analysis of an activity (such as language teaching) deals with three interconnected levels: the analysis of activity (itself as a system), of action(s), and of operations. As a network, an activity is a series of complex actions realised by conditional operations. To identify an activity, one needs to determine its 'object' or 'true motive'. Its series of actions are specified in terms of their individual goals. Operations or 'methods' that give rise to these actions are analysed in terms of their conditions or circumstances. According to Leont'ev (1978, p. 102):

> There is frequently no difference between the terms action and operation. In the context of psychological analysis of activity, however, distinguishing between them is absolutely necessary. Actions, as [has] already been said, are related to goals, operations to conditions. Let us assume that the goal remains the same; conditions in which it is assigned, however, change. Then it is specifically and only the operational content of the action that changes.

In this regard, an analysis of how a teacher goes about teaching English, for instance, needs to take into account the teacher's goal-directed actions and conditions that embody such actions in his/her classroom. In a similar manner, Engeström (2015, p. xxviii) writes that "the distinction between activity and action is foundational for activity theory. Activities are realized by means of actions, and actions make sense when they are understood within the activities in which they emerge". Specifying an activity, action(s) and operations in a CHAT investigation, therefore, is the necessary step in identifying the unit of analysis in the study at hand.

In his article, Cross (2010, p. 440) illustrates how the concept of 'activity', defined as "the sites within which thinking, doing and context converge", should be treated as the unit of analysing teacher cognition. He argues that:

> [a] genetic–analytical orientation, by way of contrast [to a descriptive-analytical orientation], requires historicity to be central in the overall design of the methodological and analytical framework; that is, any instance of observable activity that takes place in the present (i.e., teachers' classroom practice) is analyzed not only on the basis of what the teacher thinks (i.e., in the here and now) but also the genesis that underpins that thought/practice relationship .

Referring to Cole and Engeström's (1993) multi-level analysis of genesis as a framework, Cross featured three analytic levels: cultural-historic, ontogenetic, and microgenetic analysis. He contends that this genetic framework for analysis allows for a genetic-analytical, rather than a descriptive-analytical orientation of language teaching activity and captures "a single, unified framework for analysis" (Cross, 2010, p. 439). He exemplifies the analysis with a case of a teacher teaching Japanese as a foreign language in Victoria, Australia. As his example shows, the cultural-historic analysis dealt with the regulating language policy that appeared to govern how the teacher went about teaching Japanese in a middle school context. The ontogenetic analysis focused on the teacher's individual development. It was at this level of analysis that teacher cognition was explored. Then, the microgenetic analysis was performed on data that reflected the teacher's concrete, physical activities such as language teaching activities.

As will be seen in the rest of this review section, the activity-action-operation analytic framework and the one exemplified in Cross (2010) (as well as others applied in different fields) differ in how the researchers make sense of the data they have before them. Such variance reflects what Daniels (2008, p. 121) refers to as the "many dialects of activity theory". What seems important for CHAT researchers is how they define their unit of analysis and the constituents found therein (Yamagata-Lynch, 2010). In her book that discusses how activity systems analysis can be used as a method to studying complex learning environments, such as teacher learning in situ, Yamagata-Lynch (2010) also points to a number of criticisms against the method. One of the criticisms is made by Toomela (2000), who argues that 'activity theory' is an aberration of Vygotsky's school of thought and is deficient in accounting for specific mental phenomena and that activity as a

unit of analysis. He concludes that "consideration of activity as a unit of analysis does not allow us to differentiate many qualitatively different psychological mechanisms that may underlie what is considered the same activity when viewed externally" (Toomela, 2000, p. 362). To address this criticism, Yamagata-Lynch (2010, pp. 28-29) suggests that "researchers and practitioners need to clarify how they define object-oriented activity as a series of mediated actions and conceptualize it as the unit of analysis in their work". In addition to Yamagata-Lynch's (2010) suggestion, the present study refers to Leont'ev's multi-level analysis (the 'activity-action-operation' framework) reviewed earlier as a unit of analysis (more discussions on this are provided in 2.4.3 below). That is, the present study identifies English language teaching in an actual context as an object-oriented activity realised by a series of goal-directed actions such as teaching vocabulary, teaching grammar and teaching language skills, which are further realised by certain operations.

As mentioned, activity reflects a level of analysis within the multi-level analytic framework described here. Action is yet another level, and I discuss it next.

2.4.2 Mediated Actions

Vygotsky's emphasis on mediation is realised at this level of analysis, through the concept of tools such as the social interaction between an adult and a child. Such an interaction, for instance, mediates the way the child (as well as the adult him-/herself) thinks about the context in which he/she is located. In fact, according to Wertsch (1991), it is a mediated action that Vygotsky proposed as a unit of analysis in studying human psychological functions. Central to this mediated action is the concept of tools including both physical tools and psychological tools. The latter are also known as signs or semiotics such as language, and symbols such as human interactions. These tools are 'mediators' of social, cultural, and cognitive development (Kozulin, 2003; Wertsch, 1991, 2007). According to Kozulin (2003), mediation is a new concept of learning that takes into account the dialectical relations between the learners and their social environments; it is a new way of thinking about learning, an alternative to 'acquisition' that takes account of unidirectional relations, for example transmitted learning to the learner from the teacher. Engeström (1999, p. 29) comments that mediation "by tools and signs [discussed further in 2.4.3 below] is not merely a psychological idea. It is an idea that breaks down the Cartesian walls that isolate the individual mind from the culture and the society".

The concept of mediation has been referred to in order to explicate the social nature of cognition (cf., Valsiner & Veer, 2005). That is, through the process of mediation, for example through using physical tools such as classroom textbooks or through writing or through social interactions with colleagues, an individual is first oriented to the external world whereby their thoughts are formed on the 'interpsychological' or 'interpersonal' plane, the material form of action, before they are transformed into the 'intrapsychological' or 'intrapersonal' plane of consciousness, the psychological or cognitive form of action (Leont'ev, 1978). This transformation process is known as the process of internalisation or "interiorisation", meaning "turning" (Leont'ev, 1978, p. 94). However, it is not like flipping the external experience into the internal thought. As Leont'ev (1978, p. 95) wrote:

> [...] the process of interiorisation is not external action transferred into a pre-existing internal 'plane of consciousness'; it is the process in which this internal plane is formed.

In other words, for every experience an individual has encountered, the thinking about it is constructed or produced socially, culturally, and historically as he or she continues to engage him/herself in the society. For example, through teaching a language, the teachers' cognitions are continually shaped in that regard. An important concept emerging from mediation and internalisation processes is 'appropriation', that has been used to account for why human beings are active, thinking agents and not passive individuals whose cognisance is simply the mirror of what they have experienced. As Daniels (2008, p. 66) puts it succinctly:

> Mastery is characterised as 'knowing how to do' particular actions, whereas appropriation is characterised as 'making something one's own' [...] Appropriation can involve resistance to the social setting which includes the cultural tool.

It is through such a resistance that an individual agency plays out. In this regard, teacher agency, for instance, has also received attention from LTC researchers working from a CHAT perspective (as noted in sub-section 2.1.5 above; see also Feryok, 2012). The mediated action framework, however, does not seem to attract much attention from LTC researchers, although mediation itself as a concept appears to be more focused upon. One particular study is Golombek and K. E. Johnson (2004), who view "narrative inquiry as a mediational space" and seek to

scrutinise L2 teachers' conceptual development in their learning to teach by involving them in the process of narrative inquiry. Considering the teachers' narrative writings as a form of mediating physical tools, the authors examined how, with such tools, the participating teachers made explicit their emotional thoughts and cognitive development about pedagogic practice. They also aimed to understand how the teachers' reflections upon the reported emotions and cognitions allowed them to "reinteranalize" such thoughts. What the authors found was that the ESL teacher-authored narratives created their own zones of proximal development, or ZPD.

A concept also central in sociocultural frameworks, ZPD posits that with more capable others' assistance, a learner can realise his or her actual development (Vygotsky, 1978). The teachers in Golombek and K. E. Johnson (2004), through their own reflection journal, were reported to have established "self as a temporary other" or "colleague as temporary other". These 'others' were seen by the teachers themselves as assisting them in not only making their thoughts external or materialised but also turning such thoughts back into their own understandings of the subject-matter. The authors also found that the teachers appealed to 'expert knowledge' by citing scholars in the field when writing their narratives either to reconceptualise their thinking and understandings or to rationalise their instructional decisions. They concluded that their analysis "suggests an interwoven connection between cognition and emotion", using the former to mean 'teacher knowledge' and the latter a component of it. They furthered that "their emotional dissonance initiated the recognition of cognitive dissonance, a recognition of contradictions in their teaching context" (Golombek & K. E. Johnson, 2004, p. 323). However, they argued that it was emotions that were "a driving factor in teacher development [having a] catalytic role" (ibid., p.324).

In their edited volume, K. E. Johnson and Golombek (2011) bring together a number of research reports that investigated language teacher learning, development, conceptualisation or education more generally. Two particular studies therein used a CHAT analysis and focused on the concept of 'contradiction', and for this reason I review them in sub-section 2.4.3 below, marking the third sub-theme of this review of CHAT application in LTC research.

2.4.3 Activity Systems Analysis and Contradictions

Before I move on to review LTC investigations that employed an activity systems analysis model, it is essential to first discuss the key concepts of this model so

that they are made clearer. These key concepts include the structural components of the model and the inherent quality or feature of any activity system, that is known as 'contradiction'. Components or constituents of an activity (system) are identified by Leont'ev (1978) but are visualised as a model of (the second generation of) activity theory by Engeström (1987); these components are subject, tools, object, rules, community and division of labour.

Subject refers to the activity initiator, which can be an individual or a group of individuals (Yamagata-Lynch, 2010). Importantly, subject bears a collective quality in Leont'ev's sense of the concept. Therefore, although an individual such as a teacher is the subject of a CHAT investigation, he or she needs to be viewed as part of the collective or, for example, part of a community of practice. Object is defined as the true motive that drives the activity initiated or produced by the subject and that differentiates one activity (system) from another (Leont'ev, 1978). An example of an object is teaching a language (Cross, 2010). The object connects an individual's goal-directed action(s) "to the collective activity" (Engeström, 1999, p. 31). Furthering the example of language teaching as an activity, a goal-directed action contributing to the realisation of the activity can be teaching vocabulary, teaching grammar or teaching language skill(s). In this study, teaching vocabulary is a goal realising action, thus a goal-directed action. It is worth noting, however, that such a goal-directed action is not pre-determined. It needs to be explored from the perspectives of the subject.

Tools, as briefly noted above, include both physical and psychological modes. The former type refers to tangible, material artefacts such as textbooks, classroom teaching materials and equipment. The latter, also known as sign or semiotic systems in Vygotsky's works (Wertsch, 1991), is psychological, cognitive, conceptual or symbolic in nature. Language and thought are examples of psychological tools. Both types of tools are socially, culturally and historically developed (Cole, 2005; Engeström, 2015). Textbooks, for instance, are generally used over a long period of time, their contents are culturally value-laden, and socially or institutionally accepted. Kozulin (2005, p. 103) discusses the difference between physical and psychological tools as follows:

> Unlike material tools, which serve as conductors of human influences on the objects of activity and which are, therefore, externally oriented, psychological tools are internally oriented, transforming natural human abilities and skills into higher mental functions.

The use of physical tools reflects the primary level of mediation while the use of both physical and psychological tools realises the second level of mediation (Engeström, 2015). While Kozulin (2005, p. 103), citing Vygotsky, expresses that the use of psychological tools allows the subject to "construct their higher mental functions", Engeström (2015) emphasises that the combined use of physical and psychological tools leads to high psychological operations or functions.

The other three components of the activity systems analysis model are rules, community, and division of labour. Rules function as regulating or permeating figures. They are "both explicit and implicit norms and conventions that place certain limits as well as possibilities on the nature of interaction within the activity system" (K. E. Johnson, 2009, p. 79). Rules can also be curriculum and instructional policies that impose constraints or influence teachers' decision-making and actions, as found in the studies to be reported shortly below. Certain materials such as textbooks can also function as a rule in shaping a teacher's classroom instructional activities. In other words, they are conceivably functional, determined from the perspectives of the subject of the activity. Another component is community, which refers to members of social groups whom the subject identifies as relevant in his/her participation in the community. In an LTC context, for example, community members can be colleagues and students of those participants under investigation. The concept of the community of the activity system gives rise to a collective labour shared among those involved in the pursuit of the object of activity in question, hence the division of labour. In the same analogy of a teaching context, the division of labour is seen between the teacher and his/her students. In other words, both the teacher and students need to contribute to the activity of language learning, for instance, so that the object can be realised and outcome be achieved. Outcome is also discussed as another component of the analysis systems analysis model (Engeström, 1987). It refers to the end result of an activity. However, in many activities such as language teaching (as well as language learning seen from the learner's perspective), the outcome is generally non-deterministic because it is likely continual. As a result, as can be seen in this study, this concept is backgrounded.

Although these components are being described here as separate entities, they actually need to be seen together as an intertwined whole or in a dialectic relationship. It is this prerequisite view about activity or activity system that avoids a CHAT investigator falling into a trap of merely describing each component and separate relation as if they were static and isolated from one another. This kind of

trap has also been cautioned against by Engeström (2015, p. 62) himself, who suggests that the model be used to analyse "a multitude of relations within the triangular structure of activity [...] the essential task is always to grasp the systemic whole, not just separate connections".

The last key concept to discuss before the review of the two studies mentioned earlier deals with the concept of 'contradiction'. According to Engeström (2015, p. 73):

> Contradictions are not just inevitable features of activity. They are 'the principle of its self-movement and ... the form in which the development is cast' (Illyenkov, 1977, p 330). This means that new qualitative stages and forms of activity emerge as solutions to the contradictions of the preceding stage or form. This in turn takes place in the form of 'invisible breakthroughs'.

Contradictions are generally discussed together with tensions. That is, when contradictions occur tensions mount on the part of the subject being investigated. Contradictions or disturbances are systemic and have "change potentials within the activity" (Engeström, 2000, p. 964). They are clashes "between individual actions and the total activity system" and significantly occur in different historical, socioeconomic contexts (Engeström, 2015, p. 66). In other words, while it is the division of labour in production activity that generally generates the contradictions (Engeström, 2015), in a teaching context contradictions might arise out of the various relations the teacher has with his or her environments (such as the students, colleagues, and school personnel). Engeström (2015, p. 71, emphases original) identifies four types or levels of contradictions, diagrammatically represented in Figure 2.2.

Level 1:	Primary inner contradiction (double nature) within each constituent component of the central activity.
Level 2:	Secondary contradictions between the constituents of the central activity.
Level 3:	Tertiary contradictions between the object/motive of the dominant form of the central activity and the object/motive of a culturally more advanced form of the central activity.
Level 4:	Quaternary contradictions between the central activity and its neighbor activities.

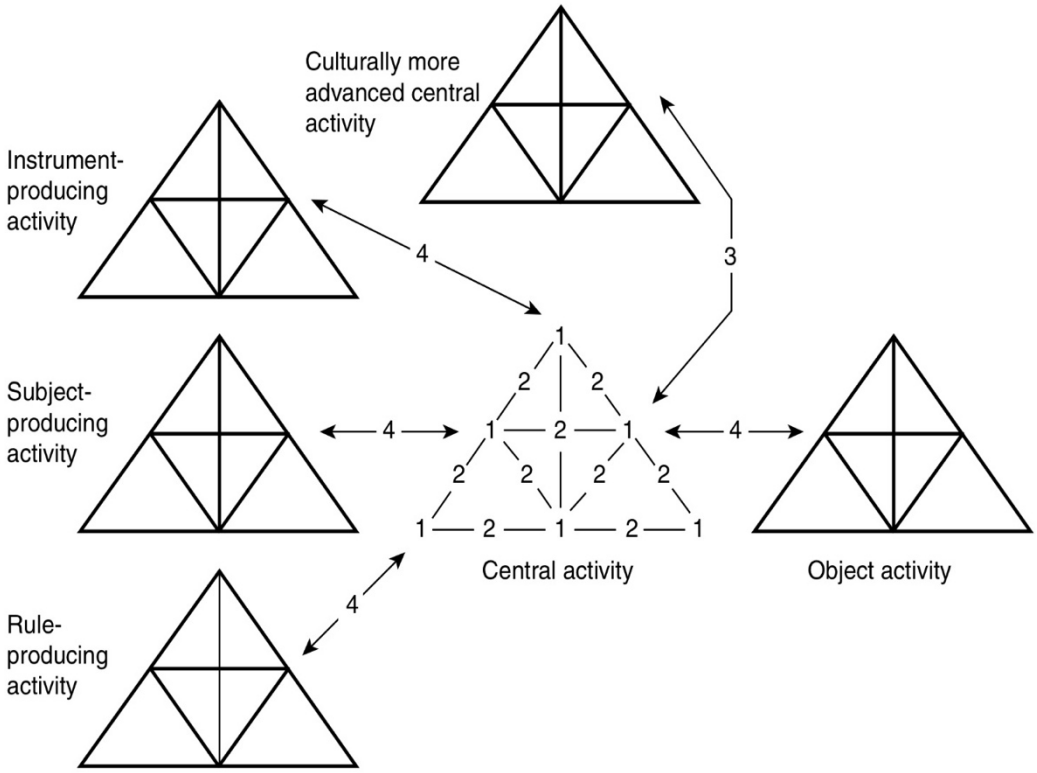

Figure 2.2 Four levels of contradictions within and between the human activity systems[8]

The diagram in Figure 2.2 illustrates the complex concept of contradictions. Regardless of the types of contradictions, for them to be identified as such, they need to be "historically accumulated [...] rather than more surface expressions of tensions, problems, conflicts, and breakdowns" (Roth & Lee, 2007, p. 203). That is, a CHAT investigator needs to show that expression of tensions or conflicts reflects historicity of the issue at hand. Now that the key concepts of the activity systems analysis model have been outlined, I turn to the review of related LTC studies that adopted the CHAT model in their investigations.

Situated in a Korean ELT context, Kim's (2011) study is one of the two, reported in K. E. Johnson and Golombek (2011), that used the model. Kim reports on an investigation into the relationship between a teacher's cognitions, practices, and curriculum policies. The latter were regulated by the Korean government's introduction of communicative language teaching (CLT) principles and imposition of the 'Teaching English Through English' (TEE) mode of instruction. Kim reports on a

[8] Reproduced from Engeström (2015, p. 71) permissible under the copyrights of Cambridge University Press http://www.cambridge.org/about-us/rights-permissions/permissions/permissions-requests/

case of an in-service Korean teacher of English in a middle school in Korea, where, according to her, "CLT has been the buzz word" (Kim, 2011, p. 225). However, given her concern that CLT and TEE principles would pose challenges for Korean teachers of English, Kim set out to explore what the teacher understood about CLT, how she enacted such understandings in her high proficiency seventh grade class, and how their relationship played out within the context of the teacher's work. Using Engeström's activity systems analysis model, Kim mapped out some of the components (subject, tools, object, rules, community) in the data she collected from semi-structured and stimulated recall interviews, classroom observations, and curriculum and policy documents. The reported teacher was the subject of the instructional activity whose objects were: (1) to cover the textbook content, (2) to teach her students for the school examinations, and (3) to maintain her students' learning motivation. Kim considered the examinations, the (perceived) need to cover the textbook contents, and the traditional teacher-centred instructional approach as implicit rules within the teacher's activity system. As for tools, Kim reported on the teacher's classroom teaching materials, instructional activities (such as creating sentences) and her use of Korean as the language of instruction. Kim reported that the teacher's colleagues and students were part of the community component of the activity system under study. No division of labour was discussed in Kim's study, however, although it was mentioned in the diagram illustrating the different levels of contradictions she discussed later.

Kim went on to report on the contradictions in the observed teacher's activity system, contradictions that were reflected through the teacher's reported dilemmas in her teaching. Three levels of contradictions were identified: primary, secondary and tertiary. The teacher's primary contradictions were reported to stem from the teacher's conflicting beliefs, between promoting communicative learning activities and focusing on grammatical structures and memorising rules. Kim also reported on a number of secondary contradictions reflecting negative relations between the components of the teacher's activity system. For example, as was reported, although the teacher aimed to promote communicative learning in her lessons, the textbook activities or tasks were perceived as not conducive to communicative activities. The tertiary contradictions reported in Kim's study reflected the clash between the imposed TEE policy and the participating teacher's negative attitude toward the practicality of the implementation of the policy. In the light of her findings, Kim concluded that although contradictions are potential moments of development, those experienced by the involved teacher suggested

that the teacher "was unable to overcome several secondary contradictions and thus unable to reorient her teaching activities toward more communicative-oriented instruction" (p. 236). This means, therefore, that the rules were too powerful an influence and that teacher agency was not played out or was contained.

In the same Korean EFL context of curricular reform, Ahn (2011) focuses on how pre-service teachers' instructional concepts developed during the practicum period that saw the implementation of the new CLT and TEE curriculum. Ahn's study which took place in 2006 in a middle school reported on a student (pre-service) teacher's practicum experiences. Using data collected from the teacher's interviews, classroom observations, journals and lesson plans, as well as an interview with a practicum mentor–Anh explored the teacher's conceptions and practices using Engeström's activity systems analysis model. Like Kim's study reviewed above, Anh's also focused on the concept of (inner) contradictions embedded within the teacher's activity system. Like Kim, Anh identified multiple objects for what she referred to as 'the instructional activity system'. These objects were fostering the students' participation in the lessons, enhancing their language proficiency and achieving stated lesson objectives. As Anh reported, because the lesson objectives were mandated, they also functioned as a rule within the activity system. The community of Anh's participating teacher was identified to include the students, the practicum mentor, peers and other mentors. In terms of contradictions, Anh reported that those at the secondary level were more prominent than those at the primary one while both tertiary and quaternary contradictions "were much less noticeable" (Anh, 2011, p. 245).

What is important to note here is that the identification of the model components is essentially based on the participant's perspectives, as Anh (2011) explicitly indicated. In effect, findings are discovered and interpreted in situ and from an emic perspective, which in turn reflects teacher cognition in practice (Lave, 1988). Nevertheless, in the application of a CHAT approach what remains a critical issue, as pointed out by Roth (2007) in his editorial introduction to an issue of Mind, Culture, and Activity, is the unit of analysis. As might have been noticed in the reviews of Kim's and Ahn's studies, multiple objects were identified for one activity system, but as already discussed in Section 2.4.1, the object of an activity determines its existence. In other words, there is only one object of an activity which is realised by a series of goal-directed actions. As can be seen in their studies, both Kim and Ahn did not differentiate the two concepts: activity and action. Operation as a concept itself was no nowhere discussed. However, this is

not meant to discredit their studies because, as already mentioned, there are different 'dialects' of activity theory. Nevertheless, as is adopted in this study and discussed further in Chapter 3, the activity-action-operation framework should be the unifying approach to CHAT investigations. As Roth (2007, pp. 143-144) puts it:

> we (the community [of CHAT scholars]) need to do more to articulate and stick to forms of unit of analysis in the way the fathers of cultural-historical approaches (e.g., Vygotsky, A. N. Leont'ev) have asked us to do. Currently there is a lot of inconsistent and contradictory usage of key concepts, leading to considerable confusion about what cultural-historical activity theory has to offer as a framework for understanding mind, culture, and activity.

The unit of analysis aside, however, based on the discussions in Section 2.2 so far, it is possible to revisit and reconceptualise the concept of language teacher cognition. (The discussion of the unit of analysis resumes in Chapter 3, where I outline the present study's research design.) Figure 2.1 in Section 2.1 above depicts a version of LTC and how it develops and relates to some contextual variables such as the teacher's previous learning experiences, professional education, and current practices. The relationships are suggested in a unidirectional and causal manner, and closely related constructs of LTC seem to be competing among themselves. Sociocultural perspectives such as a CHAT framework, on the other hand, offer a broader and more holistic, non-causal, perspective on understanding not only LTC but also the relationships between language teaching and learning and between teacher education and the act of teaching itself. It is a new perspective that has the potential to contribute to the development of what has been referred to as "the central project of language education research", a bottom-up, open-ended approach to studying LTC (Kubanyiova & Feryok, 2015, p. 436).

Figure 2.3, in this regard, portrays a reconceptualization of LTC both as a conceptual construct and as a research framework in itself. LTC can be seen in this model as the teacher's particular mental and physical actions (an ontogenetic level of development) within an activity system of actions and operations, but to understand an individual teacher's actions, one needs to also grasp the relationship between actions (and operations) and their collective aspects reflected at the level of the activity conceptualised in this model. Emphasised in this model is, therefore, the reconciliation of two spectra of 'dual nature'—one between the internal (mental) and the external (physical) and another between the individual and the collective, denoted by the bolded arrows. As discussed above, from a CHAT perspective

cognitions reside in practice (Lave, 1988); cognitions and practices are dialectically related, meaning that cognitions and practices may or may not align. What may be more important, however, is how their interrelationships shape the collective activity. This model can offer a holistic view of an activity, and thus LTC embedded within it.

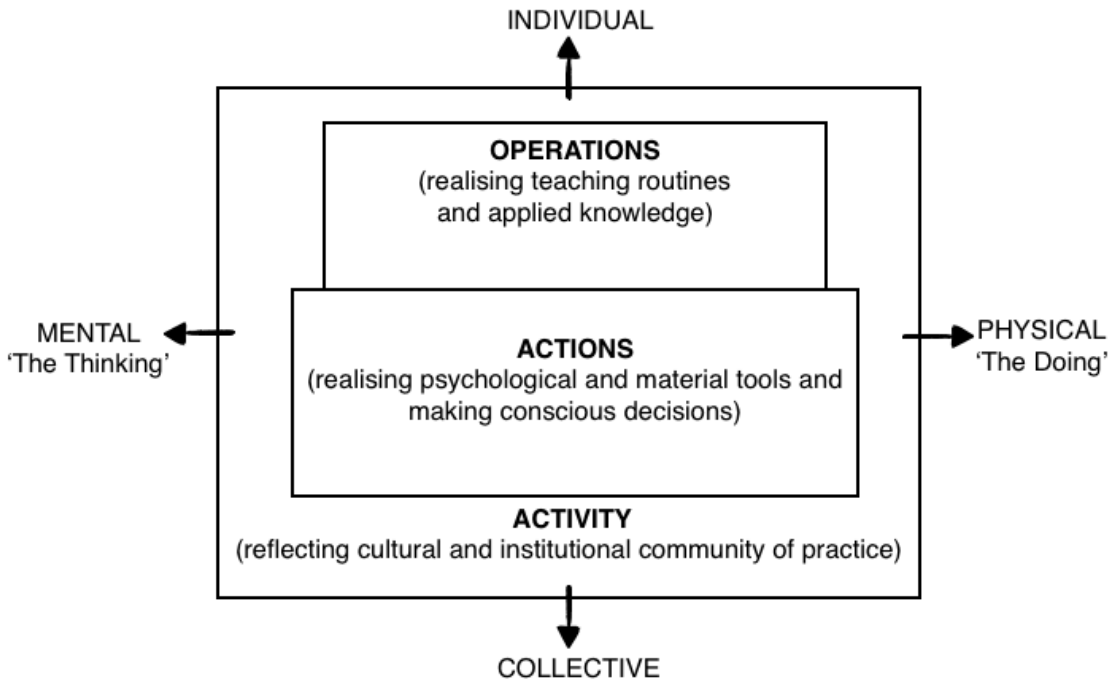

Figure 2.3 Leont'ev's model of activity applied to teaching

This model also portrays an analytic approach to the investigation of LTC. That is, the investigation of LTC needs to take into account all three dimensions or levels of analysis: activity, action and operation. The analysis can begin at any one level, but the ultimate findings need to reflect the collective aspect of the activity (as a system) because it is the activity that captures a holistic view of the phenomenon under investigation (Engeström, 1987/2015). To give an example relevant to the present study, teachers' verbal accounts about a particular language teaching and learning aspect can be analysed to reflect their beliefs, thinking, knowledge, perceptions and other cognitive functions, but these in themselves are not cognitions. They only reflect an aspect of cognitions–the internal or mental aspect. That is, they are mediating conceptual tools through which the teacher's mental actions are reflected (cf., Gal'perin, 1989). This is why, within CHAT perspectives, verbal accounts are generally treated as mental actions or mentation. As stated, these mental actions are dialectically related to external or physical actions. It is through their dialectical relationships between the mental and the

physical dimensions that activities/actions/operations, through which LTC can be captured, are formed (Leont'ev, 1978, 1981; Vygotsky, 1978, 1994; Wertsch, 1985). This conceptualisation of LTC runs parallel with a broader view of human cognition. According to Arievitch (2008, p. 38, emphases added):

> [...] human cognition is a social collaborative activity that cannot be reduced either to physiological processes in the brain or to any individual information processing occurring 'in the head.' Instead, cognition is viewed as stretching beyond the individual isolated mind–into the cultural systems of artifacts and activities that allow for the cognitive processes to be accomplished and into the social communities of which these processes are only a part.

As mentioned, it is crucial to point out also that activities need to be differentiated from actions (Leont'ev, 1978; Engeström, 2015) and actions from operations (Leont'ev, 1978), especially when the investigation at hand involves psychological functions. Such differentiations feed into the reconceptualization of LTC depicted in Figure 2.3 above, which not only provides a coherent, holistic conception of LTC but also an analytic framework within a CHAT perspective. The reconceptualisation of LTC allows for the multi-level analysis afforded by CHAT as shown above, in which language teaching is viewed as a sociocultural activity (e.g., Cross, 2010). To continue with the above example of language teaching, this activity is essentially collective; language teachers participate in this activity as a community whose members contribute to the whole cause of interconnected actions. Moreover, this reconceptualisation posits also that activity can never be understood without its actions (and, thus, operations) being taken into consideration. In fact, it is the examination of actions that activity can be conceived of.

In language teaching, generally, the activity of teaching is broken down into a series of goal-directed actions determined by specific language areas such as teaching reading, teaching writing, teaching listening, teaching speaking, teaching vocabulary, teaching grammar, and teaching pronunciation, as typically dealt with in volumes covering the teaching of English (e.g., Carter & Nunan, 2001; Linse, 2005; Nunan, 2015; Vásquez, Hansen, & Smith, 2013). Some of these actions might also be combined, for example teaching reading and writing, as one goal-directed action. In this latter case, for instance, the goal is to bring reading and writing together as a whole, and the teacher in question aims to achieve this goal by enacting certain operational means or classroom activities (i.e., tasks)–for instance engaging the

students in both reading and writing together. Some other actions such as vocabulary and grammar might be embedded in, for instance, reading or listening.

The final point to make regarding the model depicted in Figure 2.3 concerns the spectrum of individual-collective. That is, the model allows a flexible mode of analysis. As mentioned, an investigator can begin his/her analysis at any one level, and that analysis will reflect the nature of the phenomenon under study. In other words, if the analysis is performed at the activity level, the collective nature of the phenomenon (for instance, LTC) is featured, and if it is performed at the operation level, the individual nature of LTC is illuminated. This CHAT approach denotes the activity-action-operation analytical framework adopted in the present study that focuses on goal-directed vocabulary teaching.

2.5 SUMMARY

This chapter reviews the four key dimensions of the present investigation: language teacher cognition (LTC), vocabulary instruction, NNES teachers' practices and CHAT applications to LTC. As has been shown, LTC has evolved into a field of inquiry in itself, whose findings contribute significantly to the development of L2TE. Noticeably, this field has expanded its horizon, but one of its central foci remains on the teacher as an active, thinking agent, no matter if it is teacher knowledge, beliefs, identity, agency and/or emotion that the researcher is pursuing. As the field continues to evolve, a heavier emphasis is being placed on understanding teacher learning to teach second languages as a process, or social process (Freeman, 2016). Based on the reviews in this chapter, I have proposed, that the term LTC be used as a conceptual framework (juxtaposing Figures 2.1 and 2.3 together) in the manner adopted in the present study, not to conflate its constructs but to illuminate the network of constructs of LTC from the data themselves. What is being proposed constitutes a bottom-up, open-ended approach to LTC (Kubanyiova & Feryok, 2015). This approach also responds to Freeman's (2016) arguments for SLTE to embrace 'descriptive understanding', as opposed to 'prescriptive thinking', about teacher learning to teach second languages as a social process.

The reviews, particularly Section 2.2, in this chapter indicate also that research in vocabulary and LTC is almost non-existent, and the present study sets out to fill in this gap both in the literature of LTC and in language instruction generally. The study is also notable in focusing on Cambodian NNES teachers, especially in a context where LTC research remains under-represented. Using the proposed framework as its empirical lens on CHAT analysis, the study adopts

multidimensional and contextually situated perspectives to gain a holistic understanding about the process of teacher learning in situ. In this respect, the present study aims to contribute to applied linguistics research by investigating a phenomenon that has been found to have considerable implications for the development of language teacher education–language teacher cognition (Barnard & Burns, 2012b; Borg, 2006b; Burns & Richards, 2009; Freeman & Richards, 1996; Hawkins, 2004; K. E. Johnson, 2009; K. E. Johnson & Golombek, 2011; K. R. Johnson, 2005). In the next chapter, I outline and discuss the research design employed to achieve this study's aim.

3 | RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

At the heart of any (empirical) research is its method and design where parameters are defined, determining the most appropriate paradigm, framework, approaches and strategies needed to realise the aims and purposes of that research. In this chapter, I describe such a research design, used for the present study to answer the following research questions:

1. What are the cognitions of the NNES teachers in vocabulary instruction?
2. How are their cognitions interrelated with their classroom practices?
3. How do such interrelationships differ with reference to their career stage: pre-service, novice, and experienced EFL teachers?
4. How are their cognitions and practices shaped by the sociocultural contexts in which these teachers work and live?
5. How does a CHAT perspective to LTC show how these teachers learn to enact their teaching activity in the context of their work?

The chapter is divided into two main sections. Section 3.1 addresses the theoretical underpinnings of the design, and following Creswell (2007, 2013), is organised around major methodological conceptions: the research paradigm (i.e., qualitative versus quantitative), the framework, the approach, and data collection strategies and data analysis. That is, first, in sub-section 3.1.1, I position the present LTC study within the qualitative research paradigm found in social sciences, as well as in education and applied linguistics, whose framework adopted here is considered as exploratory and interpretive (Barnard & Burns, 2012b; Creswell, 2013; Grotjahn, 1987; Hammersley, 2013; Merriam, 2009; K. Richards, 2003; Saldaña, 2011; Stake, 2010; Willis, 2007; Yin, 2011). Then, sub-section 3.1.2 describes 'case study' as an approach to studying LTC and English language teaching as social phenomena in education (Bassey, 1999; Hancock & Algozzine, 2006; Merriam, 1988, 2009; Stake, 1995, 2005, 2006; Tracy, 2013; Yin, 2003) or in applied linguistics or TESOL more specifically (Duff, 2008; Hood, 2009; K. Richards, 2011a). Finally, in this first section, sub-section 3.1.3 examines theories or philosophies underpinning data collection strategies (Mann, 2011; K. Richards, 2009; Seidman, 2006; Talmy, 2010) and

grounded data analysis, which are both employed in the present study (Glaser & Strauss, 1967; Miles, Huberman, & Saldaña, 2014; Roulston, 2014; Saldaña, 2009; Strauss, 1987). Given their central role in data generation for this study, interviews are heavily focused on in the discussions.

In the second part of the chapter, Section 3.2, I move on to provide factual descriptions of the present research, describing its context, participants, and data collection and analysis procedures, but in this section (sub-section 3.2.4.1) I also discuss the issue of researcher reflexivity as it relates to data collection, analysis, and the representation of data in this report at a theoretical level. I end this chapter with an illustrative example of the data analysis approach adopted and a discussion of ethical considerations employed in this study.

3.1 PHILOSOPHICAL UNDERPINNINGS OF THE PRESENT RESEARCH DESIGN

The discussion of qualitative research necessarily invokes quantitative research. In social sciences, these are generally considered as two competing paradigmatic views of research and knowledge although a 'mixed methods' tradition, the combination between the two, is emerging and attracting researchers' attention across the social sciences and applied linguistics more specifically (Hammersley, 2013; Riazi & Candlin, 2014). The discussion in the following sub-section, however, is limited to highlighting the characteristics and the strengths of qualitative research and why it is suitable for the present study.

3.1.1 The Qualitative Research Paradigm

Qualitative research or inquiry has become an established, viable approach to investigating social phenomena across a number of disciplines such as anthropology, sociology and social sciences (Creswell, 2007; Willis, 2007). The field of applied linguistics or TESOL, which was for a long time dominated by the quantitative research tradition, generally informed by SLA experiments, has increasingly adopted qualitative research as a form of inquiry in understanding the processes of language learning, teaching and use, among other areas (Mackey & Gass, 2005; K. Richards, 2003). It has been recognised that certain processes, such as the process of teacher learning investigated in the present study, may be better approached from a qualitative paradigm than from an experimental one, as explained in the discussion below.

A strong argument for qualitative research in language education, found in K. Richards (2003, p. 6), is worth repeating here:

> One reason for change is that scholars have become attracted to the idea of getting close to practice, to getting a first hand-sense of what actually goes on in classrooms, schools, hospitals and communities. That kind of knowledge takes time. The one-shot commando raid as a way to get the data and get out no longer seems attractive. You need to be there. A clean research design with tight experimental controls might be right for some kinds of research, but not for all kinds (Eisner, 2001, p. 137).

This quotation emphasises the longitudinal aspects afforded by qualitative research. However, this is but one characteristic, which generally applies to studies that observe 'change' in the phenomenon under investigation, as for example in K. Richards's (2003) study, which investigated language teachers' conceptual change, a topic also examined in Kubanyiova (2012), though in the latter it was 'failure' to change that was focused on. Besides the longitudinal design, what also makes research 'qualitative', according to Freeman (2009), is the interrelated nature of research questions, research setting(s), research claims and the "warrants, or bases, on which the claims are, or should be, judged" (p. 26). Qualitative research "focuses on questions that examine the relationships between information about people's actions and phenomena, and the settings in which they do these things" (Freeman, 2009, p. 39). The present study investigates such relationships, that is, how Cambodian NNES teachers approach vocabulary teaching (i.e., actions) and how such actions (both mental and physical) are shaped by the setting (be it the classroom, workplace, teaching practicum, or socio-political context) in which the actions take place. In this respect, the present study sits within this broadly defined qualitative research paradigm.

As briefly noted above, the phenomena investigated in the present study, LTC and vocabulary instruction, are better approached from a qualitative research point of view because, as has been seen from the literature review in Chapter 2, they are complex cognitive and social issues that require sophisticated investigative approaches to studying them. A qualitative approach to these issues can assist the investigator in uncovering "the complexities and conundrums of the immensely complicated social world" (K. Richards, 2003, p. 8) in which these phenomena reside. Besides, the inquiry being pursued in the present study examines the process, rather than the product, of teaching and teacher learning in situ, thus being a process-oriented investigation which is characteristic of qualitative research (Creswell, 2007/2013). Within the domain of LTC research itself,

moreover, qualitative approaches appear to have gained momentum. For instance, the conceptual and empirical papers that appear in a recent special issue of The Modern Language Journal, edited by Kubanyiova and Feryok (2015) all position the issues of LTC, language teacher learning or language teacher education within the qualitative research paradigm because, as the authors all tend to agree, the issues are complex, dynamic and situated and are better examined from qualitative research viewpoints. Therefore, the paradigmatic view upheld in the present investigation converges with those of recent LTC research scholars.

Notwithstanding the positioning of the present study's 'world view' mentioned above, it is equally important to articulate a closely related notion, that of the philosophical framework the study adopts. Although it may not be possible to provide a clear-cut distinction among research frameworks found in social sciences (Hammersley, 2013), research methods scholars have identified them in terms of, for example positivism, interpretivism or (social) constructivism, and critical theory (e.g., Willis, 2007; Creswell, 2007/2013; Merriam, 2009). The present study finds itself within the interpretive framework, which "assumes that reality is socially constructed, that is, there is no single, observable reality. Rather, there are multiple realities, or interpretations, of a single event" (Merriam, 2009, p. 8). The position that I take in the present study regarding the paradigmatic view (i.e., qualitative research) and philosophical framework (i.e., interpretivism) appeals to the notions of ontology and epistemology. In this regard, the present study adopts also a sociocultural perspective, CHAT, that is associated with the sociohistorical ontology delineated in Burns et al. (2015), who lay out four ontological generations of LTC research: individual ontology, social ontology, sociohistorical ontology, and complex, chaotic systems ontology. An important aspect of the sociohistorical ontological generation of LTC research which adopts an interpretive framework is the "ways in which the researcher's representation of meaning and their positioning within language teacher cognition research contributes to the [research] process" (Burns, et al., 2015, pp. 592-593). Later, in Section 3.2 (sub-section 3.2.4.1), I take up the issue of researcher reflexivity in the collection of data through interviews and in the analysis of such data.

This sub-section has discussed the characteristics and the strengths of qualitative research in which the present study is located, along with the interpretive framework used to guide the research process. In the following sub-section, I continue to discuss the specific approach taken in the present study,

known as case study approach, to studying social phenomena such as LTC and vocabulary instruction.

3.1.2 Case Study as a Qualitative Research Approach

I argued earlier that the present study necessarily sits within the qualitative research paradigm. In this sub-section, I argue further that case study, as an approach to qualitative research, is appropriate for the present study that investigates teachers' cognitions and their interactions with actual classroom practices. In a general sense, it is because "case studies are a popular form of qualitative research" (Merriam, 2009, p. vii), but more importantly, in a more technical understanding, the case study approach possesses the features needed to examine LTC and vocabulary instruction as social phenomena. To discuss the technicality of case study, I examine the characteristics of case study research as reflected in various definitions. Although it is not in the scope of this chapter to argue for the best definition of case study research, I intend at least to lay out justifications for case study to be used as an appropriate research approach for the present investigation. To do this, in 3.1.2.1, I bring together various definitions of case study research found in scholarly works. Those definitions vary from one another in terms of their respective parameters, but they also converge in terms of core characteristics or features of case study (research). It is these characteristics that form the criteria for determining that case study is a relevant and justifiable research approach for the present purpose. At the end of this sub-section, in 3.1.2.2, major criticisms of case study are also addressed.

3.1.2.1 Defining Case Study

Case study as an empirical research approach has a long history (Creswell, 2007; Yin, 1989, 2003, 2009). An influential figure in case study research methods is Yin since his works have been cited and referred to frequently when case study research is discussed. By his conception, case study is a research strategy used to investigate "complex social phenomena" in real-life settings with two important "sources of evidence: [...] direct observation of events being studied and interviews of the persons involved in the events" (Yin, 2003, pp. 2-8). His definition of case study (Yin, 2003, pp. 13-14, also found elsewhere in Yin, 1981, 2009) is as follows:

> A case study is an empirical inquiry that investigates a contemporary phenomenon within its real-life context, especially when the boundaries

> between phenomenon and context are not clearly evident [...] The case study inquiry copes with the technically distinctive situation in which there will be many more variables of interest than data points, and as one result relies on multiple sources of evidence, with data needing to converge in a triangulating fashion, and as another result benefits from the prior development of theoretical propositions to guide data collection and analysis.

As can be seen, context-dependence is a key criterion for a case study approach. Similarly, in the introduction to their edited encyclopaedic reference material on case study research, Mills, Durepos, and Wiebe (2010, p. xxxii) also define case study as a research 'strategy' with such characteristics as:

- a focus on the interrelationships that constitute the context of a specific entry (such as an organization, event, phenomenon, or person),
- analysis of the relationship between the contextual factors and the entity being studied, and
- the explicit purpose of using those insights (of the interactions between contextual relationships and the entity in question) to generate theory and/or contribute to extant theory

Here, the emphasis is on the interrelationship between the phenomenon being investigated and its contexts. Creswell (2007, p. 73, emphases original), who views case study as a 'methodology'—a view that, however, is not shared by Stake (2005)—defines case study research as follows:

> Case study research is a qualitative approach in which the investigator explores a bounded system (a case) or multiple bounded systems (cases) over time, through detailed, in-depth data collection involving multiple sources of information (e.g., observations, interviews, audiovisual material, and documents and reports), and reports a case description and case-based themes.

Stake (2005, p. 443) views case study not as a methodological choice but as a "choice of what is to be studied". In other words, it is the phenomenon, or the 'quintain' (Stake, 2006), set to be investigated that itself determines case study as an approach.

Whether case study is a research strategy or a methodology, decided by the researcher or determined by the topic of the investigation, the nature of case study evolves around two notions based on the definitions provided above: first, the

observed phenomena are social, residing in real-life contexts and, second, the relationships between the case (or cases) and its context are understood through multiple sources of data. In the field of education, Merriam (1988, 2009) advocates for (qualitative) case study research to be used in researching specific educational phenomena. She points out four core characteristics attributable to case study research. That is, case study research is "particularistic [focusing] on a particular situation, event, program, or phenomenon". Its outcome is essentially, qualitatively "descriptive [presenting] a rich 'thick' description of the phenomenon under study", and the overall case study research design including its findings allows readers to understand the case "heuristically". Finally, as she comments further, case study research relies "on inductive reasoning" and that its "[g]eneralizations, concepts, or hypotheses emerge from an examination of data–data grounded in the context itself" (Merriam, 1988, pp. 11-13).

Picking up from the above characteristics of case study, two other features are notable. First, case study research focuses on the particularity of the phenomenon in question, rather than on the representativeness of a case or cases. This is an important feature that identifies case study research as qualitative and distinguishes it from quantitative research that generally focuses on numbers, frequencies, and/or statistics. Second, this particularity stresses the importance of thick description of the case(s) being examined and is associated with the notion of singularity that generally does not invoke the concept of generalisability found in quantitative, experimental studies. However, as can be noticed, Merriam (1988) suggests there are generalisations from case study research. I return to this issue later in 3.1.2.2, where criticisms of case study are addressed and where the present study, which involves multi-cases across a site, is argued to be able to generate certain forms of generalisation for the phenomena under investigation.

In the remainder of this sub-section, I narrow down the discussion to how case study has been used in the present study's discipline, applied linguistics, and how the present study's investigation can be justified for case study. In the field of applied linguistics, in which the present study is located, case study also has a long history as a research approach. In an introductory paragraph to his chapter on Case Study, Nunan (1992, p. 74) defines case study specifically in relation to its methodological features. He writes that "the case study in research on language learning and teaching [...] is a 'hybrid' in that it generally utilizes a range of methods for collecting and analysing data, rather than being restricted to a single

procedure". What is stressed in this description is the multiple sources of data as already pointed out earlier.

Case study as an approach to researching language learning and teaching remains a popular form of qualitative research for applied linguistics researchers. For instance, Duff (2008) offers an extensive discussion of how case study research can be conducted in this domain. Reporting on her study on the L2 development of a Cambodian adult immigrant to Canada, Duff highlights the case as a language learner that reflects the learner/learning perspective, but as she puts it case study can also apply to a wide range of cases "within the realm of applied linguistics, including descriptions and analyses of an individual language teacher or learner, a school, or a country's language policies, communication in a multilingual workplace setting, language shift in a postcolonial small-scale society, and so on" (Duff, 2008, p. 2). In a similar vein, Hood (2009) argues that it is appropriate for applied linguistics research to adopt case study as an approach. In fact, as he comments, it can help applied linguistics researchers achieve what they could not with a quantitative research approach. In this regard, case study has apparently burgeoned in applied linguistics that investigates the process of a social phenomenon. In LTC research itself, moreover, case study is also commonly used as a research approach. As can be seen in Barnard and Burns (2012), an edited volume of eight LTC investigations, all studies are referred to as case studies. In this respect, the present study that adopts case study as a research approach to LTC and vocabulary instruction falls in line with contemporary research designs in the literature of LTC and that of applied linguistics more generally.

In addition, as far as case study is concerned, one can discern different types. Stake (1995, 2005) lists three types: the intrinsic, the instrumental and the collective case study. The first two types are found in 'singular' case study (where the number of cases is limited to one). While an intrinsic case study is motivated by the researcher's desire to understand that particular case, an instrumental case study aims "to provide insight into an issue or to redraw a generalization" (Stake, 2005, p. 445). The latter sets out to test a theory, in other words. The collective case study, on the other hand, is generally known as multiple case study (e.g., Stake, 2006; Yin, 2003). It comprises "instrumental study extended to several cases", according to Stake (2005, p. 446), who explained this third type of case further:

> Individual cases in the collection may or may not be known in advance to manifest some common characteristic. They may be similar or dissimilar, with

> redundancy and variety each important. They are chosen because it is believed that understanding them will lead to better understanding, and perhaps better theorizing, about a still larger collection of cases.

Multiple cases can be selected from different contexts, according to Yin's (2003) conception, but as reflected in Stake's (2005) descriptions above, the context for the many cases may be the same. It is this situation in which the present study finds itself. In the present investigation, nine teachers (further details are provided in sub-section 3.2.2 below) were the involved cases, all coming from more or less the same institutional, sociocultural, and socioeconomic context. The benefit of having multiple cases across a context or site, as in this study, is that one might be able to 'better theorise' about the phenomena in question (e.g., LTC and vocabulary instruction). Its disadvantage, however, as Stake (2006) pointed out, is the researcher's limited possibility to delve in depth into each of the cases. This is a sacrifice a researcher may have to make when dealing with multiple case studies. Nonetheless, as will be seen throughout later chapters (particularly Chapters 5, 6, 7 and 8), relatively rich descriptions of each case can be made available.

Drawing upon the characteristics of case study as a research approach outlined above, it is now possible to summarise the core features of case study (research). The case in question should be a unique contemporary, social phenomenon that can be studied in a real-life (as opposed to an experimental) context (cf., Woodside, 2010, regarding case study on non-contemporary phenomena). The purpose(s) of the investigation can be case exploration, explanation, evaluation, or a combination of these. To understand the case, the researcher needs to collect and analyse data from multiple sources by taking into account the contextual factors that define the case itself, a bounded system. In addition to the researcher's own interpretation of the case, the case report should be descriptively informative to allow readers to draw plausible interpretations by themselves. Case study research is particularistic, descriptive and heuristic (Merriam, 1988/2009). All these features place case study within an interpretive research paradigm, which is relevant to the present study. Importantly, as argued by Stake (2005), it is less about researchers choosing case study as an approach to examining a phenomenon; it is more about the nature of the phenomenon itself that determines case study as an appropriate research design, a view also embraced by Merriam (2009) in educational research and by Hood (2009) in applied linguistics. This view can be referred to as a case-oriented, as opposed to

methodology-oriented, research approach. In the present study, case study is, thus, intrinsically chosen as a suitable approach because the study investigates complex social phenomena (LTC and vocabulary instruction) in a real-life context that in themselves beg for such an approach.

3.1.2.2 Criticisms of Case Study Research

The preceding sub-section speaks for the strengths of case study research, but no one research method can be claimed to be perfect. Case study as a research methodology, approach, or strategy is no exception. A major criticism of case study, as well as qualitative research more generally, is its limited generalisability. However, this criticism can be said to be inappropriate as long as case study researchers do not aim to generalise their research findings (Stake, 1995; Woodside, 2010), and if they do, there are certain forms of generalisation that can be drawn from case study (Bassey, 1999; L. Cohen, Manion, & Morrison, 2007; Yin, 2003).

For example, in respect of the generalisability of case study, according to Adelman, Kemmis, and Jenkins (1980, pp. 59-60, cited in Bassey, 1999, p. 23), "case studies allow generalisations either about an instance or from an instance to a class. Their peculiar strength lies in their attention to the subtlety and complexity of the case in its own right". Bassey (1999) goes on to draw on various discussions on the issues of generalisation from case study research, among them is Yin's differentiation between analytical and statistical generalisation (more below). In education, Bassey argues, where teaching is a complex activity, 'scientific', or statistical, generalisations do not apply. He proposes that what can be drawn from educational case study is 'fuzzy' generalisations, a kind of generalisation that acknowledges that case study findings may or may not be applicable in a setting different from the one in which such findings are discovered.

Yin (2003) is also among those who argue that findings from case studies can indeed be generalised insofar as 'generalisability' is construed differently from that found in experimental research paradigm. He refers to such generalisability as the external validity of the case study. He contends also that case study research can yield "analytical generalization [where] the investigator is striving to generalize a particular set of results to some broader theory" (p. 37). Yin's analytical generalisation from case study is differentiated from 'statistical generalisation' found in experimental research that seeks to predict outcomes across different settings (cf., Woodside, 2010, regarding case studies' ability to predict outcomes). L. Cohen et al. (2007) point out three forms or levels of generalisation from case

studies, that is "from the single instance to the class of instances that it represents [...] from features of the single case to a multiplicity of classes with the same features [or] from the single features of part of the case to the whole of that case" (p. 254). Like Yin, Cohen et al. (2007) contend that the generalisations from case study research deal with theories or theoretical propositions, rather than with the population of the case(s).

In a field more relevant to the present context, applied linguistics, however, there is an interesting criticism of case study as a research approach. McDonough and McDonough (1997) do not view case study as "a research method or the equivalent of one", arguing that in the field of language learning and teaching English as a foreign language, case study has questionable outcomes–that is, whether or not they are "valid, reliable, and generalizable". They argue strongly against the use of case study in the field of "language learning and TEFL [Teaching English as a Foreign Language]" and argue also that they are more relevant in the fields of education and social science (McDonough & McDonough, 1997, p. 203). Nonetheless, as shown below, not only in the field of applied linguistics, but more specifically in the field of language learning and teaching, case study is increasingly recognised as a research approach.

van Lier (2005, p. 195) views case study research as a research methodology or "a valuable tool to examine educational reality" including language teaching and learning, SLA and applied linguistics. He further states that "there is a form of generalization that proceeds not from an individual case to a population, but from lower-level constructs to higher-level ones" (p. 198). In the field of TESOL, K. Richards (2003) also argues in favour of the generalisability of case studies, and more recently (K. Richards, 2011a), he complements van Lier's views on the contributions that case study research could make to the development of the field of L2 learning and teaching. That is, as research in this field appears to embrace and take account of contexts (or contextualisations), case study can be a promising research tool. Insofar as case study findings being generalisable, K. Richards notes "the axial context [as being] the extent to which a single case can throw light on features of the larger class of cases [i.e., population, if defined in a loose sense] to which it belongs" (K. Richards, 2011, p. 209).

Mackey and Gass (2005) discuss generalisability in terms of 'transferability' in qualitative inquiry more generally. They stress the importance of context in qualitative research and support the idea that the research report be written as a thick description of the phenomenon or case being studied to allow such

transferability to occur. Mackey and Gass (2005, p. 180, emphases original) put it as follows:

> For transferability in qualitative research, the research context is seen as integral. Although qualitative research findings are rarely directly transferable from one context to another, the extent to which findings may be transferred depends on the similarity of the context. Important for determining similarity of context is the method of reporting known as 'thick description,' which refers to the process of using multiple perspectives to explain the insights gleaned from a study [...] The idea behind thick description is that if researchers report their findings with sufficient detail for readers to understand the characteristics of the research context and participants, the audience will be able to compare the research situation with their own and thus determine which findings may be appropriately transferred to their setting.

To fulfil this requirement for thick-description of a case study report, as will be seen in the following five chapters (4, 5, 6, 7 and 8), I describe and report the context of the cases being studied and the detailed findings about the investigated cases. All these strengths and limitations of case study research are also addressed by Duff (2008), who also defends the use of case study in applied linguistics.

As can be recalled, besides the issue of generalisability, McDonough and McDonough's criticisms of case study research also point to its reliability and validity. In the following section, in order to address these criticisms, I continue to discuss these two interrelated aspects of case study research or qualitative research more broadly.

The issue of reliability and validity prominently discussed in experimental research has also been found in the literature on qualitative paradigms, and more specifically case study research. In addressing the internal validity of case study research, Merriam (1988) draws together six basic strategies. First, the research uses triangulating data collection. This strategy is, in fact, clearly reflected in the definitions of case study reviewed earlier. That is, to ensure that a case study produces a valid investigation and outcomes, it is necessary to collect and analyse different sources of evidence. Second, the researcher employs member checking. This involves presenting the data collected and the analysis results back to the participant(s) for them to confirm or otherwise rebut or modify accordingly. Third,

the investigator conducts (direct) observations of the phenomenon in question 'at length', so that in-depth understanding of the issue at hand is made valid. Fourth, the research can adopt a peer examination strategy, "asking [the researcher's] colleagues [with expertise on the subject matter] to comment on the findings as they emerge". Fifth, the research engages the participants throughout the research process. Finally, the researcher makes clear from the beginning of the research "the researcher's assumptions, worldview, and theoretical orientation" (Merriam, 1988, pp. 169-170). This sixth point is echoed in Creswell's (2007) views on conducting rigorous qualitative inquiry, as pointed out at the beginning of this chapter (see also K. Richards, 2003, on the rigour of qualitative inquiry in TESOL).

Moreover, to ensure the reliability, also referred to as "dependability" or "consistency" in Lincoln and Guba (1985, p. 288, cited in Merriam, 1988, p. 172), qualitative case study researchers could adopt such techniques as explicating clear research position in terms of its theoretical orientations, triangulating methods of data collection and analysis, and seeking review of the case study results from an independent researcher. The research position of the present study regarding its theoretical orientations towards the phenomena in question (i.e., LTC and vocabulary instruction) and the way it attempts to meet such criteria has been explicated in Chapter 2, particularly in Section 2.2. Merriam (1988) suggests also that reliability can be achieved concurrently with internal validity. In other words, when internal validity of a case study is ensured, the reliability tends to follow. In this connection, Yin (2003) discusses four quality tests of case study research: construct validity, internal validity, external validity and reliability. Among other things, important 'tactics' case study researchers can use to achieve these qualities are "multiple sources of evidence", "pattern-matching", use of "replication logic in multiple-case studies", and use of "case study protocol" (Yin, 2003, p. 34)—all the characteristics the present study can be said to include.

From the discussions laid out in this first part of the chapter, it seems reasonable to conclude that case study is a valid qualitative approach for the present study, positioned within the qualitative research paradigm and adopting an interpretive framework. This study is located in a specific, real-life setting, aims to provide an in-depth rich description of each of the cases, and intends to provide illustrative accounts of practice that may be transferrable to contexts of similar circumstances. The multi-case nature of the study helps not only to strengthen the reliability and validity of the study but also to increase the scope of the transferability of the findings (i.e., theorising about LTC and vocabulary instruction).

3.2 THE RESEARCH DESIGN OF THE PRESENT STUDY

In this section, I move on to describe the research design of the present study. I discuss the research site and participants, data gathering strategies or techniques and the treatments and analyses of the data collected. The issues of researcher reflexivity and the strategies used to ensure reliability and validity mentioned in the preceding section are also delineated.

3.2.1 Research Site and Participant Selection

The selection of the research site and the participants is essentially purposeful and intrinsically motivated. The focus of this research is a context where English is learnt as a foreign language (known as EFL) and is taught by non-native English speaker (NNES) teachers, specifically Cambodian teachers. The present setting, the university where the teaching occurs, is one of the foremost language institutes in the country that provides formal English language education up to degree levels. This setting was selected because it is one of the ELT institutions that have been observed to have great influence on the practice of teaching and learning English in the country (Moore & Bounchan, 2010) and, as a result, it seemed to be a relevant location to learn more about the practice of ELT from the perspectives of the teachers working there. It was hoped, therefore, that findings obtained from this study would not only be informative for the present setting but also contribute to the development of ELT within the country.

The identification and selection of the research participants were, however, less straight-forward. At the time of the study, there were around 60 practising teachers and about 500 pre-service teachers enrolled in the Bachelor's degree program in Education, Teaching English as a Foreign Language (hereafter, BEd in TEFL) at the research site. This study involved teachers categorised as pre-service, novice, and experienced, for which the selection criteria are explained in sub-section 3.2.2 below. The selection of the pre-service teachers (pre-services) was made through a teacher trainer who, based on his direct observations, identified the three most outstanding students from one of his BEd in TEFL classes and provided me with their contact information. I later approached the students for their consent to participate in the study. On the other hand, the recruitments of the novice and experienced teachers (who were all practising teachers) began with an email I sent to the Director of the Department who oversaw the program in which the teachers were teaching. In the email, I asked the Director to forward my email, in which brief descriptions of the study were provided, to the staff email list. Only

one reply was obtained from a teacher expressing interest in participating in this research, but as he was currently on leave he was contacted and his expression of interest politely turned down.

I then began to be more purposeful. Since the language focus of this study dealt with vocabulary instruction, I focused on those who were teaching courses with vocabulary as an explicit syllabus component. That meant those who were teaching what was known at the site as Core English (CE). (I describe in greater details the structure of the program in Chapter 4, sub-section 4.2.2.) Thirty-two teachers were identified as teaching this course across three year levels: Year 1 (CE1), Year 2 (CE2), and Year 3 (CE3). To tease out the difference between novice and experienced teachers, I tabulated their information in terms of the number of years of teaching experience and their degree qualifications, the information publicly available in the university students' information booklet. Twelve teachers were classified as 'experienced' and twenty as 'novice' teachers, and three teachers from each group were randomly selected using the MS Excel function. The six identified teachers were first contacted through email seeking their interest to participate in the study. The random selection procedure was repeated twice until I obtained positive replies to my email from three teachers in each group.

When I met face-to-face with the individual teachers (nine of them, one at a time), I explained the purpose of the study and gave them the participant information statement and consent form, a copy of which can be found in Appendix 1. They were constructed pursuant to the research guidelines both of the University of New South Wales and of the university which the participants were at the time affiliated with. The participants read and signed two copies of the form; one was given to them to keep as a reference. In the form, there was also a section for revocation of consent that the teachers could use anytime to withdraw their consent to participate in this study. None of them used that section throughout the process of data collection spanning over a six-month period.

3.2.2 Case Grouping

The study divided the participants into three groups: the pre-services, the novices and the experienced teachers. The pre-service teachers, as the name suggests, referred to those in preparation to become teachers who had not formally begun their professional service as yet. They were, at the time of the study, taking the BEd in TEFL. At this stage of their (prospective) career, these teachers were also known

as teacher-trainees or student-teachers. I use the term pre-services to encapsulate all these labels, but they are at times referred to interchangeably.

On the other hand, both novice and experienced teachers were practising teachers, who had successfully completed their BEd in TEFL qualifying them to teach EFL in Cambodian schools at secondary school level. The reason why BEd in TEFL holders can be recruited to teach EFL at a tertiary level is provided in Chapter 4, sub-section 4.1.3. A similar discussion can also be found in Moore (2008). However, the difference between novice and experienced teachers was determined in terms of the number of years of teaching or service and also in terms of their professional qualifications. While experienced teachers have taught for a number of years, novice teachers have entered the profession only recently after their graduation (Farrell, 2008; Gatbonton, 2008). It may be artificial to differentiate between novice and experienced teachers in terms of the number of years of teaching, but following Gatbonton (2008), those who were identified as novices should have taught no more than two years after their graduation. To further make a distinction between novice and experienced teachers, I also took account of the teachers' professional qualifications. That is, experienced teachers in this study held at least a Master's degree either in TEFL, TESL, TESOL, or in other closely related disciplines. Novice teachers, on the other hand, did not hold such a qualification but held at least a bachelor's degree in teaching English (e.g., BEd in TEFL).

In the following table, I summarise the information about the teachers across the three sets of cases. Most of the information was obtained from a publicly available information booklet issued by the institution, except the teachers' age range and other qualifications not related to ELT, some of which were made available later during the interview. They are included here to provide a fuller description of the cases involved. As can also be seen in Table 3.1, teachers of different genders are represented in each group, and throughout this thesis, the teachers' individual gender will be used as their pronoun reference. Also included in the table is the code assigned to each teacher to preserve their anonymity, where the 'PT' denotes pre-service teachers, the 'NT' novice teachers, and the 'ET' experienced teachers. The age of all the participating teachers ranges from 20 to 45 years old.

Table 3.1 Summaries of the teachers' biographies, qualifications and teaching experiences

	GENDER	AGE	BED IN TEFL	OTHER QUALIFICATIONS	BEEN TEACHING FOR
PT01	M	Early 20s	2015	NA	None
PT02	F	Early 20s	2015	NA	None
PT03	F	Early 20s	2015	NA	None
NT01	F	Early 20s	2013	BA in Finance & Banking	1 Year
NT02	M	Early 20s	2013	BA in Economics	1 Year
NT03	F	Early 20s	2012	NA	2 Years
ET01	F	Late 30s	1999	MEd in Leadership & Management	14 Years
ET02	M	Early 40s	1998	Grad-Dip in Applied Linguistics MA in TESOL	15 Years
ET03	M	Early 30s	2006	MA in TESOL	8 Years

From the outset of this chapter, my position has been that this present study necessarily involves case study research. To clarify again, a case can be an individual, event, organisation, or program (Yin, 2003, 2009; Creswell, 2007; Merriam, 1988, 2009). As described earlier in sub-section 3.1.2.1, the present study involves multiple cases, but it can best be seen as a case-within-case study, with the institution that hosts the teachers and the teaching being a case itself and the teacher participants also being cases or multiple (bounded) cases. In sum, this study consists of three case categories: pre-service teachers, novice teachers, and experienced teachers. Each of these categories comprises three teachers who themselves are different cases, despite the fact that they share the common characteristics described above across each cohort. As mentioned, in addition to being able to use replication logic across these nine cases, which in effect significantly increases the external validity of the study (Yin, 2003), the varied characters of these cases may offer a wide range of perspectives and insights regarding the phenomena under investigation, thus illuminating their complexities and maximising the possibility to theorise about the phenomena–LTC and

vocabulary instruction. In the following section, I continue to describe and discuss another stage of the research, data collection.

3.2.3 Data Collection

The database for this study comes from four main sources: in-depth interviews, classroom observations, brief recall interviews, and documentation (such as lesson plans, worksheets, handouts, textbooks, course outlines, and field notes). Data obtained, or 'generated' (Roulston, 2011), from these means reflect the multiple-source character of case study research discussed earlier, and they are essentially important sources of data in language teacher cognition research (Barnard & Burns, 2012b; Borg, 2006b, 2012). This data collection also allows for triangulation not only because one source of data informs another, but also because one can confirm or disconfirm from each set of sources (Barnard & Burns, 2012). I discuss each of these sources further in this section, together with issues of researcher reflexivity and ethical considerations. However, before I begin, it may be helpful to visualise the data collection processes. In Table 3.2, lengths of time were measured based on the recorded contents, which at times were shorter than the actual events. That is, the recording equipment was switched off and 'conversations' between me and the teachers continued. In this case, following the teachers' consent, summary contents of such conversations were written down, checked by the teachers and were used as part of the data. Besides, the lengths of the recorded classroom observations indicated here also included the immediate recall interviews.

As shown in Table 3.2, the main duration of data collection for this study was approximately six months, between late January 2014 and mid-July 2014, during which time there were three major steps of data collection: first-round interviews, classroom observations and second-round interviews. The recall interviews conducted immediately after each observation, as Table 3.2 suggests, are embedded in the second step of data collection. However, as can be seen in the table, the preparation of data collection began as early as 2013 when a pilot study was conducted among a pre-service, a novice and an experienced teacher from a similar context to that of the participating teachers. The purpose of this pilot study, conducted in February 2013, well before the participants were determined, was to trial the research instruments such as interview questions and classroom observations. Interview questions were semi-structured, constructed based on the literature of LTC and vocabulary instruction, and sought to orient the teachers to talking on these topics.

Table 3.2 Processes of data collection

2013	2014							
Feb	Jan	Feb	Mar	Apr	May	Jun	Jul	Length*
Piloting interview questions and classroom observations with one pre-service, one novice and one experienced teacher (different from those participating in the study)								
1st Interviews	NT03 on 27/01/14							(01:15:45)
	NT02 on 28/01/14							(03:01:04)
	NT01 on 31/01/14							(01:38:03)
	ET03 on 03/02/14							(02:00:16)
	PT01 on 04/02/14							(01:08:53)
	PT02 on 07/02/14							(01:23:31)
	PT03 on 07/02/14							(01:01:24)
	ET01 on 08/02/14							(01:54:37)
	ET02 on 28/02/14							(02:00:16)
Classroom Observations	NT01 on 24/02/14							(01:21:14)
	NT01 on 26/02/14							(01:16:23)
	ET03 on 03/03/14							(01:26:49)
	NT02 on 04/03/14							(01:16:44)
	NT01 on 05/03/14							(01:05:21)
	PT01 on 07/03/14							(01:47:54)
	PT02 on 08/03/14							(02:09:00)
	NT03 on 11/03/14							(01:29:27)
	ET03 on 13/03/14							(00:51:06)
	NT02 on 14/03/14							(01:17:51)
	PT01 on 15/03/14							(01:41:38)
	NT01 on 17/03/14							(01:03:50)
	PT03 on 20/03/14							(01:58:39)
	NT02 on 25/03/14							(01:20:55)
	NT01 on 26/03/14							(01:13:09)
	ET03 on 27/03/14							(00:45:02)
	NT01 on 31/03/14							(01:17:57)
	NT02 on 01/04/14							(01:04:08)
	NT03 on 03/04/14							(01:20:17)
	ET03 on 07/04/14							(00:53:27)
	NT01 on 09/04/14							(01:20:18)
	NT02 on 11/04/14							(01:12:59)
	NT03 on 29/04/14							(01:23:41)
	ET03 on 05/05/14							(01:22:34)
	ET02 on 06/05/14							(01:23:13)
	NT03 on 08/05/14							(01:25:56)
	ET02 on 13/05/14							(01:09:29)
	ET03 on 15/05/14							(00:49:53)
	NT02 on 20/05/14							(00:39:55)
	ET02 on 22/05/14							(01:20:42)
	ET02 on 29/05/14							(00:56:48)
	ET03 on 02/06/14							(01:29:46)
	ET02 on 03/06/14							(00:52:13)
	NT02 on 06/06/14							(00:54:51)
	ET03 on 02/07/14							(00:59:52)
2nd Interviews	PT01 on 17/06/14							(01:02:07)
	NT03 on 18/06/14							(01:17:22)
	NT01 on 19/06/14							(01:30:28)
	PT02 on 20/06/14							(01:33:40)
	PT03 on 20/06/14							(01:23:40)
	ET03 on 10/07/14							(01:37:28)
	ET01 on 14/07/14							(01:40:37)
	NT02 on 16/07/14							(02:01:24)
	ET02 on 17/07/14							(01:19:08)

The data generated were found to be satisfactory as 'data' for the study. However, minor modifications were made to the interview questions, particularly by restructuring certain questions so that the flow of the discussions was more natural. They also took into account the way the recorder was positioned so that maximum noise was reduced and thus audio quality maximised. Appendix 2 provides a sample of the revised interview guides. Classroom observations were also conducted during this pilot study, whose purposes were mainly to grasp the effect my presence in the class would have on both the teacher and the students–and to practise taking notes of actions that could not be audio-recorded. Appendix 3 provides an example of classroom observation notes produced during the pilot study.

Following these revisions, the actual interviews began in late January 2014. As Table 3.2 shows, the data collection activities (both interviews and classroom observations) were concentrated in February and March 2014 and continued to spread across the rest of the data collection period. During this time, various documents such as teachers' lesson plans, handouts, worksheets, course outlines and course textbooks were also collected. As can be observed in the table, there was no observations of ET01's lessons. I will briefly explain this unfortunate case in 3.2.3.2 below. In the next sub-section, however, I discuss the use of interviews for the present study's purpose and describe how they were conducted.

3.2.3.1 In-depth Interviews

The main data collection began with interviews. According to Borg's (2006b) review, interview is one of the most employed data gathering techniques in LTC research, and remains so (Borg, 2012). Obtained from such interviews are teachers' verbal commentaries or accounts of their beliefs, thoughts, and knowledge (Borg, 2006b), pertaining to their respective experience or situation of teaching. According to K. Richards (2003), the conduct of the interviews should aim to gain deep understanding of a subject-matter, in this case, the teachers' cognitions in vocabulary instruction. In this study, in effect, I employed interviews as one of the prime techniques to elicit teachers' cognitions about vocabulary instruction.

All the interviews (including the recall interviews, explained further in 3.2.3.1 below) were conducted in English as determined by the teachers' preference of language choice. The use of English, other than the interview participants' first language (L1), has its disadvantages and advantages, but as will be seen it was beneficial for the present study. As for the disadvantage, potentially the teachers

might not be able to express themselves fully, stemming from the possible limited English proficiency found in second or foreign language speakers. As a result, the use of English in the interviews may limit what is said. However, although it was the teachers' choice to use English as the language of their interviews, they were reminded that it was always possible for them to switch between English and Khmer (our shared L1) anytime they felt more comfortable doing so. Only two of the teachers (i.e., ET01 and ET02) resorted to using Khmer during their second interviews. ET01 chose to speak in Khmer towards the end of her interview because the discussions became emotional, and ET02 started off his interview with 'small chats' in Khmer. Moreover, the use of English in the interviews helped speed up the research process by not having to translate a substantial number of interview transcriptions. In this regard, it follows that without involving translation, which otherwise might produce complex and potentially controversial questions of translation approaches and quality of data, the teachers' verbal accounts of their experiences were taken directly for what and how were said.

Throughout the data collection process, each participant was interviewed twice, once before the classroom observations (more descriptions of the observations will be provided in 3.2.3.2), and once after. As Table 3.2 also shows, each interview lasted approximately between 60 and 180 minutes. Conducted between late January and late February 2014, the first interviews aimed to gather factual and background information about the participants and their teaching experiences, together with the teachers' cognitions about vocabulary as a language curriculum area, vocabulary learning and vocabulary teaching. During the second interviews, some of the issues discussed in the first were revisited either for confirmation, elaboration or follow-up. In these later interviews conducted at least a week after all observations were concluded, the teachers were also asked to reflect on their classroom activities, and in the case of the pre-services, on their practicum sessions. Both of these interviews were semi-structured in form, as mentioned, with a set of pre-formulated questions informed by the literature reviewed in Chapter 2.

In addition to these two interviews, each teacher was also interviewed for between 10 and 20 minutes straight after each observed lesson. The purpose of these after-observation interviews (immediate recall interviews) was to seek the teacher's further rationale about certain teaching decisions relevant to the research. That is, when vocabulary instructional activities were observed, during the recall interview the teacher in question was asked, for example why such activities

took place, why they were conducted that way, or why certain vocabulary items were explicitly focused on during a reading lesson. A sample transcription of recall interviews can be found in Appendix 4.

All the interviews were audio-recorded, given the teachers' consent. As part of the iterative process of data collection used in this study, I transcribed certain portions of the first set of interviews, whose brief initial content analyses set paths for the classroom observations. All recorded interviews were then transcribed in their entirety for analysis purposes. As far as the conduct of these interviews and the analysis of their data are concerned, it is important to be mindful of the effects interviews could have had on the data collected through this means and how the conduct of the interviews itself shaped the ways the teachers responded to questions. In this regard, I reminded myself of recent discussions of adopting a reflective approach to qualitative interviews in applied linguistics (e.g., Mann, 2011; Talmy, 2010), as well as in the field of social sciences itself (e.g., Brinkmann, 2013; Josselson, 2013). I take up these discussions later in sub-section 3.2.4.1, but next, I turn to discuss observations as they were used in this study as a means to generate data.

3.2.3.2 Observational Data

In the present study, systematic observations were deployed both in the classroom context and at the site, outside the classrooms. I describe these types of observation below.

Non-participant Classroom Observations

Another major source of data for the present study comes from classroom observations, which allow for the examination of teachers' actual teaching that occurred in their real, natural settings (Cowie, 2009). In LTC research, classroom observation "has a central role to play [...] by providing a concrete descriptive basis in relation to what teachers know, think and believe can be examined" (Borg, 2006, p. 231). In this study, for the practising teachers (novice and experienced), I observed them teaching in their actual classes as part of the regular university curriculum. In the case of the pre-services, on the other hand, their teaching was their practicum, a partial requirement for the fulfilment of their BEd in TEFL. Mindful of Borg's (2006b) discussion of the many dimensions and types of observations in LTC research, I considered my observations of the teachers to be

non-participant observation where I remained a passive observer taking notes of what I deemed important for my research purposes. This effort was based on the result of the pilot study which showed that the students tended to get distracted by my presence in the class (an issue I shortly discuss in detail). Besides, this mode of 'research-related' observation (Merriam, 2009) could effectively render me an outsider of the group under investigation (Creswell, 2013). Not only could it prevent me from unduly intruding into the teaching and learning process (e.g., Mackey & Gass, 2005), but it also put me in a position from which the image of teaching and learning could be more holistically obtained.

The classroom observations, however, were both structured and open (K. Richards, 2003; Creswell, 2007). As structured observations, they were conducted "consciously and systematically" (K. Richards, 2003, p. 115), based largely on the results of the analysis of the data obtained in the first interview, that is, with reference to the teachers' reported cognitions of teaching. For example, based on the interview data a teacher reported that vocabulary was best taught in context. To understand how such a notion was embodied in teaching, the observation focused on how exactly vocabulary items were presented and explained to the learners. In addition, the observations were also open and descriptive capturing instances as they occurred. By doing so, I was able to capture the interplay between teachers' (reported) cognitions and actual classroom practices.

Although efforts were made for me to be 'invisible' during the observations–for example by stating explicitly to and reassuring the students that my presence was purely research-oriented, and by sitting at a far-end corner of the classroom–there could have been effects from my presence and the use of the recording equipment that influenced the teacher's actions (Humphries, 2012), in other words the well-recognised 'observer's paradox' effect (Labov, 1972, p. 209). These effects were taken into account during the data analysis, but to minimise them, following Duff (2008), I began my first observations without audio-recording the teaching so that "the class [...] become accustomed to my presence" (p. 140). To further ensure that the conduct of the classrooms could be as representative as possible of a typical class, I sought the teacher's help to audio-record his/her teaching without my presence for the last observations. With the teacher's approval, all the observed lessons were audio-recorded. Consent was also sought from the students orally when I was first introduced to the class by their respective teachers. Revising Table 3.2 to focus only on the classroom observation portion, I present in Table 3.3 the

tally of observations and recorded lessons and the duration of each of the recorded lessons measured in approximate minutes and hours.

As indicated in Table 3.3, I was able not able to conduct classroom observations among the pre-services as many times as with the practising teachers. One obvious reason was that the pre-services were allocated only a few teaching sessions during their six-week practicum, between four and six sessions each.

Table 3.3 Number of classroom observations and/or recorded lessons

	PT01	**PT02**	**PT03**	**NT01**	**NT02**	**NT03**	**ET01**	**ET02**	**ET03**
OBS	2	1	1	6	6	3	0	4	7
RL	0	0	0	1	1	1	0	1	1
MINUTES **HOURS**	208' 3h	120' 2h	118' 2h	455' 8h	473' 9h	326' $5^{1/2}$h	NA	260' $4^{1/2}$h	428' 7h

OBS = Observations RL = Recorded lessons without observation

Besides, since the practicum itself was highly associated with the teachers' performance evaluation, I was mindful not to impose observations that might jeopardise their lessons. On top of that, their teaching timetables were overlapping, proving it difficult for me to observe as many times as possible. Nonetheless, considering the total number of teaching sessions of these pre-services, at least between 25% and 35% of the lessons were observed and recorded. In addition, each session lasted for approximately 120 minutes, during which time many instructional activities were observed. On the other hand, I was able to observe and record the practising teachers' lessons more because they were teaching their own classes and had more autonomy in terms of allowing an observer to be present during their lessons. However, compared to that of the pre-services, each lesson was shorter designed for approximately 90 minutes, but as can be seen in Table 3.3, lessons finished much earlier than that. The reason was that the practising teachers seemed to enjoy tremendous autonomy as to how they ran their individual classes not only in terms of teaching methodology but also the class running time.

Once again, all classroom observations and the recording of lessons were all subject to the teachers' consent and were purposefully determined based on the contents of such lessons. That is, for example, based on the course outlined obtained, I knew that certain lessons were more likely to focus on vocabulary or

related skills than others (e.g., grammar). I also avoided sessions which would predominantly focus on the administration of tests or quizzes. As Table 3.3 also shows, there was no record of ET01's classroom observations or recorded lessons. While I will continue to weave her other data into the analysis, it needs to be clarified that ET01 lost confidence in having me observe her lessons, despite her expressed consent and my reassurances that the observations were not for evaluation purposes. Following the observations, all recorded lessons were listened to and portions dealing specifically with vocabulary instructions were marked and transcribed for further analysis (as will be described further in sub-section 3.2.4).

Participant On-site Observations

In addition to classroom observations, during the field visits, I also conducted another form of observation, on-site observations. In contrast to my role during the classroom observation where I remained a passive observer, an 'outsider' of the group, my role in on-site observations was as a participant observer, for I also participated in such activities as departmental meetings and events (both academic and extra-curricular). This role allowed me to immerse myself in the broader context of teaching and learning–the institutional context. No audio-recording was performed during this kind of observations, but written notes (hence field notes and researcher's journals) were produced. Such notes concerned, for example, accounts of how the teachers met among their colleagues for academic and professional purposes on a regular basis, how such meetings were arranged, what communication structures were there between the teaching staff members, administrative personnel, managerial board and also the students themselves. As I was very familiar with this institution and was now also a participant observer, I considered myself an 'insider' of the group, or an inside observer (Yin, 2003, 2009). Insider perspectives gained from this experience were then used to assist in my interpretation of the teachers' actual teaching and what and how they said during the interviews about their work and workplace.

3.2.3.3 Documentation

Another source of data for this study comes from documents. They were those occurring naturally in the research environment, comprising textbooks, teachers' handouts and worksheet, lesson plans, course outlines and the institution's information book (in which the curriculum was laid out). The language used in all

these documents was English. Appendix 5 provides a sample of the types of records relevant to each of the participants. It also provides descriptions of the documents and the codes used for cross-referencing throughout this paper. Nonetheless, I provide in the following table a summary of the types of documents collected from each teacher.

Table 3.4 Types of documents collected

	PT01	PT02	PT03	NT01	NT02	NT03	ET01	ET02	ET03
TEACHER-MADE									
Lesson plans	Y	Y	Y	N	N	N	N	N	N
Handouts	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	NA	Y	N
Worksheets	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	NA	N	Y
Test/quiz papers	N	N	N	Y	Y	Y	NA	Y	Y
INSTITUTIONAL MATERIALS									
Textbooks	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
Teaching evaluation form (for practicum)	Y	Y	Y	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA
Course outlines	NA	NA	NA	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
Semester test papers	NA	NA	NA	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y

In addition to these materials, other publicly available texts such as the institution's information booklet and educational policy papers downloadable from the website of the Cambodian Ministry of Education were also collected and reviewed to provide background information and insights for the study.

The descriptions laid out in this sub-section indicate the volume of data generated and gathered for the present study. In the remainder of this chapter, I discuss the analysis of such data both from a theoretical (or epistemological) and practical perspective.

3.2.4 Data Analysis

This section describes how the data gathered were analysed, and how the analysis also took account of my roles in the processes of data collection, namely the

researcher reflexivity (sub-section 3.2.4.1), which included my non-participant and participant roles. It also discusses the analytic approach to data treatment (sub-section 3.2.4.2), followed by an illustrative example of data analysis procedures used in the study.

3.2.4.1 Process of Data Analysis and Researcher Reflexivity

The processes of data collection and analysis were essentially intertwined throughout the study, in a cyclical manner of meaning development (Borg, 1998; Chapelle & Duff, 2003; Freeman, 2009; Saldaña, 2009). That is, the interview data, at least in portion, were analysed to inform the classroom observations which later generated data that confirmed, disconfirmed, or allowed cross-checking of the interview data. The classroom observational data also shaped my focus on what to record in field notes which were in turn fed back into the interpretation of interview and classroom observational data. This process formed a triangulation of data gathering, capturing how the teacher participants made sense of their experiences and how such experiences were shaped by the sociocultural contexts in which they lived and worked. In effect, this cyclical process of data gathering and analysis helps increase the trustworthiness of the data and of the interpretations of the data thereafter (Hood, 2009). Data analysis itself was also iterative, in line with Saldaña (2009, p. 45), who argues that the process of analysing qualitative data is "cyclical rather than linear" in that the researcher compares "data to data, data to code, code to code, code to category, category to category, category back to data, etc.".

The process of data analysis mentioned here is closely related to my role as an interviewer, an observer and a researcher. Despite the epistemological stance I have explicitly taken to position myself in this research, it is still necessary to consider the issue of 'subjectivity' which Duff (2008) points out is a criticism made against case study or qualitative research generally. In this regard, I am mindful of my own subjective views that could lead to unnecessary biases, including also confirmation bias. To minimise this kind of bias, following Duff (2008, p. 56), I explicitly acknowledge my position in the study as a post-structuralist (or social constructionist) who does

> not see subjectivity as a major issue, as something that can or should be eliminated. Rather, [I] see it as an inevitable engagement with the world in

> which meanings and realities are [co-]constructed (not just discovered) and in which the researcher is very much present.

This position aligns well with the theoretical orientation I adopt in this study to investigate LTC and vocabulary instruction, a sociocultural theory that emphasises the dialectical relations between 'knowledge' and context. It is through such dialectical relations that knowledge, meaning, or reality are constructed or co-constructed. This issue of co-construction of meanings or realities, both during the interviews and observations, requires more in-depth consideration, and I discuss it below.

As mentioned, the issue of researcher reflexivity has been increasingly brought to the attention of applied linguistics researchers as well as those working in the social sciences more generally because, particularly for qualitative interviews such as the ones used in this study, the researcher also has a role in generating data. Discussing the role of interviews in applied linguistics research, Talmy (2010) argues that qualitative researchers need to make more explicit, or engage greater reflexivity, about what they consider interviews to be in their research: an interview as a research instrument in contrast to an interview as social practice. Talmy (2010) discusses these two perspectives in terms of the ontological and epistemological orientations researchers uphold in their research. As a research instrument, interviews are used to generate "participant 'reports' of objective or subjective reality, with a generally exclusive focus on 'content,' or the 'what' of the interview" (p. 136). Based on his review of a number of published articles in applied linguistics, Talmy (2010) found that researchers who adopt an interview-as-a-research-instrument perspective tend to 'decontextualise' participants' answers during the interview and ignore inclusion in the analysis process of how interviewers (or researchers) and the way they ask questions influence or shape what and how participants say in response. Without taking into account the role of the interviewer in analysing and interpreting the interview data, Talmy argues, the issues of 'power' (e.g., who controls the flow of the interview) and 'voice' (e.g., potentially conflicting participants' voices or stated beliefs) go unexamined.

A different perspective, however, considers research interviewing as a social practice. Talmy (2010) argues that with this perspective a wide range of controversial issues, or 'problems' as referred to by Roulston (2011), found in qualitative data analysis can be resolved. In his words (Talmy, 2010, pp. 139-140, emphasis original):

> Rather than direct reports, data are conceptualized as accounts of phenomena, jointly produced by interviewer and interviewee. Rather than a concern with researcher bias, there is a fundamentally reflexive orientation to the colloborative character of knowledge production and data generation. Rather than an exclusive focus on interview content, or the 'what' of the data, attention is directed both to the 'what' and 'how,' that is, the content and the linguistic and/or interactional resources used in coconstructing content and locally achieving the interview as speech event.

Talmy (2010) makes it clear, however, that the issue is not about choosing one of the two perspectives, but that there is a "need for heightened reflexivity about the interview methods", where the interviewer's roles are more explicitly acknowledged in the collection and the analysis of data. However, Roulston (2011) seems to consider the two orientations, among others such as postmodernist and decolonising approaches to interviewing, as incompatible. That is, if a researcher is oriented to a particular approach, for instance a neo-positivist view, he/she takes "an objective role as interviewer" and tends to consider interview participants' responses as "credible knowledge concerning the beliefs, perceptions, experiences and opinions of the authentic self of the interviewee" (Roulston, 2011, p. 79). Taking another angle, Mann (2011) discusses the issue of researcher reflexivity in terms of 'discursive dilemmas'—regarding the issues of co-construction of meaning, a greater focus on the interviewer (or interviewer contribution to the construction of interview data), the interactional context, and the 'what' and the 'how' of the conduct of the interview (pp. 9-11). In a similar vein, Josselson (2013, p. 9, emphasis original) argues that the "complexity of conducting an interview results from the necessity of the interviewer's paying attention to both the content and process of the interview at the same time". Thus, taking into account the interplay between interviewer and interviewee, and how it constitutes the co-construction of meanings and realities relevant to the research in question, highlights the role of research interviews as a social practice, as well as recognises them to be what Brinkmann (2013, p. 4) refers to as "a knowledge-producing social practice in itself".

The present study, however, adopts both views: interview as a research instrument and interview as a social practice (Talmy, 2010) because I believe that the two views are not necessarily contradictory; rather, they are reconcilable. I use interviewing as a means to generate teachers' views, or 'voices', about their work and about themselves. At the same time, I also view interviewing as a social

practice, whose products–(recorded) interviews–are forms of teachers' narration of their lived experiences and their (co-) constructed meanings of themselves and of their work. In this latter view, interview data are narrative (verbal) expressions or "stories" that "have emotional and psychological truth" (Josselson, 2013, p. 4). These two epistemological orientations towards research interviewing come with their implications, as well as assumptions, for the analysis and the representation of interview data in research. Although the general analytic approach adopted in this study is delineated in 3.2.4.2, I briefly describe below how the issue of co-construction of interview data emanating from the interview-as-social-practice perspective is accounted for in the analysis and in the representation of findings.

To address this issue, a number of analytic approaches have been suggested; they include discourse analysis, conversation analysis, discursive psychology and membership categorisation analysis (C. Baker, 2004; Mann, 2011; K. Richards, 2011b; Roulston, 2011, 2014). In this study I refer to the principles afforded by (critical) discourse analysis and/or conversation analysis (Fairclough, 1995; Wooffitt, 2005). Although I do not employ these analytic approaches in depth, for example transcribing the interviews in great detail to capture nuances in turn taking or across adjacency pairs (cf., Roulston, 2014), I am oriented to the choice of words as used by the teachers and by me during the interviews. For instance, at times during the interviews, I added such phrases as 'is that what you generally feel...' to follow-up questions seeking confirmatory and elaborative responses from the teachers. The use of such phrases was meant to refocus the teachers' attention to a broader context other than that which may be confined to the interview in question. Another analytical point I considered was how the teachers could liberally choose to talk about topics of their interest, thus dealing with the issue of 'power' in interviews. Teacher-initiated topics were generally found in the teachers' lengthy responses, as in the case of NT02 for instance, which moved away from the topic previously determined by the question I posed in the first place. Such topics were also found particularly at the end of each interview where each teacher was at the liberty to talk about anything they liked. For example, in the case of NT01, when asked if she had anything she wanted to talk further about or to add, she chose to tell me about an 'incident' (as she called it) of disruptive behaviour by one of her students. As the analysis of her data unfolded, a theme emerged around the notion of teacher-student relationships that led back to that particular incident as told by NT01 herself.

In terms of data representation, following Mann's (2011) suggestions, in addition to providing direct quotations from the teachers' interview accounts, the questions I posed are also made explicit in the data samples. Nevertheless, for stylistic reasons, most of my questions or contributions to the interview discourse, are embedded in the analysis itself, but sample transcripts of the interviews are available in Appendix 6 (and all of them can be made available upon request). These data analytic and representation procedures are woven into the broader analytic approach described next.

3.2.4.2 Analytical Approach

With respect to the present study's aim, I adopted an exploratory-interpretative approach to the analysis of the gathered data. This approach, or 'paradigm', has long been practised in the field of applied linguistics as an introspective method (Grotjahn, 1987; Nunan, 1992). It was exploratory in the sense that the analysis focused on discovering themes and patterns as they emerged in the interview data, classroom observational data, documents and my field notes–which reflected the participants' own views about their work and themselves. The analysis was also interpretative as I sought to understand the emic view of the phenomena in question (i.e., teachers' cognitions about vocabulary teaching). In effect, the participants' voices were retained throughout this thesis, but I also took into consideration how such voices were shaped during the interviews, as discussed above. This attribute of data analysis is a necessary one because, according to Duff (2008), most qualitative case study research is interpretative in nature.

The data analysis was grounded in data and began early in data collection–the initial process of which was 'coding'. Following Saldaña (2009, p. 15), what was coded were "slices of social life recorded in the data – participant activities, perceptions, and the tangible documents and artifacts produced by them. [My] own reflective data in the form of analytic memos [...] and [my] comments in field notes are also substantive material for coding". Coded data were as short as a phrase and as long as a paragraph that, within the contexts of their use, carried a complete, meaningful data unit and reflected the participants' thoughts, ideas, beliefs, and other cognitive attributes. For instance, the sentence "I love teaching English" was coded as the participant's "attitude towards teaching/teaching English" because the sentence was meaningful and was interpretable as the teacher's attitude towards teaching (English) (more examples below). This procedure of coding was

performed and repeated throughout all the data until saturation was reached at the thematic level (Hancock & Algozzine, 2006; Saldaña, 2009).

The themes ultimately identified from coded data were grounded in the data collected from various sources. While I stated above that the aim was to explore participants' sense-making of their lived experiences, the analysis of the data was performed with the focus on the research questions. The reason was to "keep fundamental research question(s) at the forefront of the investigative process" (Handcock & Algozzine, 2006, p. 57). The fundamental research questions asked in this study concern (1) exploring teachers' cognitions and vocabulary teaching among three groups of teachers (the pre-services, novices, and experienced) and how they differed, and (2) understanding these phenomena from a sociocultural perspective. The analysis was, therefore, performed first on the interview data to explore the teachers' reported cognitions and practices before it was conducted on classroom observational data, documents, and field notes in an iterative process (Tracy, 2013) in order to capture the complexity of teachers' cognitions and practices and to show how the sociocultural dimensions played out in relation to these phenomena.

To understand teachers' cognitions and practices from a sociocultural perspective, at a theoretical level I oriented the study to Vygotsky's social theory of mind (Vygotsky, 1978; Wertsch, 1991). At the analytic level, I employed the activity-action-operation framework and the activity systems analysis model (Leont'ev, 1978; Engeström, 1987/2015, 1999), whose key concepts were explained in Chapter 2, Section 2.4. At the activity level, I describe the context in which the investigated vocabulary instruction occurred. This description is provided in Chapter 4. The action and operation level analyses were represented together in separate chapters (5, 6 and 7) respectively for the pre-services, novices and experienced teachers. The activity systems analysis model was applied and is demonstrated in Chapter 8, which essentially brings the discussion of the investigated phenomena back to the collective activity level. As can be seen in these chapters, I report on each case using thick description (Duff, 2008; Merriam, 1988) so that the reader can "judge the trustworthiness of the reports and, where appropriate, relate the findings to his or her own context" (Barnard & Burns, 2012, p. 4). Because of the large amount of data amassed during the research, the data management software NVivo Version 10 was used to manage and store the majority of the collected data (except hard copies of the documents), and to code and link coded data to their origins,

following guidelines put forward by L. Richards (1999) and by Bazeley and Richards (2000). An illustration is provided below.

An Illustration of Analysis Procedures

To illustrate how the data of the present study were rigorously analysed using NVivo software, below I present the analysis procedures with examples. Using a constant comparison method emanating from Grounded Theory (Glaser & Strauss, 1967; Strauss, 1987), I first began reading the interview transcripts to initiate semantic and in vivo coding. While the former dealt with identifying segments or parts of data that could be interpreted as the participants' cognitions, thus using my own wording to name such a code, the latter retained the words used by the participants to name the code. An instance of in vivo code under a sub-category 'student pronunciation problems' was named 'common mistake' based on what PT03 (a pre-service teacher) said (Appendix 7 contains the transcription conventions used in this study). That is, she pointed out her students' suprasegmental errors as follows:

> It's a very common mistake [...] for example with the sound /ð/ as in 'that' they would go like /dat/ or for /ʃen/ they would go like /sen/ as in 'mention' (PT03-INT02@00:54:57).

This process of coding can be represented in Table 3.5.

Table 3.5 An example of in vivo coding

Sub-category	(in vivo) code	Instance
Student pronunciation problems	Common mistake	It's a very common mistake [...] for example with the sound /ð/ as in 'that' they would go like /dat/ or for /ʃen/ they would go like /sen/ as in 'mention'. (PT03-INT02@00:54:57)

Table 3.6 Examples of codes and their descriptions

Code name	Code description	Instance
Pronunciation drill	Teacher's beliefs about drilling pronunciation	"I just read out the words and let them repeat like a drilling technique, like several times." (PT03-INT02@00:53:52)

Role of L1 and translation	Teacher's beliefs about the role of L1 and use of word translation in teaching and learning vocabulary	"It's not bad to use L1 in the class sometimes […] The teacher can integrate L1 and L2" (PT03-INT01@00:18:52)

Each identified code was then described (hence, 'code description'). This code description could be modified when compared with closely related codes, to capture the complexity and interrelatedness of the coded data. For example, during an interview, the same pre-service teacher said: "I just read out the words and let them repeat like a drilling technique, like several times". This whole sentence was coded as her attitude towards drilling students' pronunciation. I labelled this code as pronunciation drill and described it as follows: teacher's beliefs about drilling pronunciation. Table 3.6 above visualises this procedure, that was also applied to the rest of the codes identified.

As the coding process continued for other data sources (i.e., classroom observations), coded data were constantly compared and their code names and descriptions checked and modified, where need be. Table 3.7 illustrates this point:

Table 3.7 Examples of modifications of code names and code descriptions

Code names	Code descriptions	Instances
Pronunciation drill	Teacher's <u>approach to</u> pronunciation drills	PT03: Ok. Alright. So let's just do some pronunciation work. Let's read the word together. Number 1: Value All SS: Value (PT03-Observation@00:43:08—00:43:17)
Role of L1 and Translation	Teacher's <u>approach to using L1 and translation</u> in teaching and learning vocabulary	PTO3: Number 1 – Values S1: (Khmer translation) PT03: Not yet (laughing). Principles or standards of behaviour. I'd just ask [name]. What is it in Khmer? Values? Do you have it in Khmer? S2: No PT03: Anyone knows it in Khmer? S3: [It's a] Noun, Teacher? PT03: No. You translate it in Khmer. S4: [ការវាយតម្លៃ] PT03: [ការវាយតម្លៃ]? [giving value/ assessing?] Value! Get it? All right! (PT03-Observation@00:28:28-00:28:59)

The code description of the code 'pronunciation drill' was modified, adding the phrase 'approach to using' so that now this description also reflected the observational data. The same case applied for the code 'role of L1 and translation'.

As the analysis went on, more related codes were identified, from which sub-categories and categories were arrived at. As regards the above example (Table 3.6), these related codes were Use of Dictionary, Use of Synonyms and Antonyms, Memorisation, Repeated Exposure (of learned lexical items), Teaching Parts of Speech, or Use of L1/Translation. From these codes emerged a sub-category 'vocabulary teaching strategies'. Table 3.8 below shows how categories or sub-categories were arrived at through the codes:

Table 3.8 Categories (C) and sub-categories (SC) arrived at from coded data

C	**SC**	**Codes**	**Instances**
Approaches to Teaching Vocabulary	Vocabulary teaching strategies	Pronunciation drill	(see above)
		Role of L1 and translation	(see above)
		Use of dictionary	The role of dictionary is just the uh it's just the guide that assist the students to find out the, the definition of the words. Some dictionaries might have the collocated words that this vocabulary might use with. Uh but in general it's not, the students might the students cannot only depend on the dictionary alone. <u>They have to also use it uh for, for example in their productive skills so that they can understand the word more.</u> (PT03-INT01@00:47:09)
		Use of synonyms and antonyms	The T also provides synonyms to words being taught e.g., accomplish = achieve (Observation Note_14/03/14) Yeah uh because providing them synonyms, opposites make them easy to remember, especially. The only goal in providing them these is to remember the words but if you know you put a sentence, a long sentence like this I think they will find it hard to remember it, yeah. For example, "discourage" the opposite is "encourage" so they will find it, you know, they will recall it easily. (Recall Interview_14/03/14)

		Memorisation	There's not much technique you know to tell the students to understand that phrasal verb because there're no rule or exact rule or exact uh (…) uh tips of studying phrasal verbs only if they can remember it by themselves. (PT03-INT02@00:32:01)
		Repeated exposure	They [students] will not be able to understand the definition right away, only if they read through the book, through the passage and saw this word again, they will remember it. They will understand it by themselves. (Recall Interview_14/04/14)
	Pre-teaching vocabulary	Pre-reading activity	Interviewer@01:49:58.37 Ok. And you designed it as a pre- [pre-teaching] yeah pre-teaching vocabulary. Why did you decide to pre-teach these vocabularies? PT03@01:50:10.82 Because I think that with my experience observing my co-trainee, other co-trainee I think that without pre-teaching them vocabulary they will spend their time, you know, checking vocabulary, you know, spend a lot of time trying to understand the vocabulary. So provide them first. (PT03-INT02)
		Pre-listening activity	And for the listening part I also pre-teach vocabulary as a head start for them uh (…) to help them with the listen. So when they you know could hear the (…) the new vocabulary they are able to make sense yeah of what they heard. (PT02-INT02@00:19:34)

To help readers appreciate the coding and categorising processes even further, I visualise such processes in a hierarchical structure that shows relationships between codes, sub-categories, categories and/or themes. I re-present part of the analysis presented in Table 3.5 above in Figure 3.1 below:

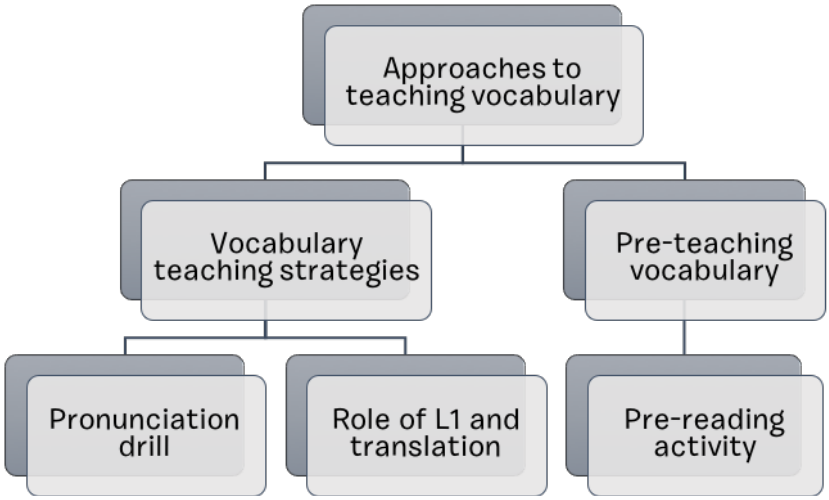

Figure 3.1 Hierarchical structure of thematic analysis

Even though what I have described here appears as a smooth process of data analysis, it was not the case. There were pieces of data that did not totally fit in or that did not align with my subjective interpretations, that proved to be a challenge to the analysis. A particular example is the coding of ASEAN Context, the role of English in ASEAN, a broader socio-political and socioeconomic context of the present study briefly mentioned in Chapter 1 (sub-section 1.2.3). From the CHAT perspective adopted in this study, this context can logically be considered a macro-sociocultural situation (or in the language of activity systems analysis, a culturally more advanced activity system) that shaped the activity of the participating teachers, particularly their vocabulary instruction. Nevertheless, from within the data, this ASEAN context appeared to shape only the teachers' specific cognitions about pronunciation instruction and their sense of their teacher identities, not necessarily their cognitions about vocabulary instruction. For this reason, the theme of ASEAN Context was interpreted as a sub-theme and discussed in relation to pronunciation and teacher identity. Should there be adequate evidence from the data to support that the ASEAN context was indeed the culturally more advanced activity system shaping the teachers' activity under investigation, this study would have been reported in a rather different way. This is to say that what is being reported in this thesis reflects what has been found about the teachers and their teaching.

Upon the completion of data analysis and after drawing interpretations on the data, an early draft of the report of the findings was written up. Each teacher was then contacted via email on 15 March 2016 to inquire about their availability to read through the report and confirm, suggest modifications or add comments to

it[9]. Only four teachers (one pre-service, one novice, and two experienced teachers) replied agreeing to read the report. The teachers were given four weeks to read it through and comment on it, if any, but they were also told that they could have more time if needed. Within four weeks' time, three of them (one pre-service, one novice and one experienced teacher) sent back the report. No comments were given by the pre-service and the experienced teacher, but the novice sent in the report with his comments for clarifications along with some additions in a form of further explanations to what he had said during his interviews. The final report produced in this thesis has incorporated this teacher's comments.

3.2.5 Research Ethical Considerations

A final point to make regarding the present study's research design deals with research ethical considerations. Ethical aspects of research were seriously considered and enacted throughout the process of conducting this research. At the very beginning, before the commencement of actual data collection, this research project obtained ethics approval from the Human Research Ethics Advisory Panel B (Arts, Humanities & Law) of the University of New South Wales, on 17 May 2013 (Reference No. 13 002) (attached in Appendix 9). Included in Appendix 10, moreover, is a support letter from the research site. Following Creswell (2013), ethical considerations were taken into account in all phases of the research process, which included seeking approval from concerned institutions (mentioned above), obtaining consent from participants without 'deceiving' them by disclosing the study purpose (also in Appendix 10), and using pseudonyms in the report to cloak the identities of the participants and the research sites concerned in respect of their privacy. As a result, these considerations further contribute to the quality of the research and heighten the moral responsibility of the researcher.

3.3 SUMMARY

This chapter has outlined the research methodology adopted in this study which set out to investigate LTC and vocabulary instruction among a group of Cambodian NNES teachers in a higher educational context in Cambodia. I have argued that, by design, this study is situated within the qualitative research paradigm, embracing an interpretive 'world view', employing a case study research approach, and using well established qualitative data collection strategies such as interviews,

[9] Appendix 8 attaches a generic email I sent to all the teachers seeking their availability to read through the report for member checking purposes.

observations and documentation. This chapter has also discussed the key issues surrounding qualitative interviewing and the implications such issues yield for the analysis of the data. Descriptions of the cases involved, how they were selected, how data were collected and how analytic approaches were enacted were also provided.

Next, in Chapter 4, I lay out the descriptions of the broader sociocultural context of the present study before I move to describe the institutional context in which this research took place. The descriptions found in that chapter constitute a level of analysis—the activity (setting) analysis. In the subsequent chapters, I move on to report on the analyses at two other levels—the action-operation analyses within a CHAT framework—regarding the individual groups of teachers. That is, Chapters 5, 6, and 7 respectively describe the analyses related to the pre-services, novices, and experienced teachers. Then, Chapter 8 shows how the activity systems analysis model was used to map the teachers' participation in their communities of practice (situated ELT), feeding back to the activity-level analysis described in Chapter 4 (see Figure 2.3 in Chapter 2 for the visual representation of the model). Further discussion of the findings is laid out in Chapter 9, followed by the concluding chapter that examines the implications and limitations of the study and the avenues it suggests for future research.

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4 | THE ACTIVITY SETTINGS

The purpose of this chapter is two-fold: to briefly describe the sociocultural context of Cambodian ELT as a field (Section 4.1) and to provide an analytical description of the 'activity' of English language teaching in the setting where the study took place (Section 4.2). However, before providing these descriptions, I lay out briefly below a broader socio-historical account of the Cambodian situation.

The overarching context of this study is the South-East Asian country of Cambodia. With a current population of about 15 million people, Cambodia has a long, and often bitter, history[10]. Notable historical events were war, invasion and internal conflict, whose residual effects can still be traced in contemporary Cambodia. The country's education sector, for instance, continues to grapple with the effects of its troubled history. Although attempts have been made to reform this important field across the county, many factors have been identified as challenges (Chansopheak, 2009; Chhinh & Dy, 2009). In the higher education sector, Chet (2009, p. 164) stresses quality issues as one such challenge. As he puts it:

> [the quality] issue is found in underdevelopment of quality assurance systems and the low quality of many programs that allow students to undertake multiple full-time degrees. At the national level, HEIs [higher education institutions] produce more graduates than the economy can absorb and graduate skills are often not matched to the needs of the country.

Part of this quality issue is related to the status of English language education in the country, especially when English has for the last few decades become the most needed 'foreign' language for the country's socio-economic and socio-political development. As T. Clayton (2006) shows Cambodia has chosen English over other foreign languages for "development opportunities" (T. Clayton, 2002, p. 7). Given the country's increasing roles in major international organisations such as the United Nations, the World Trade Organisation, the World Health Organisation, and ASEAN, Cambodians at all levels tend to feel that it is necessary for them to be able to use English for international communication. As a result, the role of English as well as

[10] Becker (1998); Conboy and Bowra (1989); Tully (2005); Vickery (1984) are works that expand on this history.

ELT as a field in Cambodia receives attention from all stakeholders. Especially, in Cambodia's immediate multicultural, socio-political contexts such as ASEAN where English is increasingly viewed as a lingua franca (Kirkpatrick, 2010; Stroupe & Kimura, 2015), there is a pressing need for research that shows what implications are generated from the emerging status of the English language. A recent survey of Cambodians' English skills for the ASEAN economic community (AEC), reported in a local English newspaper (Holman, 2015), shows that much is needed to improve the quality of Cambodian ELT. In particular, the report noted that Cambodians need more advanced English language skills for the potentially competitive job markets among ASEAN labour forces.

In relation to this study, it is important to set challenges to the current development of this field in Cambodia in the broader context of the establishment of the practice of Cambodian ELT. Thus, in Section 4.1, I outline the sociocultural context of Cambodian ELT by briefly discussing the spread of English and other foreign languages in the country, the teaching and learning of English in the state system, and English language teacher education in Cambodia. In the second part of this chapter, Section 4.2, I describe the setting in which the present investigation took place.

4.1 THE SOCIOCULTURAL CONTEXT OF CAMBODIAN ELT

Although it is not within the scope of this chapter to provide comprehensive descriptions of the (sociocultural) development of Cambodian ELT, in this section I aim to depict a landscape of this field, which in turn functions as background information for the present investigation.

4.1.1 English and Other Foreign Languages in Cambodia

The national and official language of Cambodian people is known as Khmer or Cambodian, which is part of the Austroasiatic family of languages, with most of its archaic words being borrowed from Pali and Sanskrit (Thong, 1985). The French language was first introduced to the country in 1863 when the French began to colonise the country and formed a Protectorate, as it is known, in Cambodia until 1953. During this period and thereafter, instead of Khmer, French was used as a medium of instruction, and was "the language of written legislation, decrees and proclamations, the means of intra-government and inter-government written communication, and the tongue of commercial documents, advertising and banking" (Thong, 1985, p. 111).

The initial popularity of English among the majority of Cambodians began between 1970 and 1975 during which time Cambodia "was more open to the West" (Thong, 1985, p. 113). The presence of the language in Cambodia, however, can be observed from the 1960s (S. Clayton, 2008) but the use of English, including the learning and teaching of the language and of other foreign languages (such as Chinese, Korean, Japanese, and Vietnamese), was banned during the (civil) war periods, notably during the Khmer Rouge period between 1975 and 1979 (T. Clayton, 2002). According to T. Clayton (2002, 2006), in the 1990s, eventually English was brought back to the country when it opened its doors to free markets and international relations with English speaking countries in the region and around the world. At that time, English was used mainly for business and work communication and formal dialogues with fellow members of international organisations such as those mentioned above.

Besides English and French, the other foreign languages noted above can also be identified but they have never been part of the country's educational system. While the exact figures of those who speak these other languages are not easily obtained, according to the WORLD FACTBOOK of the Central Intelligence Agency, the 2008 estimate shows that 96.3% of the population speak Khmer, with almost 4% of the population using these other languages in their daily communication. It is notable also that, at present, in addition to the increasingly popular learning of Chinese in the country, Japanese and Korean language programs are also available at various language centres and institutions, and are being offered up to degree levels. However, English remains the most popular foreign language among Cambodian people given its current status in the region as a lingua franca (Kirkpatrick, 2010; Stroupe & Kimura, 2015), and as a global language around the world (Crystal, 2003). English, therefore, continues to be learnt and taught both in the Cambodian state system and in private classes. In the following section, I focus on English language teaching and learning in Cambodia.

4.1.2 The Teaching and Learning of English in Cambodia

English is one of the two required foreign languages (the other being French) to be taught to Cambodian school students from Grades 7 to 12 (S. Clayton, 2008; MOEYS, 2004) and in the near future from Grade 4 onwards (Tweed & Som, 2015). According to S. Clayton (2008, p. 158), it was a pragmatic decision to foreground English since, "English and ELT were closely articulated with the 'reconstruction and

development' of Cambodia through the operations of a range of external agencies", while the teaching of French is for historical reasons.

For Grades 7-10, students who choose English as their compulsory foreign language subject take four lessons (with each lasting for approximately 50 minutes) per week while Grades 11-12 students study English for four hours per week, a slight increase in the learning hours. In addition to the English lessons they receive at state schools, most students, especially those who can afford it (S. Clayton, 2008), take further English private lessons that are available virtually in all major areas across the country. With respect to English teaching methodology at secondary schools, theoretically, teachers are supposed to adopt a student-centred, integrated-skills learning approach (Kam, 2002) using the English for Cambodia book series as the main textbooks. However, from my practical experience of teaching 7th and 10th graders in the academic year 2002-2003, the teaching and learning of English in this context was generally compromised by the limited resources available to teachers to effectively implement the intended approach, although the situation since then might have changed. In effect, teachers in secondary school contexts tend to use traditional approaches, such as the grammar-translation method, creating a situation Kam (2002, p. 19) refers to as the "traditional vs modern dilemma".

For tertiary level, English is no longer a compulsory subject, but it has instead become the medium of instruction for many courses of degree and non-degree programs. English majors in undergraduate programs, for example BEd in TEFL and BA in English, are offered by most universities in the country, indicating that English is still in high demand among Cambodian learners. In this regard, in my study conducted in 2006 exploring the motivation of a group of university students in pursuing English majors, I found that English was learnt for its pragmatic rewards, some of which were prospective well-paid jobs, opportunities to work with international non-government organisations (NGOs) and companies, and opportunities to travel and study abroad (Lim, 2012). These findings support T. Clayton's (2006) analysis, showing the pragmatic reasons for the learning of English in this context.

Thus, it needs to be pointed out that although EFL is an official label recognised by the Cambodian Ministry of Education, Youth and Sport (hereafter, MOEYS), a shift in public opinion regarding the status of English in the country, as well as in the region, seems to be under way. For instance, the teachers in Moore and Bounchan's (2010) study viewed English as an international language (EIL) or

English as a second language (ESL), which the authors saw as a somewhat surprising finding. The notion of EIL was also reported in Boun (2014), who studied a group of local and foreign-trained Cambodian lecturers of English, as a commonly held view about the local and regional status of English. In a similar vein, premised in the context of ASEAN, I also challenged the received status of the term EFL for contemporary Cambodian ELT, arguing instead the notion of English as a lingua franca (ELF) (Lim, 2016). This brief discussion of the status of English in Cambodia suggests that there is inconsistency between the views of policy makers and those of practitioners, which need to be addressed to respond to the current development of Cambodian ELT as a field.

4.1.3 English Language Teacher Education in Cambodia

Cambodian ELT has also been characterised by the practice of its teacher education being linked closely to international aid programs. That is, both at the secondary and tertiary levels, Cambodian ELT has been largely influenced by external 'actors' through international agencies and organisations (T. Clayton, 2002; Duggan, 1997), supported by the British and Australian governments, and more recently by the US government (Tweed & Som, 2015). For instance, some key British initiatives that contributed to the development of Cambodian ELT included the Cambodian-British Centre for Teacher Education (1992-1994), English Language Courses for Ministries' Staff (1993-1997), and Cambodia Secondary English Teaching (CAMSET) Projects (1994-2001). A notable Australian project concluded in 1997 that helped promote the teaching and learning of English in the country was the Quaker Service Australia's Cambodian English Language Training (CELT) program. This CELT program brought along a number of expatriate teachers to help teach English to Cambodian students and train Cambodian teachers to teach English (Kam, 2002) so that they could take over and run ELT programs by themselves (Suos & Chan, 2002). To compare these major initiatives, while the CELT program dealt with ELT across a general landscape of university contexts, the CAMSET project focused more on promoting ELT and training Cambodian teachers of English for the secondary school level (particularly for Grades 7-9). A series of textbooks called English for Cambodia (Books 1-6, published consecutively to be used for Grades 7–12, respectively) were developed by this project. However, a new series of textbooks to be used for the secondary school context is currently being developed and will replace this series (Tweed & Som, 2015). These aid programs have contributed significantly to the education of Cambodian teachers to teach English in secondary school contexts.

However, there are noticeable differences in how teachers are trained and accredited to teach English in lower and higher secondary schools. I outline these differences below.

To be eligible to teach English at lower secondary school (Grades 7-9), teachers must have successfully completed a two-year Certificate of English Pedagogy, as it is known. The program is run by the Phnom Penh Regional Teacher Training Centre (PP-RTTC), under the guidance of MOEYS. PP-RTTC is one of six such centres across the country that train secondary school teachers across a number of subject areas (such as Mathematics, Physics, and Chemistry). However, PP-RTTC is the only centre that offers the training of teachers of English over a period of two years, with a practicum component. During the first year of the program, enrolled pre-service teachers (usually fresh high school graduates) take such courses as English Grammar, Language Assessment, Language Methodology, and Lesson Planning. The English for Cambodia series (Books 1-3) is used as the main textbook for this program. That is, pre-services learn to develop lesson plans based on the units in this textbook. According to Kam (2002, citing Suon, 1990), there is an increasing emphasis on student-centred approaches to the teaching and learning of English, and this observation matches my personal experience as a pre-service teacher in this program and later as a teacher trainer in this context. This emphasis, thus, moves away from the more traditional grammar-translation approach. Nonetheless, as mentioned, how these teachers-to-be realise a student-centred approach is highly subject to the conditions of their work in state schools.

On the other hand, to be eligible to teach English at the upper secondary school level (Grades 10-12), teachers have to possess at least a Bachelor's Degree preferably in TEFL or TESOL obtained from a university or higher education institution recognised by MOEYS. Previously, only one university in the country offered such a degree program (which at the time was administered by the Quaker Australia Service mentioned earlier). At present, however, many private HEIs offer similar programs. Those who complete from such a program can then apply for a permanent teaching position in a state secondary school across the country. It is also worth noting, however, that while it may not be a common practice elsewhere, a graduate with a BEd in TEFL can also teach university courses in Cambodia (as in the case of most of the participating teachers in this study). This hiring practice reflects the current situation in the Cambodian education sector, particularly in the ELT field, but at the same time it may constitute a dissonance between what a teacher learns from his/her training program and what he/she needs to do in the

actual teaching context, for example facing institutional expectations different from what they anticipated during their training (cf., Moore, 2008).

When comparing the training programs of Cambodian English teachers for the lower secondary school level with those for the higher level, two notable observations can be made. First, because the PP-RTTC is the only institution that provides an accredited certificate program that qualifies Cambodian teachers to teach English to 7th-9th graders, the curriculum of the program is uniform whereas the curriculum of a BEd in TEFL/TESOL varies from one educational provider to another. HEIs enjoy autonomy in developing their own teaching curriculum as allowed under the auspicious of MOEYS, which suggests that teachers at higher secondary schools have diverse training backgrounds on which they draw in actual practice. Second, as noted, in the case that a BEd in TEFL graduate who is trained to teach in a secondary school context is instead employed to teach in a university context, questions arise regarding how relevant his/her knowledge gained from the training program is to the working context. This potential problem has significant implications for how Cambodian teachers of English can be more effectively prepared to teach.

Before turning to the particular context of the present study, a final point to make relates to a specific opportunity that has been initiated for the education of Cambodian teachers of English. The CamTESOL Conference Series, held annually in the country, was introduced in 2005 and is managed by the Australian Government's International Development Program (IDP) for Education (Cambodia). According to its official webpage[11], this event "has now become the premier professional development conference in the Asia Pacific region with an average audience of 1,700 attending annually (over 600 of whom are international participants from over 30 countries)". One of its main aims, the webpage further reads, is to "strengthen and broaden the network of English language teachers and all those involved in the ELT sector in Cambodia and the region" (last updated in 2015). The establishment of this conference series, therefore, aims to create a platform for Cambodian teachers of English to participate in a wider professional discourse. However, most Cambodian ELT practitioners rely on both local and international sponsorship or their employers' financial support to partake in this professional development opportunity. Seen from the CHAT perspective adopted in this study, this professional development opportunity functions as a social

[11] More information about this conference series can be found at http://www.camtesol.org

situation of development for Cambodian teachers of English. In this regard, it may be insightful to find out from the participants in this study how relevant this situation is to their work.

The first part of this chapter briefly describes the overarching sociocultural context of Cambodian ELT that is relevant for the present investigation. In the next part of this chapter, I move on to describe the specific context in which the investigation took place.

4.2 THE INSTITUTIONAL SETTING

Discussion of the institutional context of the present study in itself reflects a level of analysis of the ELT activity setting where the participants practised their teaching. The present study involved nine Cambodian teachers of English. Three cases of novices and three cases of experienced teachers who were teaching English in courses related to the BEd in TEFL or BA in English for Work Skills (BA in English) are referred to as the in-services. The other three cases were enrolled in a BEd in TEFL and at the time of this study were conducting a practicum. These teachers are referred to as the pre-services. The programs that the in-services taught and that the pre-services were enrolled in were all administered by the Department of English (DoE) at a university in Phnom Penh (hereafter, Dream University). In this section, I provide the situational context of these teachers. First, sub-section 4.2.1 describes the nature of the setting relevant to the in-services including a brief history of the DoE and the structure of the program they taught, in order to provide a broader understanding about this context. Second, in sub-section 4.2.2, I lay out an analytical description of the practicum and its setting in which the pre-services were situated.

4.2.1 The Situational Context of the In-services

The situation of the in-services can be understood from brief historical descriptions of the background of the DoE, the structure of the courses these in-services were teaching, and key social and administrative structures of the teachers' work. I describe them below.

4.2.1.1 A Brief History of the DoE

According to Suos and Chan (2002), the DoE was only established in 1996 and was one of the language departments that had the biggest student intake. At the time of this study, as described in its information booklet for the academic year

2012-2013, over 3000 students were enrolled in its programs across the four year levels. One of the first bachelor's program offered by DoE was the BEd in TEFL. This program was initially supported by the CELT project in terms of both finance and human resources. An intake of only about sixty students was permitted at the time.

Given financial difficulties, after the CELT project ended in 1997, a fee-paying program was introduced. This program was the BA in English. It was designed to "develop students' or trainees' professional skills in English for work skills. It consists of four core subjects, two electives, and a project. The core subjects include: Communication Skills, Intercultural Skills, Customer Service, and Introductory Research Methods" (Suos & Chan, 2002, p. 80). To date, not only has the DoE admitted bigger student intakes each year, but it has also offered more BA degree programs, for example, in English for Professional Communication, Translation and Interpreting, English for International Business, and English for Hospitality and Tourism. More recently, the department has also offered a master's program majoring in teaching English, formally known as the MA in TESOL. The increased number of student enrolments and the expansion of programs reflect the development of the DoE as well as the Dream University itself, and with this development comes a more complex social structure in the workplace, as will be seen in Chapter 8 from the perspectives of the teachers in this study. What follows, however, is a description of the structure of the program in which the pre-services were training to become teachers and the in-services practised their work.

4.2.1.2 The Structure of the BEd in TEFL Program

A description of the structure of the BEd in TEFL program provides an understanding of how the CHAT concept of division of labour is realised and organised. All the undergraduate programs mentioned above last for four years. Quite uniquely, the students do not choose their major (for example, BEd in TEFL or BA in English for Professional Communication) when they first enrol in the program. As a normal practice, they choose the major only when they have been successfully promoted to the fourth year. In effect, for the first three years of their program, all enrolled students take identical language and content subjects as described below.

All Year 1 students are referred to as the Foundation Year students. As regulated directly by the MOEYS, this structure applies to all bachelor degree programs offered in all registered Cambodian HEIs. During this first year, the students take the following courses: Introduction to Sociology, Khmer and Regional History, Introduction to Environment, Khmer Grammar, Demographic and Economic

Geography, General and Applied Mathematics, and Khmer Civilization. However, recognising that the BEd in TEFL is an intensive language program for prospective teachers of English, the DoE managed to include two language-based courses in this foundation year curriculum. They are Core English and Writing Studies. While the former aims to promote students' language skills (in the areas of speaking, listening, reading, writing, vocabulary and grammar), the latter focuses even more intensively on enhancing students' academic writing abilities.

The curricula of Years 2, 3 and 4 are managed by individual HEIs although they also need to be approved by the MOEYS. In the present context, Year 2 students take such academic subjects as Core English (CE), Writing Skills (WS), Literature Studies (LS), and Global Studies (GS) while Year 3 students take all these subjects with an additional subject called Introduction to Research Methods. This new subject "is intended to provide students with essential research concepts and designs and to help them conduct basic research mainly in the fields of [applied] linguistics, education, and business in their final year" (Student Information Booklet, 2013, p. 7). It is worth noting that the promotion of research capacity among undergraduates, in part, is to accommodate the objective of the Ministry's Policy on Research Development in the Education Sector (MOEYS, 2010). Essentially, this inclusion of a research component reflects how ministerial policies feed into the university's curricula of bachelor's degree programs in a top-down approach to curriculum development. At the same time, however, the inclusion of the research component also reflects how practitioners, in this case institutional managers, appropriate cultural artefacts (i.e., ministerial curriculum policies) in shaping their activity of delivering ELT programs.

During the final year, after selecting their major, the students take more specialised courses intended to enhance their skills and expertise in their respective subject-matter. However, only courses relevant to the teachers in the present study are described here. As stated in the information booklet available publicly at the time of the study, the three core courses for the BEd in TEFL were: (1) Teaching Methodology (TM) including such contents as classroom management, lesson planning and delivery, syllabus and materials design, and language testing and assessment; (2) Applied Linguistics (AL) comprising theoretical and linguistic knowledge purported to support the TM course. The AL course dealt with theories of language and language learning, an overview of language teaching methods, English phonetics and phonology, discourse analysis, semantics, syntax and pragmatics; and (3) Foundation of Education (FE) which "deals with the philosophies

and aims of education in general, and focuses on theories of social and cognitive development" (Student Information Booklet, 2013, p. 8). At the institutional level, these sets of information functioned as curriculum policies for the teachers. As will be seen in Chapters 5, 6, and 7, the analysis that was performed also reflects the interconnections between these policies and how teachers, particularly the in-services, perceived them in relation to their work. By comparing the curriculum documents with the teachers' perceptions, I was able to illuminate how the former mediated the latter as well as how the teachers appropriated these cultural artefacts.

Apart from taking these three core subjects, the BEd in TEFL students had to conduct a six-week practicum theoretically designed to allow them to put their learnt knowledge into practice, which reflected a 'transmissive' educational view. In other words, there seemed to be an assumption that the pre-services would use what they had learnt from the BEd in TEFL and apply it into their practicum teaching. More practically, however, the practicum aimed to allow pre-services to gain first-hand experience of teaching English in actual classrooms. From year to year, the site of this practicum varied. Sometimes, it was conducted at state secondary schools, among 10th to 12th graders, and at other times at the DoE itself, among the foundation year students. For the last few years, however, it had been conducted with non-English major students from various departments of Dream University. This latter situation applied to the pre-services who participated in this study, which I describe further in sub-section 4.2.2. In the following section, however, I continue to describe the situation of the in-services by focusing on their professional work structures and an evaluation scheme implemented to assist the teachers in their professional development.

4.2.1.3 The In-services' Work Structures

The description of work structures reflects how, within a community of practice, work is organised and distributed among the members of such a community. The in-services' work structures were reflected through various forms of collaboration or communication that occurred, but three forms were identified as key social situations for the in-services to do their work. The first form of communication was realised in terms of relatively formal meetings among teachers who co-taught the same academic course. Led by a teacher referred to as the subject co-ordinator, these 'subject technical' meetings (as they were known) provided a platform for teachers to discuss the structure and contents of the course, for example,

allocating the amount of time for a particular lesson and assessment policies including tests, quizzes and written and/or spoken assignments, for a period of an academic semester. However, as will be seen in Chapters 7 and 8, the in-services reported that it was not a normal practice that they discussed in such meetings how individual teachers went about teaching their own class. This means that subject technical meetings were generally designed to address the technicality of course administration, and not teaching procedures or strategies.

The second form of communication was embodied in meetings between teachers and the DoE management team members. This type of meeting, known as 'staff meeting', reflected a collective endeavour of these Cambodian ELT practitioners to work towards the object of the activity of teaching English. Compared to the 'subject technical meeting' which realised the professional collaborations among teachers, this staff meeting realised an institutional aspect of a collective activity. Held monthly, the staff meeting was organised by the DoE director but was chaired by a teacher assigned on a monthly duty roster. Moreover, one other teacher was also assigned the role of a note taker, producing the meeting minutes that would be approved by the director and subsequently distributed to all concerned teaching and non-teaching staff members. Depending on the meeting agenda, administrative personnel were also present in this kind of meeting, in which a variety of issues were discussed, including for example teachers' concerns about their students' decreasing level of English proficiency, students' behaviour and discipline issues, and inadequacy of teaching equipment (for instance, CD players unusable for listening sessions). The department's concerns, for example about teachers spending too much time on marking and returning students' works, were also typical items on the meeting agenda.

The third form of communication in the context of these in-services was enacted in the DoE's 'annual staff meeting' as it was formally called. As its name suggests, this type of meeting was held annually, and administrative personnel were also involved. These annual meetings generally dealt with policy and strategic discussions that aimed to address institutional concerns such as refining its vision and mission. Seen from a CHAT perspective, these three forms of communication in the context of the in-services constituted certain situations of (cognitive) development for the teachers, for instance how they could work collectively to achieve the teaching goals that ultimately allowed them to obtain the object of their activity system.

Before moving on to describe the situational context of the pre-services, there is one final point to make regarding the context of the in-services: an evaluation scheme. In the institutional context of the in-services, there was a mechanism in place designed for students to 'evaluate' their respective teachers' teaching performance. Administered systematically at the end of each academic semester, the students completed the evaluation form within thirty minutes. The evaluation form was designed as a five-point rating scale with additional writing spaces for students to elaborate their answers. The following domains were emphasised in this evaluation: teacher knowledge (e.g., is the teacher knowledgeable about the subject he/she is teaching?), teaching materials (e.g., does the teacher provide supplementary materials to assist in the students' learning of the course?), and teaching approach (e.g., is the teacher's explanation clear?). The students' ratings were converted into scores and tallied. Along with any written comments, these scores were sent to the intended teachers. Although it was proclaimed at the formal staff meetings that the results of this evaluation would not be used as part of the teacher appraisal schemes, how teachers perceived the evaluation itself remained to be seen. While the three types of meetings described above reflected professional and institutional communication structures, this student evaluation scheme added to the complexities of the social situations of the in-services' works.

4.2.2 The Situational Context of the Pre-services

The description laid out in the preceding section is to a certain extent also relevant to the pre-services, particularly the structure of the BEd in TEFL. The pre-services were at the time of this study enrolled in the AL, TM and FE courses. What is described here, furthermore, is the situational context of the practicum they went through and how they constructed the communication structure itself during the practicum.

4.2.2.1 Teaching Practicum

The teaching practicum was an important experience according to the pre-services in this study. Those enrolled in the BEd in TEFL undergo a six-week practicum. The pre-services in this study took their practicum at the university where they were completing their teacher preparation program, but their practicum students, as briefly noted, were non-English majors, who were at the time enrolled in such programs as mathematics, chemistry, physics and psychology. The English courses

these students were taking were managed by a special department of the university, other than the DoE itself. They were designed to enhance non-English major students' English proficiency to assist them in their undergraduate education.

In this context, all pre-services who underwent the practicum were engaged only in teaching the classes they were assigned to teach. That is, they were not required, as much as they were not allowed, to participate in any administrative issues at the department that hosted the practicum. In this sense, their practicum setting was not bound by the (institutional) practice of that department. Consequently, the 'setting' of the practicum was essentially socially constructed by the pre-services themselves, particularly through communication with their respective practicum mentors and supervisors. Although the nature of this communication will be discussed more extensively in Chapter 8, it is worth noting here how such communication was established for the pre-services. This discussion will set up the backdrop for the discussion in Chapter 5, which reports the analysis of these teachers' data.

Prior to the commencement of the practicum, all pre-service teachers attended a one-week workshop organised by the DoE, aiming to orient them to the concept of classroom teaching. The contents of this workshop included managing the classroom, planning lessons and writing up lesson plans, building teacher-student relationships (for example, whether or not it was appropriate to address students by their names), using 'effective' instructional language (including also the choice of language, between English and Khmer to explain language points), asking appropriate questions, teaching/teacher manners (for example, where the teacher should stand in the class when explaining a language point), and dress codes. The workshop sessions were handled by a group of lecturers who would later act as the practicum supervisors.

As pointed out, at the time of this study the (social) structure of the practicum was realised by how the pre-services communicated with their respective practicum mentors and supervisors. Such communication occurred mainly during the practicum period, where the pre-services sought comments and feedback from their mentors and supervisors regarding all aspects of their teaching. Generally, the pre-services consulted their respective mentors and supervisors on separate occasions, and mentors and supervisors did not normally discuss their practicum students together either. This kind of communication essentially created a triadic relationship between the pre-services, practicum

mentors and supervisors during the practicum period. Nonetheless, the three parties met on two occasions, once before the practicum and another after the practicum, to discuss general practicum issues and 'negotiate', if necessary, the practicum evaluation scores for their mutual practicum students. Through the triadic communication structure, social relations between the pre-services, their mentors and supervisors were created and constructed as a 'setting' (Lave, 1988; Smagorinsky, 2010) of the activity in question. In other words, it was through this communicative structure that the pre-services interpreted, made sense of and navigated their way into the practicum activity and considered how they would embody the teaching of English.

4.3 SUMMARY

This chapter outlines two areas of focus. On the one hand, it has described the context of the study as constituted through various sociocultural situations, which create the background for Cambodian ELT as a field. On the other hand, the chapter has laid out what can be referred to as the 'activity setting' of the teaching of English during the practicum for the pre-services and at the DoE for the in-services. Teaching English at the settings described here is seen from the CHAT perspective adopted in this study as an 'activity system' that "produces actions and is realised by means [i.e., operations] of actions" (Daniels, 2008, p. 120). In the next three chapters, the analysis of such actions and operations is reported for the pre-services, novices and experienced teachers, respectively in Chapter 5, Chapter 6 and Chapter 7.

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5 | THE PRE-SERVICE TEACHERS

As may be recalled, the 'activity-action-operation' framework is adopted in this study, and the activity setting described in the preceding chapter provides a backdrop for the actions and operations described in this chapter for the pre-services and in Chapters 6 and 7, respectively, for the novices and the experienced teachers. The analysis laid out in this chapter reflects the 'action' and 'operation' levels of analysis. I based the analysis on the data of the three pre-service teachers (PT01, PT02 and PT03), who were enrolled in BEd in TEFL, who were in their final year, and who were undertaking their teaching practicum at the time their data were collected. In reporting their data, I refer to the teacher's individual gender. The analysis was based on four major data sources: (1) interviews including the first and second interviews and recall interviews, (2) teaching observations, (3) written records including teaching materials such as lesson notes, lesson plans, lesson handouts and worksheets, ready-made textbooks, and the teacher's teaching journal written as part of their teaching practicum, and (4) the researcher's field notes.

All interviews and teaching observations were audio-recorded. While the interviews were transcribed in full, only relevant parts of the teaching observations that specifically dealt with vocabulary instruction were transcribed. A note on the language of the interviews was made in Chapter 3, but it is worth repeating that the teachers were given options to choose if they preferred to speak in Khmer or in English. All of them opted for English as the language of all the interviews. Nonetheless, Khmer was occasionally used when the teachers discussed the use of translation as part of their teaching approaches. Besides, the teachers also used English as the medium of their instruction, at least during the session I observed, with occasional use of Khmer language to help in explaining certain lesson points.

The analysis revealed three major themes relating to the ontogenesis of the individual teachers. These themes were organised in terms of teacher backgrounds in which the history of their English learning was also included, the teachers' reported approaches to vocabulary instruction, and the teachers' actual approaches to vocabulary instruction.

5.1 TEACHERS' SOCIOCULTURAL BACKGROUNDS

In teacher cognition research, the background information of a teacher is a crucial part of the bigger picture. The literature indicates that the teacher's background is one of the legitimate sources of his/her cognitions (Barahona, 2014; Grossman, Smagorinsky, & Valencia, 1999; Lortie, 1975). From a sociocultural perspective (whose literature review is provided in Chapter 2, Section 2.4), background information indicates a cultural-historical characterisation of the phenomenon under study. In the present investigation, this information was collected from the first interviews during which all the three pre-services were asked to recall their past English learning experiences and their personal information. It provided a historical development of the teachers' conceptualisation of English language learning and teaching generally and of vocabulary instruction more specifically. I report the analysis of this aspect of the teachers' background in sub-section 5.1.1. In sub-section 5.1.2, I move on to the analysis of the teachers' sense of identity as an (English) teacher as narrated in their interview accounts.

5.1.1 History of Learning English and Motivation to Become a Teacher

At the time of this study, all the teachers were in their early twenties. As young graduates-to-be, who of all possibilities chose teaching English as their prospective future career, it became clear that these teachers had begun learning English since they were very young. Each teacher's story of English learning was unique in its own way, with some similarities and differences across their individual circumstances. PT01 started by recalling that he began learning English when he was about 10 years old.

> Excerpt 5.1
>
> At that time, I requested my mother to send me to [English] school but she refused. She said [I had to] wait until I joined high school (...) Then I turned to my brother and (...) he helped me persuade my mother (...) He paid for my study. I studied at uh AAA School. Yes. It was just a small school at that time. And I started for around, maybe until I finished high school, yes (...) maybe until I finished Grade 11. At that time, I needed to prepare for the state examinations at Grade 12, and my mother wanted me to stop studying English for one year but then I persuaded her I'd [take] the preparation course I talked about earlier. Yes. So I took [it for] one year. I studied to prepare for the state examinations and

English [bridging course for BEd in TEFL] at the same time (PT01-INT01@00:03:55)[12].

As can be seen in Excerpt 5.1, the decision to start learning English was initiated by PT01 himself, even despite his mother's disapproval in the first place, reflecting his intrinsic motivation to learn the language. PT01 said he was very much influenced by his older siblings who were able to converse in English, a fact he greatly envied. With strong determination to learn the language, PT01 passed the entrance examination to the BEd in TEFL program.

PT02 had a similar story. Her mother was at first sceptical that she was ready to learn English at a young age, no matter how she insisted. Her story goes as follows:

Excerpt 5.2

When I was really young my mom said that I was not ready to study English yet so she decided to put me in a small school (...) it was an organisation, they called themselves an organisation (...) I learnt there for like several years. And then I changed to BBB School [where I learnt English] (...) And after a few years I uh I changed my school [again]. I attended CCC School and I had been studying there since until I finished English for Academic Purposes and then I just came here, Dream University (PT02-INT01@00:03:40).

Like PT01 and PT02, PT03 was also keen to begin her English class as early as possible. She thought it was "my nature. I just love English since I was young" (PT03-INT01@00:01:53). PT03 appeared to have a vivid memory of her past English learning experience.

Excerpt 5.3

I: Alright. You said you are interested in English since you were young. And I take it that you began your study I mean English study even before you came to [Dream] university. Could you also tell me that history of learning English?

PT03: Oh it's actually quite a long history. I started learning English since I was I think 4 or 3 and a half years old at my uh at a school near my house. It's not that famous school (laughs) (...) Then I uh (...) [when] I was like I think six or probably 7 or 8 years old, I went to the Philippines for one year and study English there because English is a

[12] Appendix 7 provides Interview and Transcription Conventions used in this study.

> second language there. So I had to study. I had to follow my dad [who] worked there. Ah huh. And when I came back I joined uh EEE School. [...] And then I went to uh FFF School uh I was in Grade 7 but then I quit. I went to GGG School. I was in Grade 8. I studied for a year. I quit [again] (laughing harder). And then I went to CCC School and I finished level 12 there (...) When I was in Grade 11, I quit English classes for like a year so that I could prepare [for high school examinations]. And after that I came to Dream University (PT03-INT01@00:02:53).

The three teachers' motivation to learn English could be said to be highly intrinsic, reflected through their strong determination and insistence to learn the language. All of them had experience learning with Cambodian teachers of English at various educational institutions, but PT02 and PT03, who had similar English learning trajectories, also experienced learning with native English speaker (NES) teachers. PT02, for instance, said that "at CCC School [where PT03 also studied] I studied with native speakers mostly teachers coming from Australia" (PT02-INT01@00:08:44). Both of them moved from one English language school to another, seeking for what they thought a better learning environment. In addition, PT03 also experienced learning English with non-Cambodian, non-native English speaker (NNES) teachers, particularly Filipino teachers of English, who appeared to have a profound influence on her conception of being a NNES teacher herself.

Thus, all the three teachers had several years of learning English, before they began their teacher preparation program at Dream University. Over these periods they experienced different learning and teaching methodologies[13], ranging from grammar-translation to communicative language teaching, and from teacher-centred to student-centred approaches to teaching and learning. The teachers described various characteristics of these methodologies, with overlaps among them, that they could remember experiencing at different learning institutions including also Dream University, where the teachers were taking their BEd in TEFL program. Table 5.1 summarises these descriptions that were coded using in-vivo terminology.

[13] The term "methodologies" is in-vivo coding, as used by the participants themselves who at times appeared to use this term interchangeably with "techniques", "procedures" and/or "approaches".

Table 5.1 Characteristics of different "methodologies" as experienced by the teachers when learning English as a foreign language

	Grammar-Translation	Teacher-Centred Learning	Student-Centred Learning	Communicative Language Teaching
PT01	Exam-oriented	Individual work Minimal pair work Teacher presentation	Independent learning Using dictionaries to learn word-meaning Guessing word meaning (from reading)	Communication-based learning Learning vocabulary in context Productive vocabulary learning
PT02	Rote-learning Translation (words & word list) into Khmer Listen & Repeat Phonetic symbols reading Focusing on grammar & vocabulary	Teacher-oriented Spoon-feeding vocabulary	Fostering autonomous learning Student taking control of learning vocabulary Independent self-study Pair work Teacher providing guidance, assistance, facilitation	Comprehension-based Focusing on listening & speaking Authentic texts Learning vocabulary in context
PT03		Individual learning Teacher as knowledge provider Student as knowledge receiver	Pair & Group learning	Meaning negotiation among peers

Embedded into their accounts of methodological characteristics were their vocabulary learning experiences. They reported different vocabulary instructional methods as they moved from low to high level English classes. The teachers' voices are illustrated in Excerpts 5.4, 5.5 and 5.6. As these excerpts show, the teachers

shared a common learning experience: teacher-centred learning was common among low level classes, and as the students progressed to a higher level, the student-centred learning approach was adopted. Coincidentally, as the teachers moved to a different college, it also meant they would be enrolled in higher English classes. For instance, PT01 recalled learning vocabulary by matching words and their definitions, "the common method" for low English proficient learners. As his English advanced, learning vocabulary was induced from context and learning vocabulary meant using vocabulary in communications–Excerpt 5.4.

> Excerpt 5.4
>
> Teachers [at low level classes] give us tables with words and definitions and we can do dictionary work by ourselves to match. Yes. That was the common method that they used [...] Vocabulary was only learnt to do exercise, mostly yes. It was not a communicative=communication oriented (...) At Dream University we had a lot. Since we were in adult class mostly teachers used context to help us learn vocabulary. We learnt to guess words from contexts (...) and we needed to use the word to=in our conversation, what we call the lexical phrase, fixed phrase that helped us improve our fluency. So the vocabulary mainly came in uh phrases, not just in individual words. They came in context at Dream University. (...) The special thing was that we needed to use those words in the conversation practice later, unlike [when] I was at AAA School, we only needed to understand the definitions and we went back home. That was called a success. Yeah (PT01-INT01@00:06:48–00:09:15).

PT02 recalled similar learning experiences. As she moved from a low level to high level class, PT02 found vocabulary was taught differently. Like PT01, at the low level PT02 learnt vocabulary mainly by way of word-meaning matching, along with Khmer translations and listen-and-repeat pronunciation drills. For the latter, PT02 also recalled learning and reading phonetic symbols to improve pronunciation. PT02 pointed out that at a higher level her teachers did not provide vocabulary lists anymore; it was the students who decided which words were difficult for them that needed focusing attention to.

> Excerpt 5.5
>
> I think that the techniques at CCC School are more like autonomy like we are allowed to explore things on our own and teachers just act as a guidance, an assistance, a facilitator, somebody [who] helps us, just guide or give us the way.

> Along the path we have to figure out things by ourselves and he/she is willing to help when we get stuck. But for the methodology at BBB School or at the organisation is more like teacher-oriented. So teachers were like spoon-feeding us vocabulary and we=I feel like the boundary of learning is really limited to knowledge that the teacher provides us. [...] Hmm I feel like more of a rote learning. They [the teachers] actually=they would select the words that they think we do not know and then they would put them on the board and they would write hmm translations in Khmer next to them. When I was in lower level they would also write a translation and then the teacher would uh, uh share (?) the words with the pronunciation and we would repeat. And I was young so I don't know, I did not know. I just repeated after him or her. And then when (...) I started from scratch again [taking an English class of the same level again], the [new] teacher kinda took a different measure. They even added the phonetic symbol after it and at that time I actually learnt the phonetic symbol so they add phonetic symbol (...) it was just like a dictionary English-Khmer dictionary. So they took out the difficult, the words that they think are difficult and put them on the board, and then we just copied them and we repeated after them (...) [At CCC School], the teacher just provides a piece of text and if the students do not understand any word, we can just raise our hand and ask the teacher (...) At Dream University it is also autonomous. We have to be very independent because we are at the university level already. Hmm so it's either us to learn it or not, but the words will appear in the test. And we also learn vocabulary from the reading text [as] teachers would like extract some difficult words from the text that he or she think would help us understand the text better, and they would like [include] them in an exercise like matching or filling in the gap [type of exercise]. With these exercises we are able to explore the meaning of the words, not only its actual meaning, its direct meaning but also the meaning of the word in the context as well (PT02-INT01@00:06:18–00:14:40).

Based on her accounts in Extract 5.5, PT02 seemed to assume that university students were proficient English learners who needed to study autonomously, and who would decide for themselves which vocabulary items they needed to learn. This assumption, as is shown later in Section 5.2, appeared to influence her beliefs about vocabulary instruction. Also suggested in Extract 5.5, vocabulary was also learnt for tests.

Unlike PT01 and PT02, however, PT03 could not recall much about how she learnt vocabulary specifically. What she could recall was that prior to her English study at Dream University, learning was textbook-oriented focusing on grammar and vocabulary. At the university, as she remembered, it was more content-based.

> Excerpt 5.6
> Actually at Dream University from Year 1 to Year 3 it was completely different from, from what I have learnt previously because hmm back then I learnt English you know it's just=I learnt from the book, the course book, the grammar, vocab and stuff. But when I came [to] Dream University there was different you know different subjects that I can learn English such as Environments, Sociology as I remember. So I think that it's quite a different experience for me to study [English] (PT03-INT01@00:05:35).

It was clear at this point that these pre-services experienced different approaches to learning English. During their interviews, the teachers were also asked to explain why they decided to enrol in the teacher training program or why they intended to become a teacher of English. Like what they said about learning English as a language, these teachers believed that their motivational orientation to becoming a teacher of English was deeply intrinsic, more of their inner call. PT01, for instance, stressed "I love teaching. I love education. I love to share what I know. I think it's the best way when we know something we need to share it with other people" (PT01-INT01@00:03:05). PT02 described her deep love of the English language as follows: "I don't know. I just have this spark in English (...) It feels like I was born into English" (PT02-INT01@00:01:03). Likewise, PT03 said "It's I think it's my nature. I just love English since I was young" (PT02-INT01@00:01:53).

Like PT01, knowledge sharing was part of the reasons why PT02 wanted to become a teacher: "it was my uh it [has been] my dream since I was young to become a teacher. I like teaching and sharing knowledge," in addition to her family influence. "Besides, you can say that it's my family trait. The majority of the members in my family are teachers, even my in-laws" (PT02-INT01@00:00:42). Particularly for PT03, her goal to become a teacher of English was shaped by her learning experience at Dream University, where she took her BEd in TEFL. She stated that

> actually when I was in high school I didn't plan to be a teacher. I just loved any career that is related to English but (...) when I uh came to Dream University

(...) I just realise that I become I mean more interested in English teaching (PT03-INT02@00:01:53).

From their interviews, it appeared that all the three teachers were highly motivated in learning and teaching English and they themselves made the decisions to engage in these social activities. This suggested that they were self-conscious of their decisions. This motivation continued to influence how these pre-services viewed themselves as a teacher or as a teacher of English more specifically, a view that reflected their identities.

5.1.2 The Pre-service Teachers' Identities

The analysis of the teachers' interview accounts revealed two aspects of their teacher identities: teacher roles and goals in teaching English. I present these aspects in turn.

5.1.2.1 Teacher Roles

The teachers were asked to spell out their view of what it meant to be a teacher. Their answers reflected their roles of being a teacher, thus constituting their teacher identities. A number of roles the teachers viewed in the process of teaching and learning were identified as follows: a teacher being a facilitator, a leader, a monitor, a motivator, and/or a role model. The roles assigned by at least two teachers were being a monitor and a motivator. PT01 and PT03 reported that they aimed to undertake these roles during their practicum. For PT01, "I also play a role in shaping their (students') motivation, in making them not just learn but to love to learn" (PT01-INT02@00:30:15). As for PT03, "I motivate them to be brave and to [have] confidence in themselves" (PT03-INT02@00:12:00).

For PT01 and PT03, monitoring was also an important role of being a teacher. PT01 discussed this particular role not only for himself but also in reference to his fellow teacher trainees whose teaching he observed. He expressed his thoughts about this role through written records in his practicum journal, reproduced below verbatim. Excerpt 5.7 reflects his beliefs about monitoring, as PT01 recalled what he failed to do and what he should have done to manage his students' learning more effectively.

Excerpt 5.7

Another challenge was during group work. The students were reluctant to use English in the discussions, and they were passive—not participating in group-

> work. I should have monitored each group carefully to make sure they were really working in groups (PT01-Journal_Entry02@L19-22).

In Excerpt 5.8, PT01 wrote more about what he thought the teacher he observed should have done to make teaching and learning a better experience.

> Excerpt 5.8
>
> The teacher [I observed] did not walk around to monitor the progress of each group's discussion. That could be the breeding ground for the passiveness of each group (PT01-Journal_Entry05@L27-29).
>
> There were some problems about seat arrangement. The seats were not arranged in a neat order; instead the students in each group sat all over the place, and the teacher could hardly walk around to monitor each group (PT01-Journal_Entry07@L33-35).
>
> However, during group work, the teacher did not walk around to monitor the discussion. This was a mistake since the teacher did not make sure that the students were doing the right things (PT01-Journal_Entry08@L27-29).

Through his reflection of himself and others, PT01 created an image of being an effective teacher—a monitor. For PT03, monitoring was also an important role a teacher such as herself needed to fulfil to ease classroom management and to teach more effectively. Excerpt 5.9 taken from her second interview data provides her reflection on this issue:

> Excerpt 5.9
>
> Another thing that I learnt [from the practicum] is that um (..) like monitoring them and helping them to learn (PT03-INT02@00:09:28).
>
> Yeah because if they worked individually I think that I might not be able to monitor each and everyone of them (...) The first one is the chair arrangement, so I will=I'm not able to go you know (...) to monitor individually. And I think working in groups allows them to you know work together at least talk with one another like comparing answers and so on. And I can monitor each group yeah more easily. Yeah (PT03-INT02@00:12:41).

PT03 also believed that a good teacher needed to be a good leader, a characteristic she believed related closely to good conduct of teaching and classroom

management. When asked what teacher qualities she wished to acquire, she referred to "the leadership role because we start to lead the group discussion" (PT03-INT01@00:07:19).

The other teacher roles (being a facilitator and a role model) were referred to by PT02. That PT02 thought a teacher should be a facilitator in the student's learning process appeared to have been influenced by her previous learning experience at CCC School. Excerpt 5.10 below extracted from her first and second interviews contains PT02's reflection on her past learning experiences:

> Excerpt 5.10
>
> I think that the techniques at CCC School are more like autonomy like we are allowed to explore things on our own and [the] teacher just acts as a guidance, an assistance, somebody [being] a facilitator, somebody helps us, just guide or give us the way. Along the path we have to figure out things by ourselves and he/she is willing to help when we get stuck (PT02-INT01@00:11:16).
>
> Um (...) I want (...) I want it [my teaching] to be like=um I want the students to explore, to explore the vocab. I want them to uh (...) to like browse through and see how much they understood. And then discuss about what they do not understand and try to make sense of it. And me on the other hand is a facilitator like when they cannot understand that we are the one who give them the hints in order to find it (PT02-INT02@00:22:10).

Reflecting on her positive learning experience, PT02 constructed a present role for herself being a "facilitator" ready to give support to her students. Being a role model was also an important teacher quality for PT02. Recognising the fact that she, as an NNES teacher with limited vocabulary knowledge, needed to provide accurate language input to her students, PT02 believed that it was her responsibility to be a language role model. She discussed this quality specifically in relation to teaching vocabulary and pronunciation, as shown in Excerpt 5.11.

> Excerpt 5.11
>
> I would say I need to prepare a lot because um (...) I have to know what that word means and how to use [it] because English words, some of them are very tricky. They can have a lot of meaning. I have to make sure that I get the right meaning for the right context that I am going to teach them. Uh (...) and besides I have to make sure uh (...) the=I have to be clear about the part of speech as well as the pronunciations because in the class I would be their role model and

if I pronounce something incorrect then they'll follow me, I think they would be like incorrect (PT02-INT02@00:30:07).

The teachers' narrated accounts showed that they associated their teacher identity with different teacher roles such as being a motivator, monitor, role model, facilitator, and leader. These self-assigned teacher roles reflected their cognitions about being a teacher and teaching and appeared to have been shaped by (the dialogue between) their past learning and current teaching experiences. Another aspect of their teacher identities was reflected through their talks about the goal in teaching English.

5.1.2.2 Goals in Teaching English

This theme was arrived at from the analysis of the teachers' interviews during which I asked them to describe their goals in teaching English. This question directed the teachers' thinking towards the purpose of their teaching itself. Within CHAT frameworks, this question aimed to identify the object of an activity, but also the action(s) realising such an activity. In responding to this question, these teachers invoked three conventional metaphors of teaching and teaching language: teaching is knowledge sharing, teaching is knowledge transmission, and teaching is teaching to communicate. About knowledge sharing, PT01 and PT02 pointed out this aspect in relation to their motivation to become a teacher. In discussing his teaching goal, PT01 elaborated it further by differentiating between the goals of teaching for young and adult learners, with the teaching of the former group involving more than sharing knowledge.

Excerpt 5.12

I think to me teaching means uh it depends on my learners. For example, for adults the thing is it means sharing knowledge. The teacher just shares what the teacher knows to the students. And for me I encourage my students to question. Maybe they don't have to accept everything I tell them. They can question and we can discuss together. So mostly teaching to me is the sharing of knowledge from one generation to the next. But for younger people I think teaching also involves uh behaviour and attitude, yes, we need to focus on the behaviour and attitude as well. It's not [like teaching] adults. Adults, they want knowledge. They know how to behave yes and for adolescents [young learners, that is], culture is also part of the teaching (PT01-INT01@00:18:44).

Being sensitive to the teaching contexts such as teaching young learners versus teaching adult learners indicated an aspect of PT01's pedagogical knowledge. For PT02, on the other hand, teaching appeared to involve dialogical, social activities during which teachers and students shared knowledge with one another. More interestingly, PT02 defined teaching as knowledge sharing within its immediate cultural contexts.

> Excerpt 5.13
>
> Hmm to me I felt like=I always thought like teaching means sharing my knowledge to new people and at the same time getting new knowledge from them because I felt like I do not know everything and I also think not everyone knows everything. And sometimes the students may know something that you don't so you can always learn something from them. And I also feel that teaching means getting to know new people uh everyday (...) uh that's how I see teaching (PT02-INT01@00:29:06).
>
> Um (...) I think teaching English for me uh (...) is about sharing the knowledge that you have with the students giving them what you know. And make sure that they are able to take in [...] it seems like uh we [as] non-native English teachers who are trying=who have the knowledge of English [...] um (chuckles) are trying to share what we know to the students. And we do it in our you know like own way, own context rather than imitating um yeah the native English teacher (PT02-INT02@00:40:59–00:42:36).

Excerpt 5.13 shows, first of all, PT02's conception about teaching being a platform for mutual knowledge sharing (between the teacher and students). It also indicates that PT02 saw teaching as a learning activity. Moreover, as shown in the last portion of the excerpt, PT02 seemed to be sensitive to the teaching contexts, for she pointed out the widely perceived differences between NNES and NES teachers' teaching methods.

For PT02 and PT03, teaching also meant transmitting knowledge to the students. In preparing her lesson to teach, PT02 thought of the amount of information she needed to "transfer" to her students making sure that it would not be overloading, which she acknowledged as one of the major challenges she faced during her teaching practicum. Besides, she was particularly doubtful about the way she explained to her students, fearing that the input would not be "delivered" to her students.

Excerpt 5.14

We have to use the uh the right method in order to teach them and they also suggested me to make sure about the amount of information or knowledge that I will transfer to them because they can be [an] overload. And that's not good (PT02-INT01@00:34:05).

And um (...) the other thing=uh (...) the other challenge would be uh (...) how I transmit the information towards the students. Uh it seems like [the] way I convey the message is somehow not straight forward. That's what I think. It's hard to explain but as I was talking and listening to myself at the same time I just felt like it did not hit the point. I did not hit the point yet until sometimes (explaining again and again) yeah until I kinda stop and pause a little bit and try to make sense of what I'm going to talk about, yeah then I could deliver it to them (PT02-INT02@00:31:10).

It was crystal clear, for PT02, that teaching meant knowledge transmission, indicated by her use of such terms as “transmit”, “transfer” and “deliver.” For PT03, likewise, one of the goals in teaching was knowledge transmission, but under certain conditions. She stated that “my second goal is to like transmit some of my knowledge to my students” (PT03-INT02@00:11:31). Knowledge transmission, for PT03, was more appropriate for low level learners, and for higher level learners teaching meant giving students “agency” for them to be independent learners. She expressed this thought in the following excerpt:

Excerpt 5.15

[...] To me uh teaching, it means that it gives uh you know freedom to students to make their own decision because as I know some people may define teaching as the transmission of knowledge from teachers to students. I think it’s, it's appropriate in the lower grade but at this higher level at the university level it's, it's about giving some agency to the students to make decision on their own and learn to be dependent on themselves (PT03-INT01@00:07:56).

Like PT01 and PT02, PT03 also seemed to be sensitive to the teaching contexts (i.e., teaching low versus high proficient learners).

Teach to communicate was also PT01 and PT02’s intended goal of teaching English. PT01’s conception of teaching to communicate, for instance, was reflected in his comments as he recalled his former teachers’ ways of teaching vocabulary,

partly reported in Section 5.1 above where he recalled vocabulary learning experience. To him, vocabulary should be taught in a way that could foster communication. Excerpt 5.16 below, extracted from both his first and second interviews, indicates how communication-focused teaching would equip PT01 with the ability to use the language in verbal communication.

> Excerpt 5.16
>
> [...] that's why I [was able to] practice my speaking only when I attended Dream University [where he believed English teaching and learning was communication-oriented]. Before that, mostly I learnt the exam skills, yes, to compete (PT01-INT01@00:07:24).
>
> The thing is, for example, every teacher has their own teaching philosophy and if the institution sets a particular task for them to do, maybe what the institution expects is far from the teachers expect and it's a little bit hard for the teachers. For example, I say for me, for my class I uh focus more on communication (PT01-INT01@00:22:39).
>
> I think in the end I=from my perspective I only focus on (...) productions. So let's say vocabulary I wanted the students not only to understand the word but to be able to use it. So at the end I always wanted to challenge them to produce sentences or to write using the new vocabulary. So the ultimate goal is that they could communicate using what we use in the class and they could at least learn something from the session. Yeah (PT01-INT02@00:17:53).

PT01's critical retrospections (of both his past learning and current practicum teaching experiences) illuminate his present conception about teaching to communicate. Bolstering the student's ability to communicate was also central to PT02's goal of teaching. In discussing student pronunciation, during her first and second interviews, PT02 stated as follows:

> Excerpt 5.17
>
> I think the idea of teaching English is not to get the perfect English but in order to help the students to have the comprehension, to be able to communicate and use the language in different contexts. It is not about having the accent of the native speakers. It is not about to know everything about the language (PT02-INT01@00:41:50).

> By not getting the perfect English I mean that there can be flaw in your speaking or writing. [...] The goal is to help students communicate and as long as they can understand each other or they can understand other people talking I think that the goal of learning English is achieved (PT02-INT02@01:18:07).

Teaching pronunciation is itself an emerging theme for this pre-service teacher case and will be discussed more thoroughly in subsequent sections in this chapter. Illustrated in Excerpt 5.17, however, was how PT02's attitude towards her students' pronunciation was shaped by her teaching conception, that is to teach to communicate.

On the basis of their interviews, the analysis showed that the teaching goals of these teachers were to share knowledge with, transmit knowledge to their students, and assist them to communicate using English, which altogether constituted the activity of teaching English. Teaching vocabulary was viewed as a means to achieving these goals. These accounts were told when the teachers were preparing themselves to conduct actual teaching in the classroom (i.e., the practicum). During their first interviews, the teachers were also asked to talk about their beliefs and views about teaching and learning vocabulary more specifically–their mental actions about vocabulary instruction, that is. As they were virtually inexperienced in formal settings, however, they found it difficult to spell out their beliefs about teaching. As a result, some of the questions asked during the first interviews were put to them again during the second interviews conducted after they finished their practicum. In the section that follows, I report on these teachers' cognitions (or mental actions) about vocabulary instruction based on the two in-depth interviews and a number of collected written records (including the teachers' lesson plans, materials and practicum journals).

5.2 THE TEACHERS' REPORTED APPROACHES TO VOCABULARY INSTRUCTION

A number of constructs of LTC are discussed in Chapter 2 (Section 2.1). To reiterate, a number of major concepts that form the construct of teacher cognition adopted in this study include (but are not limited to) teacher belief, thought, knowledge, attitude, anxiety, emotion, view, conception, perspective, identity, affection, and theory. The approach to exploring LTC, as mentioned, is bottom-up and open-ended, meaning that it is grounded in what the teachers told about their experiences. Certain constructs that emerged from the analysis, thus, form as a

network of LTC. From CHAT perspectives, such a network is referred to as conceptual tools that mediate teachers' physical actions. In this regard, the teachers' accounts about vocabulary instruction are seen to shape how the teachers would do in their classroom in terms of teaching vocabulary. Moreover, teacher cognitions are seen as originating from the social activities in which the individual participates. Within the present study's scope, these social activities include the teachers' individual learning histories and current teaching experiences –the practicum teaching in the case of the pre-services. In effect, in the analysis of the pre-service teachers' cognitions, I also examined how, when expressing their views, the teachers related them to their previous learning and current teaching experiences. I based my analysis on the interview data and link the findings to relevant data sources (such as written records) where applicable. The analysis revealed two interrelated themes that reflect the teachers' reported approaches to vocabulary instruction: (1) vocabulary instruction as a goal-directed (mental) action and (2) their perceived best approaches to vocabulary instruction. I present these themes below.

5.2.1 Vocabulary Instruction as a Goal-directed (Mental) Action

Evidence of the teachers' mental actions were reflected through their verbal expressions. As the teachers discussed what vocabulary instruction meant to them, their conceptions about vocabulary instruction as a goal-directed action realising the activity of English language teaching were illuminated. In making sense of vocabulary instruction, the teachers spelled out their conceptions about what teaching vocabulary meant to them and how important it was for them to teach vocabulary during their class time. As shown in Excerpt 5.18 extracted from his first interview, PT01 viewed teaching vocabulary as a means to improving his students' general English ability. He conceptualised the importance of vocabulary knowledge as a repertoire of expression upon which his students could draw in communication. He believed also that, as vocabulary items were attached to cultural knowledge, teaching vocabulary entailed teaching culture.

> Excerpt 5.18
>
> So teaching vocabulary means to me to improve my students' general English ability because later on they will need it. So the more words they have the more capable they are in expressing themselves because some words come with culture also, so when they learn the words they don't just learn the

> meaning because words have denotation and connotation so the students can benefit a lot from vocabulary, yes. So basically it means to make them improve their general ability (PT01-INT01@00:47:17).

PT01's awareness of the richness of vocabulary (knowledge) demonstrated his own knowledge about the subject-matter and about pedagogy. On the other hand, PT03 defined teaching vocabulary as a "tool" to support other language skills such as listening, writing, speaking and reading. She put it as follows:

> Excerpt 5.19
>
> Teaching vocabulary (...) means to me that teaching vocabulary is not about you know giving the words and explain the words to them (the students), but teaching vocabulary is that it is [a] tool for the students to enhance their knowledge when it comes to listening skills, when it comes to the writing skills, the four macro skills basically. So uh (...) teaching vocabulary basically is uh is uh the tool in order to enhance their macro skills in general (PT03-INT01@00:28:44).

Illustrated in the above excerpt is PT03's conceptualisation of vocabulary teaching being interrelated with the four language skills. More specifically, her conception of vocabulary as a tool "to enhance" language skills suggested that vocabulary should be pre-taught before language skills. (This issue will be discussed more thoroughly in Section 5.3 where the analysis of actual teaching was made.)

Similarly, PT02 described teaching vocabulary as a "head start", by which she meant the basic requirement for her students to be able to use language to communicate verbally or in writing. As can be seen in the following excerpt extracted from her first interview, PT02 viewed that vocabulary should be taught to support her students' learning process.

> Excerpt 5.20
>
> Teaching vocabulary hmm (...) I think teaching vocabulary means you've been giving a head start for students hmm because uh because I think that vocabulary is a=like basic, basic=uh let's say uh it's like uh head start because in terms of communication you need words to communicate either verbal=either written or spoken. Everything has to start with words or vocab. So yeah so I think teaching vocabulary means providing the head start first to students in terms of learning and communication (PT02-INT01@00:54:40).

Like PT03, PT02's belief about vocabulary teaching as a "head start" entailed teaching vocabulary prior to language skills.

As the teachers, through their verbal accounts during the interviews, tried to make sense of what vocabulary teaching meant to them, they foregrounded their perceptions about teaching vocabulary. This foregrounding perception could be referred to what Galperin (1989, cited in Feryok (2012)) calls orienting theory or orienting activity, stipulating that when individuals anticipate future events they orient their thought to social activities. Not only does this concept of mental orientation contribute to understanding the relationship between teachers' thoughts and actions, it also helps explain how thoughts originate from the social environments.

In defining teaching vocabulary, the teachers also pointed out how important it was for them to teach vocabulary during their class time. The analysis of their interviews revealed that they held positive attitudes towards teaching vocabulary in their ELT syllabus. More importantly, they believed that vocabulary should not be taught through stand-alone learning activities; it should instead be integrated with language skills such as reading, listening, speaking, and/or writing—as well as grammar—a sub-theme presented in sub-section 5.2.3.

In PT01's view, vocabulary and grammar were equally important and he believed that his students needed to have knowledge of both to perform language skills effectively. What concerned PT01, however, was his students' attitudes toward learning the two language aspects, for he observed that his students "feel bored" about learning these two "important" areas. Excerpt 5.21 shows PT01's attitude toward vocabulary learning and teaching.

> Excerpt 5.21
>
> I think the most important are the two: vocabulary and grammar because these two are present in reading. Even reading, even though the students can understand all the words sometimes they don't understand the grammar so they don't understand the connection from sentence to sentence and if they understand grammar and they don't understand the content words it's also difficult for them. And in speaking also. So the language skills are influenced by the two: grammar and vocabulary. And the challenge is the two are important but to teach the two make the students feel bored. That is our challenge. That the two are the, that important things seem to be neglected by the students (PT01-INT01@00:45:58).

As can also be observed in Excerpt 5.21, PT01 also attributed the importance of vocabulary (instruction) to its relationship with language skills (especially reading and speaking) in the sense that students' knowledge of vocabulary supported their performances of language skills.

Likewise, PT03 believed that vocabulary was as important as grammar since knowledge of both supported the students' performance of language skills. She viewed the relationships between vocabulary, grammar and language skills as being complementary to one another. Her attitude towards vocabulary is expressed in the following excerpt extracted from her first interview:

> Excerpt 5.22
>
> Oh (...) I think it's not, it's not uh so uh=I think they're equally important because without grammar or without vocabulary they cannot you know do [well] in speaking or in writing or in whatever skills, so they complement one another (PT03-INT01@00:30:13).

PT02's views about the importance of vocabulary were in line with those of PT01 and PT03. PT02 saw vocabulary, grammar and language skills as being interrelated. For instance, as far as vocabulary learning is concerned, PT02 believed that the students could use reading as a means to learning vocabulary and use knowledge of vocabulary to practice reading. Her attitude to the relations between these language areas is expressed in the following excerpt extracted from her first interview:

> Excerpt 5.23
>
> Hmm (...) actually I have never thought about that [that one language aspect is more important than the others] because I always believe that all of those skills are important. They actually interrelate one another hmm for example when it comes to reading=so when we read, we are able to learn new words at the same time hmm to improve our reading skill, to recall the vocabulary that we've encountered before, to encounter the sentence structures that we learn [as] grammar. So it really helps and uh they say that when you read a lot=when you are good at reading, you are also good at writing. And I believe in that. I think I did only=uh I got only=I mean my ability in reading is [not so good] and so is my writing. So I think they somehow relate. And when you read a lot you, you can get more ideas for writing as well. It actually relates. They are actually related (PT02-INT01@00:49:03).

This section illustrates how the pre-service teachers made sense of vocabulary teaching in relation to grammar and language skills. As can be seen, the teachers' conceptions of vocabulary instruction and its importance in the classroom syllabus, to a certain extent, reflected the teachers' understanding of language as a whole or integrated system. From the CHAT perspective adopted in this study, these teachers' mental actions about vocabulary instruction indicate their intention to embody such actions in their teaching. In the following sub-section, I move on to describe how their actions were reported to have been enacted or were poised to be future physical actions.

5.2.2 How to Best Approach Vocabulary Instruction

As the teachers continued to talk about vocabulary instruction, their beliefs were crystallised, but at the same time complex. To capture such complexity and to summarise and compare the teachers' beliefs about how to approach vocabulary instruction, Table 5.2 provides a tabulation of these beliefs or thinking systems.

Table 5.2. Pre-services' beliefs about how to approach vocabulary instruction

	How to best approach vocabulary instruction as perceived by…	**PT01**	**PT02**	**PT03**
1	Remembering is important in vocabulary learning. Vocabulary retention can be enhanced with practice.	Y	Y	Y
2	Students need repeated exposure to and meaningful practice of the learnt vocabulary.	Y	Y	Y
3	Vocabulary should be learnt in context.	Y	Y	Y
4	Vocabulary should be integrated with skills and is intended to support skills.	Y	Y	Y
5	L1 and/or translation should be used to assist in vocabulary learning.	N	Y	Y
6	Dictionary is a resource for students to learn vocabulary, but it should be used outside of the class.	Y	Y	Y

The belief statements contained in Table 5.2 were reformulated from the teachers' interview accounts, in in-vivo coding (using the teacher's own language). The statements marked with Y (Yes) reflected the teacher's positive beliefs about those aspects of vocabulary instruction. N (No) indicates the teacher's lack of

belief in a particular aspect of vocabulary instruction. As Table 5.2 shows, these teachers shared a number of similar beliefs about vocabulary instruction. Although these beliefs are presented in separate statements, they are actually related to one another. For example, the first two statements the teachers all believed about dealt with vocabulary retention being the ultimate goal in teaching vocabulary. The teachers believed that in learning vocabulary students needed to remember words or phrases, especially fixed expressions such as phrasal verbs and idioms. For instance, in commenting on mastering vocabulary knowledge, PT02 stated that "we got to be uh like very hardworking and work smart so we are able to remember those words". By working smart and working hard, PT02 meant "we use those words (...) regularly in addition to getting experienced [in] it in the text, in the reading text. I think it can help us remember [the words]. We can also know how to use [them] in the right way, in the real sentences" (PT02-INT01@00:14:46). For teaching idioms, specifically, PT02 invoked remembering as a strategy, but contextual information also played an important role in fostering vocabulary retention. Her conception is captured in Excerpt 5.24, an extract from her first interview.

Excerpt 5.24

I: If you are to teach idioms how would you teach them?

PT02: Oh (laughs) Idioms! I think idiom is really=uh I think the lesson itself is really interesting but I myself have some problems with idioms because hmmm (...) of course the meaning is always different from what we see. But hmm the key might be (...) to, to, to find the key meaning that can help students easily remember it. And another thing would be to help them use in the sentence so that they remember easily, because uh if idiom stands alone we, we will not easily get its meaning unless the idiom is within a sentence that we, we=that's how we can get the meaning of it (PT02-INT01@01:18:48).

Teaching idiomatic expressions is not always straightforward, and to ask someone to spell out how it can be carried out might catch the person off guard, as it appears to be in the case of PT02. However, as can be seen here, PT02 believed in promoting vocabulary retention among her students, but more importantly she believed that to achieve high vocabulary retention, vocabulary should be learnt in context, and not in isolation.

In a similar vein, PT03 believed that the only appropriate way for her students to learn phrasal verbs and idioms was for them to remember, but that

they should be taught in context by which she meant incorporating them with such a language skill as reading or writing. By doing so, she believed, vocabulary teaching and learning would be meaningful. She put it as follows:

> Excerpt 5.25
>
> There're a variety of vocabulary, phrasal verb for example. There's not much technique you know to tell the students to understand that phrasal verb because there're no rule or exact rule or exact uh (...) uh tips of studying phrasal verbs. Only if they can remember it by themselves. But what I can teach the students is that they can use that phrasal verb in order to apply to uh the reading or the writing text so that they can actually understand it and they will remember it in their brain for the rest of their academic study (PT03-INT01@00:32:01).

In addition to indicating PT03's particular beliefs about teaching idiomatic expressions and multi-word verbs (i.e., phrasal verbs), Excerpt 5.25 also reflects her understanding about the fact that different types of vocabulary required different methods of teaching.

These pre-service teachers believed that remembering, but not memorising, led to vocabulary retention. They also believed that their students needed repeated exposure and meaningful practice to remember learnt words and to increase vocabulary retention, thus being ready for retrieval for later use. PT02, particularly, aimed for her students to "know how to use it (learnt lexis) in their everyday conversation so that they are able to remember it and use it later on" (PT02-INT01@01:01:01). Shown in Excerpt 5.26 are extracts from the teachers' respective first interviews, indicating how the teachers conceptualised vocabulary instruction in relation to vocabulary retention and meaningful practice.

> Excerpt 5.26
>
> [...] One hour in class they use English but when they go back home they will switch to Khmer. Maybe [for] 24 hours a day, maybe 2 hours that they use English. So it's hard to retain their knowledge of vocabulary. Maybe today they understand [the learnt word], maybe they still understand but from next week they will forget it if we don't help them repeat the word again and again. So their challenge is that they don't use the word frequently enough. Yes. They just learn in class and no practice outside of the class. [...] We need to=uh I did talk about meaningful repetition. I'd design the course in the way that we

> return back to the group of words from time to time until they are comfortable using [them] and then we will move to another theme (PT01-INT01:00:33:10).

> After the students learn this bunch of new words the teacher might provide them some examples and they may know=they may see how these words are used in real sentences in the different contexts. So uh=and then they are provided the opportunity to test themselves how to use those words in, in the sentences and that (...) and that experience may help them to remember because I=because according to my experience if I am able to use the word that I have learnt frequently I'll be able to remember it. Uh but if I just learn it and my teacher just tells me to go home and review it and when I come back, I just simply yell out the definition, then I think I cannot remember it well (PT02-INT01@00:59:02).

> I think that at first they will not be able to understand the definition right away. Only if they read through the book, through the passage and saw this word again, will they remember it. They will understand it by themselves (PT03-ReINT01@01:57:55).

As can be seen, it was these teachers' understanding that vocabulary instruction was meant to promote the students' vocabulary retention, which could be realised through repeated exposure to and meaningful learning of the vocabulary in question. The remaining four belief statements in Table 5.2 dealt specifically with the teachers' reported approaches to teaching vocabulary. I present these conceptions in the order specified in the table.

5.2.2.1 Vocabulary in Context

It is essential to note that the term 'context' was used by the teachers themselves and its meaning, or what I understand it to mean, shall become clear as I lay out the analysis of their data through the rest of this chapter. Learning vocabulary in context was a common belief espoused by all the three pre-service teachers. PT01, for example, believed that this approach would work best with adult learners:

> Excerpt 5.27
>
> I think if I am to teach I will use the last method I talked about, word-meaning in context. It works, I think it works best with adults [because] it (learning word-meaning in context) requires analysis. I think adults love analysis, unlike

> adolescents. If we present them [with] too much analysis they will find the lesson boring and demotivating (PT01-INT01@00:14:03–00:14:21).

While PT01 discussed learning vocabulary in context vis-à-vis the learner's age group (adolescents versus adults), PT02 discussed it in relation to the learner's language level. She believed that vocabulary in context should be more appropriate for learners at a higher level: "I think I=because at the lower level I might not be able to uh to engage them much with the uh hmm vocabulary in context" (PT02-INT01@00:37:18). She elaborated as follows:

> Excerpt 5.28
>
> I feel that uh they (students at low levels) might be struggling in learning vocabulary in context. I feel like learning individual words=actually trying to form those words into sentences is a better way for beginner level. But for the uh intermediate level or up, they are able to uh I think they are more [able] in terms of language so learning language from context might be more useful for them and is easier to guide (PT02-INT01@00:38:21).

On the other hand, for PT03, to learn vocabulary in context meant her students had to be able to use lexical items in "every aspect of their lives". She also believed that teaching vocabulary in context allowed her to gauge her students' knowledge of the vocabulary learnt.

> Excerpt 5.29
>
> As I have mentioned earlier uh teaching that one word is not about giving the explanation=it's not about giving the definition to them (learners) and that's it. Uh what I want the students, my students to learn is that they can use that word in every aspect of their lives whether it's in speaking, whether it's in writing yeah. That's what I want them to understand. [...] For example I might ask them to use the word in productive skill [to see] whether they use it in the correct context [...] When the teachers just provides the definition to the students, they might not know whether the students understand that word or not, but when the students can actually produce some piece of writing and they can use that vocabulary in the correct way [structurally and grammatically correct (?)]or in uh you know uh collocated way, the teachers can understand that 'well the students can actually understand that' (PT03-INT01@00:39:24).

It is clear based on what she said in the preceding extract that PT03 viewed productive skill (writing or speaking) as a means to measuring the students' understanding of learnt words. However, her use of "context" appeared obscure. In a sense, I understand it to mean situational contexts (i.e., aspects of the students' lives). Yet, in another sense, I understand it to mean linguistic contexts (i.e., vocabulary use in "the correct way").

"Context" is itself a complex concept, and it is interesting to see how these pre-service teachers conceptualised it when they discussed teaching and learning vocabulary in context. As mentioned, PT03 seemed to equate context with situations and also with linguistic structures with the latter being, for example, "collocated way". Likewise, during his second interview, PT01 explained what he meant by context, and as is shown in Excerpt 5.30, PT01 referred context to situation and topic or theme of the lesson.

> Excerpt 5.30
>
> Context here I mean the different social situations, in what situation and for what purpose should they use the language. And I think for now the concept of functional English is very popular even in IELTS testing. People don't just=don't focus much on how much you can use the language but they seem to focus on how well we can use it to suit the situation. Let say=so for context, I mean, when we go shopping what kind of language should we use! Or when we go to the bank or when we are in the academic situation what kind of language. So that's what I mean by context (PT01-INT02@00:48:09)

He also suggested that to teach vocabulary in context, a language class should follow a "situational syllabus".

> Excerpt 5.31
>
> I: Then back to your practicum period, did you do anything to provide such context to the students?
>
> PT01: Because it can be a problem for the textbook, the textbook was not designed based on=the syllabus itself was not designed based on the topic or on the situation. It's not a situational syllabus. It's like uh grammatical, lexical syllabus. Grammar and vocabulary were emphasised. But I still could do something about it, like when reading=when we learn about poetry, I exposed my students to a

number of common key terms in poetry [such as] rhyme, verse, [and] anything that they could encounter in poetry (PT01-INT02@00:48:49)

To PT01, therefore, vocabulary in context meant vocabulary used in certain situations (for example, shopping) or vocabulary learnt within specific topics (such as poetry).

5.2.2.2 Vocabulary and Language Skills

In their discussions, the three pre-services also made frequent references to the interconnections between vocabulary and language skills, the latter particularly being reading. As a pre-service with minimal teaching experience prior to the teaching practicum, PT01 described how he normally conducted a vocabulary lesson.

Excerpt 5.32

As I said, sometimes, not sometimes but most of the time, I use reading as a stimulus so the students will have to underline the key words that I ask them to, and then we work on those vocabularies. Or sometimes I just ask the students to brainstorm=let's say to draw one theme and they need to brainstorm all the words that they know to activate what they have learnt before, yes. And also we will add more words later in the theme so that it makes it more complex. So these are the two methods that I commonly use. Use the reading text and use the mind-mapping, yes (PT01-INT01@00:48:16).

From his description in Excerpt 5.32, it appeared that PT01 believed in an inductive approach to learning vocabulary. That is, vocabulary is induced from reading texts PT01 called "stimulus". Moreover, PT01 saw the importance of mind-mapping as a strategy to help his students expand their vocabulary knowledge in a "complex" related way (within a particular theme or "context"). On another occasion (Excerpt 5.33), PT01 suggested that vocabulary learning should be integrated with skills, particularly reading, which could be realised through testing.

Excerpt 5.33

More importantly if I use the reading text with some words omitted [in the test], I want to understand about their comprehension ability also because to understand which vocabulary goes to which gap, they need to understand the whole passage. Yes. So this is uh what an integrated skill [is]. We don't just teach reading separately from vocabulary or vocabulary separately from

reading. We=from time to time, I integrate a number of skills together (PT01-INT01@00:52:00).

Likewise, in discussing how she would approach vocabulary instruction, PT03 reported that she would "integrate" skills (including vocabulary) together in her teaching. Excerpt 5.34 extracted from her first interview illustrates what PT03 thought about teaching vocabulary.

Excerpt 5.34

I think it's [the kind of vocabulary to be taught] uh based on the lessons that I'm going to teach, the kind of vocabulary, because there're a variety of themes. But in general I would say that I would not teach only vocabulary to the class. I would integrate a few skills for example reading. For example, I give them a passage and I will integrate you know the vocabulary in that sense. So I will not only focus on one skill and ignore the other. I would integrate several skills together (PT03-INT01@00:31:24).

As shown here, vocabulary learning was largely determined by the themes of the lessons PT03 was going to teach. Later, during her second interview, PT03 talked about vocabulary in relation to reading and the "contexts" in the reading passages the students read.

Excerpt 5.35

Learning vocabulary is not a one-day learning so it needs longer time, so I would suggest them (the students) to just read some more books because I think it's the only means to study vocabulary because you can go and open the, open the dictionary and read the word one by one yeah [and] you might know the words, but when it comes to the contexts you may not, you may not understand it. So the thing that I suggest is just go and read, you know, not read the thing that=not in the way that they are forced to read but read out of their interest. They can pick the poem or the thing that they love to read (PT03-INT02@00:34:30).

It seems clear here that context to PT03 meant the topic or theme of the reading passage, and as the last paragraph of Excerpt 5.35 shows, apparently PT03 believed in an incidental approach to vocabulary learning, particularly through reading.

The relationship between vocabulary instruction and language skills was also pointed out by PT02, who believed that vocabulary should be taught before the

students performed either reading or listening activities. Teaching vocabulary as a pre-reading or pre-listening activity was what PT02 meant by providing her students with a "head start", a point discussed earlier. Elsewhere, PT02 viewed vocabulary as "a bridge towards the major skills" (i.e., reading, listening, speaking and writing) (PT02-INT02@00:37:21). Excerpt 5.36 extracted from her second interview depicts PT02's view about teaching vocabulary as a pre-reading or pre-listening activity.

> Excerpt 5.36
>
> Um I think uh the major part [of the lesson] where I would cover [vocabulary] is in reading and listening yeah. As you observed me um (...) in the reading section I pre, I pre-teach them vocabulary to help them um (...) uh (...) read. And for the listening part I also pre-teach vocabulary as a head start for them uh (...) to help them with the listening. So when they, you know, hear the, the new vocabulary, they are able to make sense yeah of what they hear. And=but, but I just (...) I feel in mind that my way of teaching vocabulary is more like a memory based, an old you know like grammar translation method. Yes (PT02-INT02@00:19:34).

As can also be observed from the last sentence of Excerpt 5.36, PT02 expressed self-doubt about her teaching method, which might have been a tension or conflict of the teacher's cognitions. This issue, tension in teacher cognition, is addressed more extensively in Chapter 8, where activity theory is used to explicate such tension.

Also emerging out of the interview data sets were two other aspects of vocabulary instruction the teachers believed would contribute to successful learning: the use of L1 and/or translation and the role of dictionaries.

5.2.2.3 Teachers' Attitudes towards L1 Translation

Another aspect of vocabulary instruction that emerged from the interview data sets, including the recall interviews, and from the teaching records was the role of L1 and/or L1 translation. This section, however, reports the findings arrived at from the interview accounts only, for Section 5.3 presents the analysis of observational data. The role of L1 or translation was perceived by both PT02 and PT03 as benefiting their students' learning of vocabulary. PT01, however, despite his own tendency to use L1 translation, believed that it should not be used in class so that his students would be exposed to as much English as possible. He said that:

Excerpt 5.37

if I try to translate the meaning in Khmer it presents no challenge for the students. So the thing is they need to be exposed to uh real English environments. Even though they don't understand, we need to do our best to keep using English all the time in class (PT01-INT01@00:11:49).

PT01 expressed his concern about overcoming his tendency to use translation in teaching because he believed it was his "duty" not to translate or use L1 in a language class. Excerpt 5.38 extracted from his first interview depicts his thought about this matter.

Excerpt 5.38

[In] teaching vocabulary, the major challenge is that I need to control my tendency to translate the words because [translation] is the easiest way. We have the English words and we tell the students the Cambodian words and the students go back home. But to do like that I think it's not teaching; it's just transmitting the knowledge. We just spoon-feed=we call it spoon-feeding the students. So the challenge is that I need to keep myself in using English all the time. Even though sometimes the students [ask] 'Teacher, please speak Cambodian, please speak Khmer, it's faster'. I need to control myself. So the challenge is to make them learn vocabulary and I want to fulfil my duty. I want them to expose to real English. [...] [It's] about controlling my tendency to translate the words (PT01-INT01@00:43:16).

PT01 appeared to firmly espouse this belief, for he continued to explain with the same reason as to why he did not use L1 while teaching despite the fact that, from my observation, his students had a hard time understanding his instructions and explanations in English. From his recall interview conducted immediately after the lesson I observed, PT01 accounted for his decision not to opt for L1 explanation as follows:

Excerpt 5.39

Even though they find it hard, they need to try to understand that. It's like how we acquire our mother tongue, right! We, we don't=people don't just=we just try our best to understand what other people say. So in English, I mean if the words are very difficult, I will decide to translate. But if [it's] for simple instruction, I think I can make them understand by=I can simplify the question, or I can use body language to help them understand more because it is like

real communication. When they communicate to a native speaker, what they can see is just body language and simplified version. They will not see the translation (PT01-ReINT01@01:45:18).

PT02, on the other hand, was open-minded regarding the role of L1 and/or translation. She believed that the use of L1 and translation could be envisaged for the benefits of her students, especially when L1 could be used to encourage her students to participate in the learning process. Nonetheless, she said, in a language classroom, English needed to be used as much as possible and more than L1.

Excerpt 5.40

Hmm I feel like it depends. I feel like when=I would prefer to use L2 in, in the uh the classroom. It's the language classroom so you would want your class to communicate in L2 so that they can improve their English. But uh at some point I feel like=for uh for some explanations I might need to use L1, blend it with L2 so that my students can understand. And I feel that my students sometimes can respond in L1 and I will help them transfer that to L2. So I can encourage them to respond so that uh not only the students [who] are able to use L2 will speak but those who are reluctant to use L2 can also speak. They might say it in L1 first and then L2 later. But I just have to make sure that I have to balance, to make sure that my students use L2 more than L1 so that they can learn better because if they use L1 more, they still know Khmer (PT02-INT01@00:32:43).

PT03 spoke favourably for the use of L1 and translation in relation to teaching vocabulary. She saw the benefits of this way of teaching in that it could help her students avoid producing language errors resulting from negative language transfer. To illustrate her view on the use of L1 and translation, Excerpt 5.41 presents an extract from her first interview.

Excerpt 5.41

Uh in teaching vocabulary hmm well the teacher can actually gain the benefits of using L1 in L2 class. For example, uh in Khmer we said that=for example for 'affect' in 'this thing affects something', some students might use 'affect on' because in Khmer we said 'ជះឥទ្ធិពលលើ' [literally 'affect on']. So uh it's the

benefit that the teacher can use both L1 and L2 [to compare]. For example, the teacher might explain in Khmer we say [in our language] 'ជះឥទ្ធិពល

លើ' ['affect on'] but in English we're not going to say 'affect on'. So that's one

advantage of using uh L1 in class. And also the, the use of L1 in class is also beneficial when the level of the students is elementary [or] pre-intermediate, so when the, when the teacher start using L2 bla bla bla, some students might just say 'I don't understand that' yeah. So you might integrate some L1 in class (PT01-INT01@00:51:07).

PT03 also believed that L1 could be a useful resource to teach and learn idioms.

Excerpt 5.42

Hmm idioms (...) idioms will be best used with=integrated with L1 in class. You know providing them with a bit of L1. And also the teaching of idioms is best [done] when you can provide a sentence with the idiom to the students so they can understand how that idiom can be used in the sentence, because there's no way of teaching; there's no rule or there's no tips of teaching idioms unless the students can remember it for themselves. So that's what I can use (PT03-INT01@00:54:01).

In effect, PT03 believed that it was "effective" to be an NNES teacher because she knew the students' L1. She pointed it out that "actually using L1 in class has you know a beneficial effect as well. It's not bad to use L1 in the class sometimes. [...] The teacher can integrate L1 and L2, for example, to explain the grammar points, to explain the differences between our Cambodian language and English language. So I think it's effective to be a non-native speaker [teacher]" (PT01-INT01@00:18:52).

5.2.2.4 Teachers' Attitudes towards Using Dictionaries

This attitude was shared by all the three teachers, but who believed also that using dictionaries should not be part of the in-class activities. Using dictionaries to assist in vocabulary learning, for example, was perceived by PT01 as "a step to independent learning." He believed that using dictionaries could be a useful reference for his students to learn vocabulary, especially when the teacher was not around to be such a reference. Excerpt 5.43 captures his view.

Excerpt 5.43

PT01: [...] I think dictionary can be a step to independent learning because uh if they (students) rely on the teacher all the times maybe they cannot develop much. Because if they do a lot of extra reading as I

told them to, so they will need dictionary. Dictionary is uh maybe a must for them because when they do extensive reading the teacher will not be with them all the times. They may read at home or in the library or somewhere else. So dictionary is very important for them to learn words by themselves.

I: Ok. Did you try to encourage your students to do that?

PT01: Yes. I encourage them but not very frequently. I mostly uh hmm spend a few sessions telling them [about] how to use vocabulary properly [...] I rarely let them do dictionary work in the class. Usually I use words from context, yes (PT01-INT01@00:58:12–00:58:49).

As far as dictionary use is concerned, PT01 believed that the dictionaries his students should use to help them in learning vocabulary should be monolingual English-English dictionaries from which the students would get as much exposure as possible to input including "the connotation of the word [being learnt]" and "the examples" that showed how the word was used in context (PT01-INT01@00:59:33).

PT02 held a similar conception of the role of dictionaries in vocabulary learning. Like PT01, she believed that a dictionary could be a reference resource her students could rely on with the absence of the teacher. However, unlike PT01, she also saw the limitation of the role of dictionaries in vocabulary learning in that dictionary definitions could not always be reliable for the context in question, a concern similarly expressed in Stahl (2005). In other words:

Excerpt 5.44

on some occasions the words in the context do not mean or do not share the same meanings as those [provided] in the dictionary so the teacher has to be at the service of the students and provide further explanations (PT02-INT01@01:13:05).

PT02 viewed the teacher and the dictionary as being equally essential resources in vocabulary instruction. Nonetheless, like PT01, PT02 did not believe that dictionaries should be used during the class time. Given her negative experience using dictionaries to help her learn vocabulary, PT02 did not envisage promoting the use of dictionaries during class sessions although she recognised that her students might want to use dictionaries because they could help. In such a case, she said she would not prevent her students from using dictionaries, however. Excerpt 5.45

below describes how PT02 related her learning experience using dictionaries to her teaching.

> Excerpt 5.45
>
> I tried [using dictionaries to learn vocabulary] and I failed. That's why I don't think so [that dictionaries could help in vocabulary learning]. Of course different people have different learning techniques in terms of vocabulary [learning]. I might find dictionaries not useful but my students might them useful. But the thing is that I would not encourage them to use it but they can use it if they feel comfortable with it. Actually in my experience I once I mean I really want to learn vocabulary but it was a harsh method. I would like borrow a book from the library and it was like ten pages and at that time my vocabulary level is still limited was still limited so I opened the book I browsed through [it] and then I found around 50 words per ten pages. I wrote it down all on the board and then I check a dictionary and then I find meaning. I would put the-the hmm part of speech and the meaning next to it. And I work on those 50 words (laughs) and then I uh and then I just reread re-read the story. Actually this time I read it in detail. And then when I encountered those words I looked up in my board and then I found that I spent like a week or two reading ten pages. So I changed my method. I simply read through the book and I finished it and asked myself whether I understand it or not and I do. And I feel like I do not need to understand everything. And ever since that time I check only one or two words in the text that I cannot understand. It works better (PT02-INT01@01:15:21).

PT03's conception of the use of dictionaries in vocabulary learning also aligned with those of PT01 and PT02. She believed in the usefulness of dictionaries in helping students learn vocabulary but, like PT02, recognised the limitations that the teacher could address. Her expressed thought is illustrated in the following excerpt extracted from her first interview.

> Excerpt 5.46
>
> Uh the role of dictionary is just the uh it's just the guide that assist the students to find out the, the definitions of the words. Some dictionaries might have the collocated words that this vocabulary might use with. Uh but in general it's not [like that], the students might=the students cannot only depend on the dictionary alone. They have to also use it uh for-for example in

> their productive skills so that they can understand the word more. And also [they need to depend on] the teacher's assistance as well (PT03-INT01@00:47:09).

As for whether or not dictionaries should be used during the class time, PT03 also held similar beliefs to those of PT01 and PT02. While she would respect her students' preferences, she seemed determined that dictionaries would be better used out of class time, for example "at home" doing vocabulary exercises provided by the teacher. The use of dictionaries, PT03 believed, was also conditioned by the students' language levels. Excerpt 5.47 indicates her view on this point.

> Excerpt 5.47
>
> I would say that it [the use of dictionaries in class] is according to the students' level as well and according to the (...) class context as well. So if, if the students keep demanding on you know checking the dictionary so that they can understand the words. Actually there are a few techniques that they can use as well. When the teacher finds the students tend to use a lot of you know dictionary checking during the class, maybe you can ask them to read the words in general first or to read the text in general first and we can check the dictionary at home or as a teacher we can provide the, the, the students with the list of vocabulary and the list of definitions (...) in advance. These are a few techniques that the teacher can do. But will I encourage my students to use dictionary! It's just a matter of before and after. Before, for example, before the reading context I will not encourage them to check dictionary if they are in intermediate level or upper intermediate level because at that level they may you know understand from general reading, from the context of reading so I will not, but if it's for a lower level of students I will ask them to check just a few words you know (...) checking the dictionary and that's it. Hmmm. And they can check [the rest] at home (PT03-INT01@00:47:54).

Like PT01 and PT02, PT03 would encourage her students to use monolingual dictionaries to assist them in learning vocabulary, for the same reasons pointed out by PT01; monolingual dictionaries would provide her students with "enough information" of "collocated words [and] examples". Moreover, while PT03 understood that low-level students might prefer bilingual dictionaries, she said she would nonetheless "encourage them to use the monolingual" (PT03-INT01@00:49:32). Drawn from the last sub-theme (the role of dictionaries in

vocabulary learning), it can be said that these pre-service teachers believed that vocabulary should also be learnt independently out of class time.

These complex belief systems the teachers held about vocabulary instruction were well in line with the literature of vocabulary learning and teaching (Carter, 1998; Nation, 2005; Read, 2004b), thus suggesting that these teachers, albeit pre-service, had quite a range of knowledge relevant for teaching vocabulary in their own context. Still, the last theme presented next adds to the already complex and broad knowledge of these pre-services vis-à-vis vocabulary instruction. However, it might be useful to recapitulate the key conceptions these pre-services held about vocabulary instruction before I present this last theme. Based on the analysis presented in this section, it is possible to provide a diagrammatical illustration of the teachers' cognitive system about teaching vocabulary. Figure 5.1 below captures how complex the teachers' edifice is in relation to teaching vocabulary in the present context.

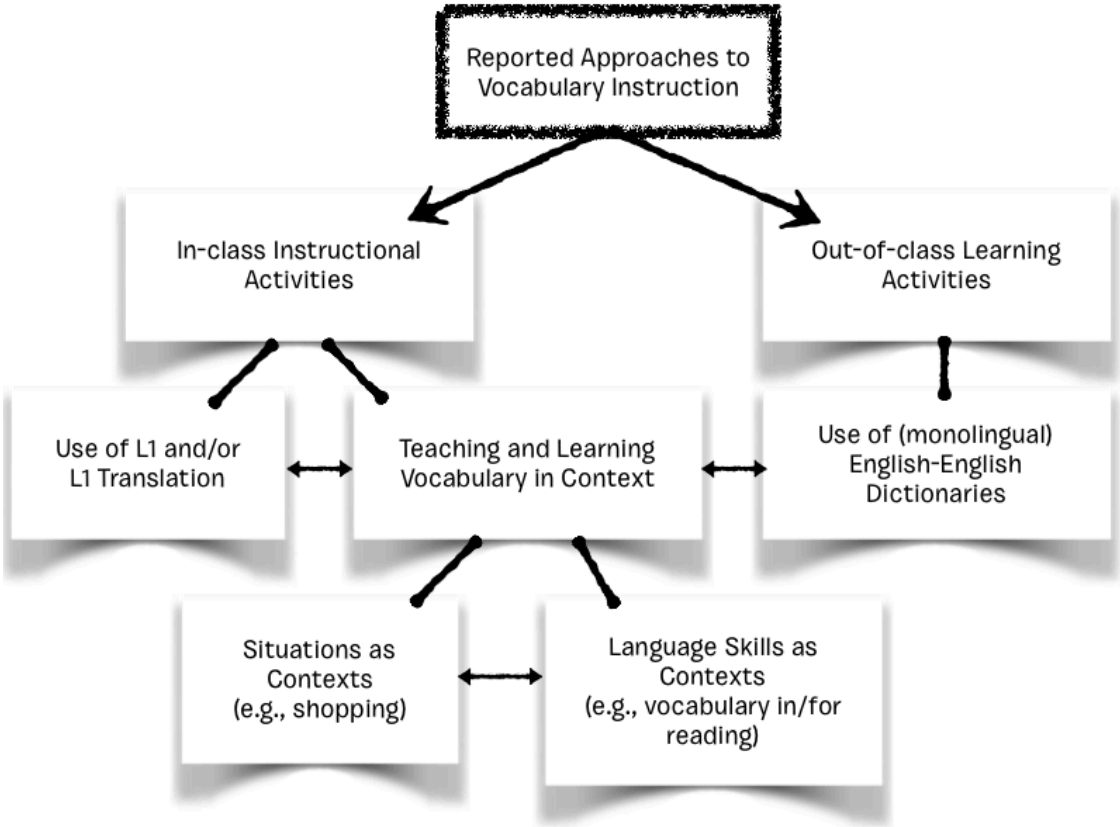

Figure 5.1 Schematic representation of the pre-services' reported approaches to vocabulary instruction

As can be seen, it encapsulates the teachers' cognitions about vocabulary instruction, depicting that these teachers believed in both in-class and out-of-class learning activities that could contribute to helping the students enhance their

vocabulary knowledge. The ultimate goal in vocabulary instruction, for them, was for students to remember learnt words and increase their vocabulary retention, which in turn would allow the students to retrieve and use those words in communication. As the diagram also depicts, in-class activities included teaching and learning vocabulary in context. That is, vocabulary items needed to be learnt in situational contexts (such as shopping), through language skills (such as reading or listening) and based on certain topics or themes (such as poetry) in order for them to be meaningful. The teachers also believed in the use of dictionaries, especially monolingual ones, which could be a source of the target language input. However, they believed that dictionaries were to be used out of class time, to promote autonomous learning among the students.

This section presents the teachers' reported practices. Actual approaches to vocabulary instruction were analysed based on the teaching recording and observational notes produced during classroom observations. It is this analysis to which I now turn.

5.3 ACTUAL APPROACHES TO TEACHING VOCABULARY

The findings reported in this section were based on the analysis of the lessons I observed; the teachers' artefacts such as lesson plans, handouts, worksheets and textbooks; the recall interviews conducted after the teachings to shed light on certain classroom activities related to vocabulary learning and teaching; and the second interviews during which the teachers recalled their practicum experiences. The total number of observations and the resulting volume of recorded sessions of these pre-services were described and explained in sub-section 3.2.3 of Chapter 3.

The analysis revealed three themes related to the teachers' actual approaches to teaching vocabulary. They were (1) pre-teaching students with vocabulary items before they engaged in language skills, particularly reading and listening (planned activities), (2) the teacher's spontaneous decisions to focus on particular vocabulary items they felt their students needed to learn (unplanned activities), and (3) vocabulary teaching strategies or techniques that the teachers employed to handle vocabulary issues, either planned or unplanned. These themes are presented in turn.

5.3.1 Planned Vocabulary Instruction

At least based on the lessons I observed, vocabulary was mainly handled as a pre-activity in support of other main activities such as reading and listening. This

activity was generally pre-planned, whose procedures had been written in the teachers' lesson plans. This practice, as reflected in Section 5.2.3 concerning the teachers' beliefs about teaching vocabulary, regarded vocabulary as a supporting "tool" (to use PT03's conceptualising term for defining vocabulary) for language skills, especially reading and listening. Moreover, pre-teaching vocabulary was generally planned ahead of the teaching itself, specifying precisely what and how vocabulary items were to be presented to students. For instance, in a lesson plan of PT02 for a 115-minute teaching I observed, two vocabulary activities prior to the reading of fact and opinion statements were conducted at the teacher's initiative. Those activities dealt with ten vocabulary items some of which PT02 selected to add to those suggested in the textbook. Those activities (named Technique in the lesson plan) were "word-matching" and "passage completion". Together they were set to take up 45 minutes of the entire lesson. To illustrate, Excerpt 5.48, taken from the lesson plan and reproduced here verbatim, shows the descriptive procedures for the word-matching activity and an extract from one of her worksheets designed to teach vocabulary.

Excerpt 5.48

Technique 1: Word Matching

- The SS (students) receive handouts consisting of 10 words and 10 definitions.
- The SS do the matching exercises.
- The SS compare the answers as a whole class.
- The SS receive some examples from the T (teacher) (PT02-WR01@07/03/14)

1. Match the words in the box with the given definitions below.

   _____ 1. Refuse to notice or give attention

   _____ 2. A twenty-century artistic and literary movement which shows creativity, dreams and products of the unconscious mind

   _____ 3. A large painting or other work of art that is created directly on a wall or ceiling (PT02-WR03@07/03/14)

PT02 later explained during her second interview that pre-teaching vocabulary was meant to help prepare the students for the main activities such as reading and listening comprehension although, as is shown in the excerpt below, PT02 appeared to have experienced tension about whether or not to pre-teach vocabulary before students began the reading or listening activities.

Excerpt 5.49

Um I think uh the major part that I would cover when it comes to vocab is in reading and listening. Yeah like [when] you observed me um (...) um (...) in the reading section, I pre, I pre-taught them vocabulary to help them um (...) uh read. And for the listening part, I also pre-taught vocabulary as a head start for them uh (...) to help them with the listening. So when they, you know, hear the, the new vocabulary [items], they are able to make sense yeah of what they heard. And=but, but I just (...) I feel in mind that my way of teaching vocabulary is more like a memory based, an old you know like grammar translation method. Yes (PT02-INT02@00:19:34).

The pre-teaching of vocabulary was also evident during PT03's lesson. During the session I observed the focus of her lesson was on reading about American values. PT03 had planned twenty minutes for teaching fifteen vocabulary items as a pre-reading activity. Unlike PT02, however, PT03 did not plan this activity as a matching exercise. Instead she provided a handout containing the fifteen items along with their respective grammatical parts of speech, definitions and examples (italicised in the table below), the latter being meant to contextualise the items. Excerpt 5.50 contains extracts of the relevant lesson plan and handout that PT03 produced by herself, based on the reading passage in the textbook. These extracts are presented here verbatim.

Excerpt 5.50

II. Pre-Reading

Technique 1: Pre-teaching vocabularies

- T distributes handouts to SS and asks them to skim through [for] a few minutes.
- T volunteers [asks] some SS to read the definitions and examples out loud.
- T explains more where necessary.
- T reads out the definitions, and SS have to call out the correct words. (PT03-WR01@14/03/14)

Vocabulary

The following words are extracted from the reading passage (pp. 107-110). The definitions and examples are provided.

Words	Definitions and examples	
1. Values	(n)	Principles or standard of behaviour *Competition is one of the thirteen American **values**.*
2. Fate	(n)	A force or power that is believed to controlled (sic) events *Americans do not believe in **fate.***
3. Dams	(n)	Barriers across waterways to control the flow or r a i s e t h e level of water *Americans build **dams** to keep rivers from flooding.* (PT03-WR02@14/03/14)

In relation to the third teacher, PT01, pre-teaching of vocabulary was not a focus, at least in the sessions I observed. This teacher was teaching the writing of cause-effect essays, and his lesson plans did not include any pre-writing vocabulary teaching. Nonetheless, the analysis of his practicum journal revealed that PT01 also taught vocabulary as a pre-reading activity. In his Journal Entry No. 4, he wrote as follows:

> Excerpt 5.51
>
> On that day, I didn't teach writing skills. Instead, the session was for reading. I decided to teach only ten academic words since I believed the students would not be familiar with those words, and to ensure that they could understand their meanings and be able to use them, I just stuck to those [only] ten words. My expectation was somewhat accurate; the students found those words difficult and struggled to use them correctly in the contexts (PT01-WR07@25/09/2014-Entry04).

According to PT01, the practice of teaching vocabulary as a pre-requisite of the main activity was also undertaken by other pre-service teachers besides the three teachers participating in the present study. PT01 had the opportunity to observe his fellow teacher trainees during the practicum period and wrote in his journal that:

> Excerpt 5.52
>
> on that day, she [one of the trainees he observed] taught listening skills by focusing on "Cornell Method". In the pre-listening activity, she explained some key vocabularies by writing them down on the whiteboard (PT01-WR07@25/09/2014-Entry07).

While this was not first-hand observation conducted by the researcher for the purpose of the present study, it nonetheless could indicate that pre-teaching

vocabulary appeared to be a common teaching practice among these Cambodian teacher trainees.

5.3.2 Unplanned Vocabulary Instruction

Another sub-theme identified from the teaching observational data was labelled as unplanned vocabulary instruction due to its spontaneous nature. This practice can be called on-spot vocabulary focus, or what Stahl (2005) calls "point of contact teaching" of vocabulary (p. 101). That is, vocabulary at times was focused on spontaneously either at the student's request or by the teacher's own initiative. Such on-spot vocabulary focus occurred throughout the particular teaching sessions I observed, with some at the very beginning of the lesson and others as the lesson went on. At the beginning of the lesson, vocabulary focus was often initiated by the teacher him- or herself. As unplanned activity, it seemed to be generally intended as a revision of a previous lesson, or as a 'leading-in' activity before the current day's lesson began. To illustrate, at the beginning of her observed lesson PT02 asked her students to recall what they learnt from a previous session.

Excerpt 5.53

PT02: Now before moving on to the lesson I would like to review the (...) uh the reading that you, that you've learnt before. Do you still remember the reading that you uh learnt? What is the name of the reading? (...) Anybody remember? (...) The reading is about Vietnamese Memorial, right? Do you, do you remember something now? (...) It's about Vietnamese Memorial. Can you recall something related to that now? Ok. Now. Now I would like everyone to close your book. Please close your book. Close your book. Come on! Close your book. And I'm gonna recall some words with you. Uh do you remember a vocabulary like Vietnam? [...] (xxx) This word, 'create'! Ok, I'm sorry about my handwriting (chuckles). 'Create'. What does 'create' mean?

SS: (inaudible)

PT02: Yes. To make. To make. Everyone! Next word is symbol. Symbol. What does symbol mean?

SS: Sign. Sign.

PT02: Sign. Great. Next one is (...)=not memory, but monument. (Some students were repeating the word to themselves.) Monument. [Name],

what is a monument? (...) Anybody wants to help, [Name]? What about [Name]?

S1: A place that=

PT02: =a place that you build to, to (...) to what? To honour=

S2: =[a person

S1: to pray uh]

PT02: Yes? To? (...) Yes! You are right. To pray or to honour a person. Right, [Name]? Ok. Next word is (...) /ˈɑːkɪtɛktʃə/ (sic) [architecture]. [Name], what does /ˈɑːkɪtɛktʃə/ mean? [...] (PT02-TR01@00:07:51--00:12:35)

Vocabulary revision lasted for about five minutes, after which PT02 began the pre-reading activity that targeted teaching the ten vocabulary items presented in sub-section 5.3.1 above. As is shown here, in the case of PT02 at least, vocabulary instructional activities were both planned and unplanned in one particular lesson, suggesting a high level of emphasis placed on vocabulary learning during class time.

PT01, during the lesson I observed, was teaching writing cause-effect essays. Like PT02, he revised language points his students were introduced to in the previous session before he began the day's lesson. His class procedures for that session were checking student attendance, revision of the previous lesson, warming-up activity, and lesson activities themselves. In Excerpt 5.54, PT01 asked his students to recall word collocations (i.e., noun with preposition and preposition with noun patterns).

Excerpt 5.54

PT01: (After checking the student's attendance) So first before we do the revision, let's start this. Can everybody at that side see this? Can you see it? I can read for you. It's the word 'passport'. So what is a passport, everyone? Why do we need a passport? So we need a passport to go to another country right?

SS: Yes

PT01: So in this class you need this passport to go home. So these are what we are going to learn today: One, we will learn how to choose uh correct titles for cause-effect essays, and then identify the relationships between causes and effects. And the last one, we will learn to use some connectors and transitions. But before we move on to these points, let us do some revision on what you have learnt last

week in writing class. So last week you learnt about noun and preposition combinations. Do you still remember that?

SS: (Students were chattering, showing uncertainty)

PT01: Like when I say 'cause' which preposition should I use? The cause? (...)

S1: Of

PT01: The 'cause of', right? What about the effect, [Name], can you answer? Which preposition should I use with 'effect'?

S2: (inaudible from the student)

PT01: Effect on, everyone, do you agree?

SS: Yes

PT01: 'Effect on' or 'Effect of'?

SS: Effect on

PT01: Ok. It's 'effect on'. What about 'increase' [Name]?

S3: Increase in

PT01: 'Increase in'. Yes. Very good. So these are noun plus preposition. What about preposition plus noun? For example, 'I sell my house' so my house is? What do you use with the word 'sale' S-A-L-E? Which preposition comes before the word 'sale'? My house is? (...) Yes 'for sale'. So what about the word 'pressure'? (PT01-TR01@00:04:30)

Such a vocabulary activity had not been planned or written down in the teacher's lesson plan, thus being conducted on the spot or spontaneously at the teacher's discretion. On-spot vocabulary focus also occurred as the lesson went by. PT01 decided to focus on a number of vocabulary items he had not planned to be part of the lesson aims or objectives, but which he believed were difficult for his students to comprehend in the content of his lesson, that is, matching cause and effect statements. The following excerpt from his lesson (Teaching Record 01) provides an example.

Excerpt 5.55

PT01: [...] Ok. So 'John escaped from the accident. The police chased him.' So you see the Cause 1 and Effect 1. So John drove very fast. That's why he crushed into another car. And then he escaped from the accident, so the police chased him. 'Chase' means try to catch him, follow him. What about the last one? [Name]. Yes. Read Cause 3 and Effect 3.

S1: Cause 3 (inaudible). Effect 3: He was sentenced to county jail.

PT01: Ok. So Cause 3: 'John was charged with drink driving'. Drink driving is when someone drives after they drink alcohol. So he was charged with drink driving, so he was sentenced to county jail. County jail means local jail, the jail that deals with not serious crime, the crime that doesn't [involve killing] other people. I mean not very serious crime. So in the first example, you can see that the cause (PT01-TR01@00:47:31)

As can be seen here, PT01, as well as the other two pre-services in their respective lessons, frequently interrupted his own lesson and interjected a number of vocabulary items into the flow of the lesson. This particular action characterises spontaneous vocabulary instruction as a type of unplanned activity. Both planned vocabulary instruction (presented in sub-section 5.3.1) and unplanned vocabulary instruction (in this section) were the two prominent vocabulary instructional activities these pre-service teachers employed, at least during their teaching sessions I observed. How these two instructional activities were enacted in certain situations was subject to another analysis. In the sub-section that follows, I present this analysis that shows particular strategies the teachers deployed in conducting these activities. These vocabulary teaching strategies or techniques formed the third theme of the teachers' actual approaches to teaching vocabulary.

5.3.3 Vocabulary Teaching Strategies

In pre-teaching vocabulary as well as in dealing with vocabulary items on-spot, the teachers used a number of teaching strategies. These included: providing definitions, providing contextual examples, use of L1 translation, use of synonyms and/or antonyms, and pronunciation drills of the vocabulary items in question. As is shown in this section, some of these strategies were also employed together to explain a vocabulary item, but also to maximise the students' learning experience regarding the item in question.

5.3.3.1 Providing Definitions

Providing definitions was one of the most common teaching strategies the teachers used when explaining vocabulary items (planned or unplanned). This strategy adopted the dictionary mode of explanation with a vocabulary item being followed by its grammatical part of speech, defining statement(s), and/or contextual examples. This structure was particularly evident in the teacher-made materials such as handouts or worksheets. Excerpts 5.48 and 5.50, presented

above to illustrate that vocabulary was handled as pre-teaching activities, also exemplify this enacting strategy of teaching vocabulary through definitions, respectively employed by PT02 and PT03.

As another illustration, when explaining the meaning of the word "conceited", PT01 provided a brief definition along with examples. At the same time, PT01 was checking his students' answers regarding the use of appropriate cause-effect connectors such as "so, therefore, because", which was the main aim of the lesson. Although vocabulary teaching was not a main focus of the lesson, it was otherwise selected by PT01 because he believed that his students had difficulty understanding it. Excerpt 5.56 is extracted from his Teaching Record 01 and shows how the word "conceited" was dealt with on his own initiative.

Excerpt 5.56

PT01: Number 9 is 'so' right? because the word 'conceited' is an (...) adjective. So=what does the word 'conceited' mean? Anybody knows what the word 'conceited' mean? (...) Conceited means too proud of oneself. You understand the word 'proud' right? P-R-O-U-D

SS: (xxx)

PT01: Yes. That's correct. But 'conceited' has a negative meaning. It means you are too proud. You don't listen to other people. You think that you know everything. So, that's why we can say 'Edward is so conceited that he won't even consider the possibility of not getting the job'. So Edward always believes that he will get the job because he's too proud of his ability. So use the connector 'So'. What about the last one (PT01-TR01@01:35:11)

In addition to showing that in teaching a vocabulary item (e.g., "conceited") PT01 used definitions along with contextual examples and the word's part of speech (i.e., as an adjective), what this particular example reflects is that the teacher was an active, thinking agent. Looking into the discourse in Excerpt 5.54 even more closely (i.e., "So=what does the word 'conceited' mean?"), PT01 abruptly moved from focusing on the day's lesson objective (i.e., using cause-effect connectors) to stressing the meaning of the word "conceited", which he thought allowed him to help his students understand the lesson more effectively. He, as well as PT02 and PT03, made constant interactive decisions (Tsang, 2004) on which vocabulary items needed explanations so that they would not be the barriers for the students to learn the core contents of the lesson. On top of providing definitions of vocabulary

items, the teachers also furnished their students with various aspects of the items. These are presented as follows.

5.3.3.2 Providing Contextual Examples

As partially shown, these pre-service teachers also used contextual examples to explain vocabulary items and help their students to understand their meanings. PT03 prepared in advance to teach vocabulary as a pre-reading activity. In her handout (PT03-WR02@14/03/14, for example Excerpt 5.50 above), contextual examples were given along with the definitions of the vocabulary items PT03 selected to teach. Likewise, Excerpt 5.56 above also exemplifies how PT01 used a contextual example to help his students understand the meaning of the word "conceited". In a similar manner, although unplanned, PT02 used examples to provide contexts for the word in question. The following excerpt was extracted from her teaching to illustrate how it was conducted:

Excerpt 5.57

PT02: Civil war. Have we ever had any civil war in our country?

S1: Yes.

PT02: Yes. There are a lot. So um you all like or dislike civil war?

SS: Dislike.

PT02: Dislike. So we can say 'we dislike civil war' Yes. (...) Ok. No. 7, um [Name] No. 7.

S2: (xxx)

PT02: Yes? Not yet? Ok. You haven't finished that. Anybody wants to help her? Um (...) Yes, 'criticism' correct! 'Criticism' (PT02 wrote it on the board). Um (...) What about No. 8?

SS: (xxx).

PT02: Yes 'democratic'. 'De-mo-cra-tic' (as the teacher wrote it on the board). Do you like living in the demo= democratic country? Yes or No?

SS: Yes.

PT02: Yes? Can I hear it louder?

SS: Yes!

PT02: Oh it seems like there are only a few people who like to live in a democratic country.

SS: (Laughs)

PT02: So, 'A few people want to live in a democratic country' (as she wrote it on the board). What about No. 9? (PT02-TR01@00:32:49)

This style of explaining vocabulary items reflected the teacher's thinking about what aspects of a vocabulary item she believed the students should learn, which addresses an important question of vocabulary instruction research: what does it mean to know a word? (Carter, 1998). Contextual examples are among other aspects found to be crucial for the learner to know a word (Schmitt, 2000; Stahl, 2005).

5.3.3.3 Using Synonyms and/or Antonyms

Use of synonyms and/or antonyms was also one of the most commonly employed strategies in dealing with vocabulary issues, especially as they arose spontaneously while teaching. The teachers quickly provided synonyms or antonyms of the vocabulary items in question as they believed it to be a rapid and convenient way of dealing with them when they were not part of the lesson objectives. As an example, the following excerpt is taken from the recall interview with PT02, who explained that using synonyms was "quick" and "convenient".

Excerpt 5.58

I: And also, when you were teaching, I noticed that when you were actually reviewing vocabulary, you used synonyms to explain the meaning of words. How do you think this teaching approach contributed to the students' learning?

PT02: Um (...) I think for, for the synonym uh because if we use synonyms uh the synonyms must be the words that are easier than the words we are teaching now. And from that the students may, may use the synonyms that they know. Yeah mostly we use the synonyms that they know, for example 'create' and 'make'. When they think of uh, when they think of 'create' then they might not get the meaning but they can recall from that synonym.

I: But there are other ways to explain meanings instead of using synonyms. Why did you decide to give synonyms?

PT02: Um I think it's quicker (laughs). It's more convenient, for me (PT02-ReINT01@00:06:56).

As can also be noticed from the last question I posed in the excerpt, I was taking an active, confrontational position in the interview (Brinkmann, 2013), a position

leading to the co-construction of this interview data. With my question, for instance, PT02 was required to think on her feet and take her own position. The fact that she laughed after rationalising her decision to use synonyms suggests that she was concerned if her rationale could be acceptable (by me), but then she added "it's more convenient, for me". This statement indicates further that the decision was her own and using synonyms was her personalised style of teaching vocabulary.

Similarly, from my observation, PT03 also supplied synonyms for vocabulary items she was teaching. For instance, when she was explaining the meaning of the word "accomplish" she quickly provided its synonym "achieve" by writing it next to the word "accomplish" on the whiteboard. Moreover, when she was dealing with the word "discourage", PT03 told her students that the word's antonym was "encourage" and she wrote the two words on the board as follows: "Discourage ≠ Encourage". None of these synonyms and antonyms had been planned in her lesson notes, thus making it her spontaneous decision-making. PT03, during her recall interview, explained her reasoning.

> Excerpt 5.59
>
> Yeah uh because providing them synonyms [and] opposites make them easy to remember, especially. The only goal in providing them these is [for them] to remember the words but if you know you put a sentence, a long sentence like this [long explanation, that is], I think they will find it hard to remember, yeah. For example, 'discourage' the opposite is 'encourage' so they will find it, you know, they will recall it easily (PT03-ReINT01@01:53:36).

As her rationale reflects, PT03 believed the use of antonyms and synonyms helped strengthen the students' vocabulary retention, a line of thinking aligning well with her belief about the purpose of teaching vocabulary.

PT01 also frequently provided his students with synonyms of the words being dealt with, for example, "to adapt" meaning "to follow or to change" (PT01-TR01@01:08:21). However, to PT01, the decision to use synonyms to explain word meanings was motivated by his intention to avoid using L1 translation (discussed further in sub-section 5.3.3.4 below) and to provide his students with English input as much as he could. As he put it:

> Excerpt 5.60
>
> I think it (using synonyms) helps them learn words in that=(...) as I mentioned earlier [it] is to avoid translation. I try my best to avoid translation, and if we can find a synonym that is an easy word (...) we should use it so that when

they try to understand the synonym they also practice English (PT01-ReINT01@01:46:39).

5.3.3.4 Using L1 and/or L1 Translation

Another common strategy the teachers utilised to teach vocabulary was using L1 and/or L1 translation, especially when the teachers were dealing with vocabulary items they deemed difficult for their students but which were not significant enough to warrant an extended explanation in English. Although PT01 claimed he tried his best to avoid using translation, at times, he quickly translated words he believed his students did not know. For example, he translated the word "chain" into Khmer and explained his rationale for doing so during the recall interview as follows:

> Excerpt 5.61
>
> I think the first thing is because 'the chain of cause and effect' is not the focus of the lesson today, because it will be focused later, so if I [use] my time to explain on the thing that is not the focus of the lesson, I may lose some valuable time for their (students') practice (PT01-ReINT01@01:44:42).

As can be recalled, PT01 was particularly against the use of L1 or translation in teaching (vocabulary). This particular finding may appear contradictory to PT01's attitudes towards L1/translation, but as he rationalised here, the particular circumstance or condition (i.e., saving time to focus on the lesson's main objective) was the basis on which PT01's certain teaching operations were embodied. For the same reason, PT02 also used L1 translation as a means of explaining words she deemed difficult for her students. Giving L1 translation allowed her to save time especially with words that were not part of her lesson objectives. In her words, "I think that using L1 at that time might help students [more quickly]. Besides, the word itself is not important. It's not really important. So using L1 will be direct and I don't want to explain a lot in English. It's not the main word" (PT02-ReINT01@00:09:24).

The use of L1 and translation was more prevalent during PT03's teaching than during those of PT01 and PT02, at least during the teaching sessions I observed. While acknowledging the positive effects that using L1 and translation might have on her students' learning, she wished to provide her students with as much English input as possible. Nonetheless, during her lessons she was seen as making extensive use of L1 and translation. In fact, as it appeared, she encouraged

and fostered the use of translation when she and her students were working out the meanings of the vocabulary items pre-taught before the main reading activity. The following excerpt is extracted from her teaching interactions where vocabulary items were dealt with as a pre-reading activity and where translation was used as a means of helping the students understand the meanings of the items.

Excerpt 5.62

PT03: So today we will continue the reading from=so we'll study from the Value No. 1 until Value No. 7 in the reading assignment No. 3. So before we read this, I want you to discuss this question first. Number 1: Do you believe in fate? Do you know what fate is?

S1: (Khmer Translation)

PT03: Very good. (Repeating the translation). You just checked your dictionary, right?

S1: Yes.

PT03: (Chuckles) Alright. [...]

PT02: No. 7 'Would you prefer competing?' You know 'competing'? It comes from 'competition'. Anyone can translate it into L1, 'competing'?

S2: (Khmer Translation)

PT03: (Repeating the translation). Right! So do you prefer competing or working together with other people? (PT03-TR01@00:14:48)

At one point in this same session, PT03 used a considerable amount of Khmer to explain the lesson. PT03 rationalised her decision to use L1 and translation with regard to her students' limited English proficiency, as shown in Excerpt 5.63.

Excerpt 5.63

PT03: The use of translation? I think the use of translation is important when, when the level of the students is not that high. (...) Even though the students are [supposed to be at] intermediate level, their actual level is like pre-intermediate and some are elementary so I think that when we translate the words in Khmer it made them easier to understand. And most of their expectation=they also prefer me to speak in L1 as much as possible.

I: Is it something you are suggested by=

PT03: =yeah I asked them to write uh [about] their expectation. That's what they want from me [using L1, that is]. But I will try to speak L2 as much as possible (PT03-ReINT01@01:51:44).

As can be seen, the students' learning preferences appeared to have influenced PT03's decision to use L1 and translation in her teaching. Nonetheless, it was PT03's determination that she would use English as the medium of instruction as much as she could, but again the fact she added "But I will try to speak L2 as much as possible" could have been because I asked her about using L1 and translation in her lessons. In other words, it is fair to say that PT03 could have been concerned that I could judge her decision to use L1 and translation. This rationalising technique, in turn, indicates a dialectical relation between teacher decision-making and how such a decision teachers thought would be perceived by others, a kind of relations that shape the activity of teaching as a whole.

5.3.3.5 Drilling Student Pronunciation

One last theme that emerged from the observational data was drilling student pronunciation of the vocabulary items being taught. Drilling student pronunciation of the lexical items taught was found to be an unplanned (rather than planned) activity since it was not written up in the teachers' lesson plans. Two characteristics of pronunciation drill were identified based on the observational data. One was the teacher correcting the student's pronunciation and another the teacher asking the student to listen and repeat. As for the former, it was observed that the teachers, using a recast method, selectively corrected the pronunciation they deemed incorrect. In other words, not all incorrect pronunciation received immediate teacher intervention. The analysis of PT01's teaching records revealed that he made frequent corrections of his students' pronunciation when the latter spoke or read aloud a statement or statements. Excerpt 5.64 demonstrates how PT01 intervened when his student was reading cause-effect statements.

Excerpt 5.64

PT01: Ok. So listen carefully. So read the effect [statement].

S1: Effect: I got in trouble. A: I gave my mum a (xxx). B: I did my homework after school. And C: I /lid/ to my mum=

PT01: =/lʌɪd/ [to my mum.

S1: /lʌɪd/ to] my mum. (PT01-TR01@00:09:35)

As can be seen in Excerpt 5.64, a student pronounced the word “lied” as /lid/ leading PT01 to correct her immediately. During the recall interview conducted straight after the lesson, PT01 explained his rationale, especially why he was selective in terms of what type of pronunciation needed correcting. The following excerpt was taken from his recall interview.

> Excerpt 5.65
>
> I think pronunciation is important when it concerns intelligibility, when, when the other people=sometimes we can pronounce the word [inaccurately] but if the other people can understand, then pronunciation should be ok. But the confusion between /lʌɪd/ and /lɪd/ it's very far different. So I decided to correct that. And another thing is that the word ‘lied’ is a high frequency word, right? They're not technical word. So the word that she will be likely to use in everyday activities so she should be able to [pronounce] it correctly (PT01-ReINT01@01:43:49.39).

Remarkably, PT01 also rationalised his decision to correct his student’s pronunciation, using recast in this case, on the basis of his knowledge about word frequency and intelligible pronunciation, suggesting—as it appeared—that his selection criteria (which words would receive a pronunciation check) rested on two aspects: intelligibility and word frequency. This in turn reflected PT01’s knowledge base about vocabulary and vocabulary teaching, one that rests on the assumptions of corpus linguistics and World Englishes (reviewed in Chapter 2, Section 2.3).

Pronunciation drill was also found in PT02’s approach to teaching vocabulary, but unlike PT01, PT02 used a listen-and-repeat technique. How she conducted pronunciation drill is exemplified in Excerpt 5.66, extracted from one of her lessons, during which she was pre-teaching vocabulary items to prepare her students to read about Pablo Picasso.

> Excerpt 5.66
>
> PT02: Ok. [Name], what do you give us as the answer for No. 3?
>
> S1: (xxx)
>
> PT02: Yes. Mural=
>
> S1: =a painting or other work that is painted uh (...) directly on the wall or uh /seling/ (sic) (ceiling).
>
> PT02: Mural. Everybody. Repeat after me: Mural
>
> SS: Mural (PT02-TR01@00:30:12)

As can also be noted from this extract, there was a mispronunciation of the word "ceiling" which a student pronounced as /seling/. This mispronunciation, however, did not receive PT02's intervention. On another occasion, during the same teaching session, PT02 intervened in a student's pronunciation of the word "theme" which the student in question pronounced as /tiːm/. When asked why she chose to drill her students' pronunciation of vocabulary items and why she decided to focus on particular student pronunciation and not any other, PT02 explained as follows:

> Excerpt 5.67
>
> Um (...) I just want to make sure that they can use uh, they can understand the meaning of the word, but at the same time they can pronounce it correctly so that when they communicate uh everyone else can understand them easily. And wrong pronunciation can lead to different words. For example, the word 'theme' some of them might pronounce it as /tiːm/. 'Team' and 'theme' are different (PT02-ReINT01@00:08:20).

While she did not spell out explicitly why she ignored particular student pronunciation of lexical items, it could be inferred from the rationale presented in Excerpt 5.67 that her decision to focus on student pronunciation, like PT01, was also communication-oriented. In other words, PT02 would correct her students' pronunciation if she deemed such pronunciation could lead to communication difficulty.

One last illustration of pronunciation drills is from PT03's lesson. Like PT02, PT03 employed the listen-and-repeat technique to drill her students' pronunciation of the vocabulary items pre-taught before the main reading activity. The following excerpt extracted from her observed teaching depicts how PT03 conducted such drills.

> Excerpt 5.68
>
> PT03: Ok. Alright. So Let's just do some pronunciation work. Let's read the words together. No.1 Values.
>
> SS: Values /ˈvaljuːs/.
>
> PT03: Everyone. /ˈvaljuːs/
>
> SS: /ˈvaljuːs/
>
> PT03: /ˈvaljuːs/
>
> SS: /ˈvaljuːs/
>
> PT03: No. 2. Fate /feɪt/

SS: /feɪt/

(PT03-TR01@00:43:05)

These repetition drills continued with the rest of the words introduced in the pre-teaching vocabulary session. When asked for her rationale, PT03 explained her decision as follows:

> Excerpt 5.69
>
> Well, at first, at first I planned to read out the, the definitions and asked them to provide the words but, you know, as the lesson goes on I don't think that that is effective because they=their ability is not that high yet. Only if I give them like 15 minutes to, you know, read through the definition and then I start doing this technique (?) But [with] time constraint=I don't have time to (...) to ask them to read so uh doing pronunciation work, I think it's also important because I don't think without teaching how to pronounce these words they will get the correct pronunciation. And some of them even asked me to repeat that word again and some don't even, you know, give me the correct pronunciation after several times practising it. So I think drilling them pronunciation is important (PT03-ReINT01@01:54:59).

As can be seen here, PT03 attributed her decision on pronunciation drills to two factors. One was dealing with effective teaching which, she believed, otherwise would not have been the case if she had followed her lesson plan. Considering her students' language proficiency, PT03 replaced the planned activity (where the students would recall the target words if they recognised them from PT03's reading of their definitions) with pronunciation work. Another fact that led PT03 to decide on drilling her students' pronunciation was her belief in the importance of pronunciation itself. She felt necessary to train her students to pronounce words properly. The importance of pronunciation instruction as perceived by these pre-services resonates throughout their data and was linked to the emerging status of English as a lingua franca within the socio-political ASEAN context (under the framework of World Englishes). Because the discussion of pronunciation instruction relating to the pre-services has already been reported elsewhere (Lim, 2016) during the process of this thesis writing, I do not wish to repeat it here.

In this Section 5.3, I report on the analysis dealing specifically with the pre-service teachers' actual approaches to teaching vocabulary. As can be seen throughout this section, their approaches appeared to be both systematic and

complex. To recapitulate the scope of their practices, I present in Figure 5.2 a schematic representation of their actual approaches to teaching vocabulary. Different patterns of the arrows denote the level of occurrence of each strategy, read against the planned and unplanned vocabulary instruction. That is, the dotted arrows indicate the least used strategies while the solid arrows indicate the most used strategies comparing between the planned and unplanned activities. Lines connecting different strategies suggest that the strategies were employed together in explaining a particular vocabulary item.

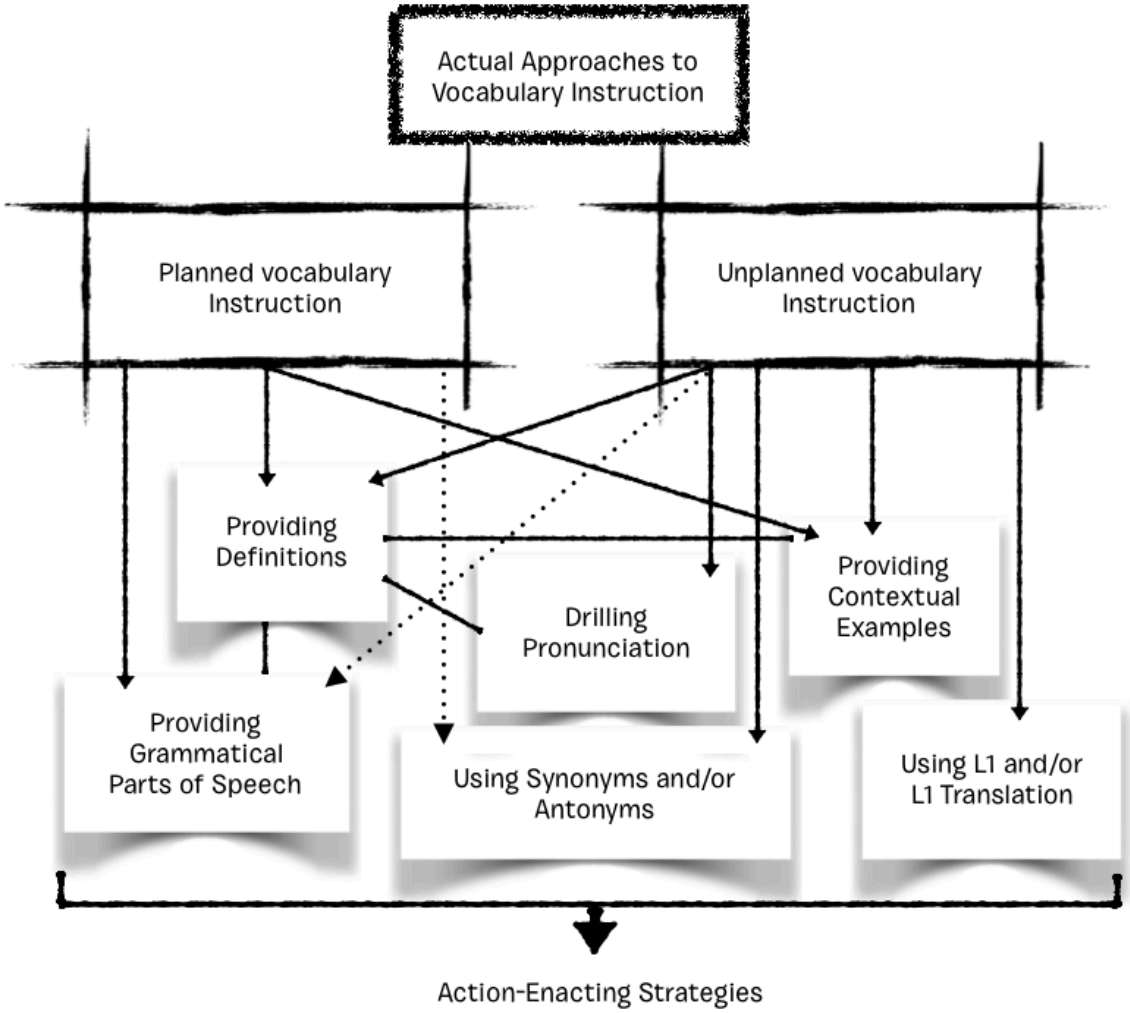

Figure 5.2 Schematic representation of the pre-services' actual approaches to vocabulary instruction

Figure 5.2 shows that these pre-service teachers approached vocabulary teaching in two ways. First, vocabulary items were planned as part of the lesson, generally taught prior to reading or listening activities. Second, vocabulary items were dealt with, albeit selectively, as the lesson went by. Such vocabulary items were focused

on because teachers believed that they prevented their students from understanding, and thus performing the language points that were the main focus of the lesson in question. These two approaches to teaching vocabulary were realised by a set of (inter)related strategies or techniques including supplying definitions of the vocabulary items in question, providing contextual examples, using synonyms and/or antonyms, using L1 and/or translation, and teaching pronunciations of the items (through, for example, repetition drills and recast). All of these strategies were used to enact the acts of teaching vocabulary, aimed to help the students understand relevant vocabulary the teachers believed the students needed to perform language tasks effectively and meaningfully. The use of these teaching strategies also showed to a certain extent what aspects of vocabulary knowledge the teachers perceived to be crucial that could assist their students' understanding of language skills (reading and listening, specifically). Seen from a CHAT perspective, these teaching strategies enact certain acts of vocabulary instruction (i.e., physical actions), which were based on the teachers' mental actions, but in turn influenced their ways of thinking about vocabulary instruction.

5.4 SUMMARY

On the basis of the analysis presented above, it is now possible to provide brief summaries and conclusions about the pre-service teacher case studies in this research. First, it can be noted that the teachers had considerable experiences as English learners, starting as early as four years old, and determining to learn English. Throughout their learning experiences, each teacher was exposed to different teaching and learning methodologies ranging from grammar-translation to communicative language teaching and from teacher-centred to student-centred approaches. These learning experiences enabled them to observe different ways of teaching English and provided a basis for their own beliefs and decision-making about teaching practice, thus supporting Lortie's (1975) observation about the importance of the apprenticeship of observation. Particularly for vocabulary instruction, the teachers reported that as they progressed to higher levels of proficiency, vocabulary instruction became more abstract and context-based. At higher levels, they came to learn vocabulary contextually including through guessing word-meaning from reading passages and doing cloze exercises, a strategy that, however, was not enacted during the lessons I observed. At lower levels (i.e., beginner, elementary, and pre-intermediate) they learnt vocabulary through more

concrete means involving visual aids such as drawings and pictures, word-definition matching, and word translation exercises. This fact appeared to shape the teachers' thinking about their practicum students who, although being university students, were generally beginners and elementary English learners.

Second, the teachers' experiences of learning English contributed to their motivation to become teachers. They reported that they decided to become teachers of English because they loved the language, an intrinsic characteristic of their desire to become a teacher. For PT03, particularly, her motivation was very much influenced by her learning experience at the Dream University, where she was personally inspired by her Cambodian teachers. As for PT02, her family background (with her family members all being teachers and educators) was part of her wish to become a teacher herself. All the three teachers saw teaching as a means to sharing knowledge with and transmitting knowledge to younger generations. Based on this underlying principle, the teachers defined a range of roles such as a facilitator, leader, motivator, monitor and/or role model–which characterises their teacher identities. Their experiences as language learners and teacher learners of English contributed to their developmental cognitions about various aspects of English language teaching and learning.

As the teachers began their teaching practicum, they were able to spell out their beliefs about English language teaching and learning. The teachers, especially PT01 and PT02, believed that teaching meant to help their students communicate in English effectively, and for the students to be able to do so, they needed to possess adequate English vocabulary knowledge. To these teachers, including PT03, successful communication essentially implied meaningful performance of the four macro-skills (i.e., reading, writing, listening, and speaking). In this regard, for their students to perform these skills meaningfully, the students needed to be taught vocabulary. In other words, the teachers perceived vocabulary as a fundamental support for learning language skills. Thus, drawing on their own learning experiences, the teachers used a number of techniques or strategies that had been effective for them as language learners, as well as those they learnt from their teacher training program.

Moreover, from the observational data and the teachers' recall comments, they were found to be motivated to teach vocabulary in ways that would support their students' learning of language skills. These ways included pre-teaching necessary items before reading, listening, writing, or speaking activities; and spontaneous vocabulary focus arising during the course of instruction, which the

teachers believed was essential to help their students understand the lesson points being studied. To a considerable extent, the teachers' beliefs and practice appeared to be in alignment, an 'individual' character of LTC. More importantly, however, the analysis focused on the effects my observations and interview questions might have had on the ways teachers rationalised their actions suggests further that teachers' cognitions and practices interact with a broader context beyond individual teachers' way of thinking. That is, how they acted and thought about vocabulary instruction was also shaped by what the teachers perceived others—in this case me as a researcher, interviewer and observer—would think about their actions and decision-making. This analysis, therefore, suggests the 'collective' nature of LTC.

This chapter reports on the findings relating to three pre-service teachers that made up the first group of the cases of the present investigation. Two other groups of the cases of the present investigation involve three novices and three experienced teachers. In the next chapter, I present the analysis of the novice teacher case study.

6 | THE NOVICE TEACHERS

In this chapter, I continue my analysis of the data collected from the three novices (NT01, NT02 and NT03) who made up the second group of the present cases. Like the pre-service cases, these novices' data were collected from the following major sources: (1) semi-structured interviews; (2) teaching observations; (3) observation field notes about classroom environments and teachers' behaviours that could not be audio-recorded; (4) recall interviews conducted immediately after teaching observations; (5) printed materials that the teachers used in teaching such as course outlines, textbooks, handouts and worksheets; and (6) my descriptive and analytical field notes. These novices were asked if they preferred the interviews to be conducted in Khmer or English. All of them opted for the English language as the medium of the interviews, and English was also used as the medium of their instruction in all the classes I observed and the language of all documents collected.

The analytical framework and analysis procedures performed on these data were the same as those applied in the case of the pre-services. The detailed procedures were laid out in Chapter 3, particularly sub-sections 3.3.3 and 3.3.4. Emerging from the analysis were four main themes: (1) the teachers' sociocultural backgrounds including their histories of English learning and teaching, (2) their reported approaches to vocabulary instruction, (3) their actual approaches to vocabulary instruction, and (4) their situated practice of vocabulary testing and assessment. These four themes, and their sub-themes, are presented below.

6.1 THE TEACHERS' SOCIOCULTURAL BACKGROUNDS

Background information about the three novices was collected from their first interviews. In terms of their gender, NT01 and NT03 were female teachers and NT02 was a male teacher. References will be made to their respective gender throughout this chapter. The teachers were new recruits, in their early twenties, recently graduated from their BEd in TEFL. They were teaching at the institution where they took their degree program (i.e., Dream University), and their students included freshmen, sophomores and junior undergraduates enrolled in either BEd in TEFL or BA in English for Work Skills programs. (The descriptions of these programs can be

found in Chapter 4.) Before I continue to describe their teaching experience in the present context, in the sub-sections that follow I briefly outline their histories of learning English, their motivation to become teachers of English, their identities as NNES teachers, their professional training and development programs, and their English language teaching experiences, all of which were based on their interview accounts.

6.1.1 History of Learning English and Motivation to Become a Teacher

Prior to their BEd in TEFL program, the teachers had spent a number of years learning English. NT01 recalled that she began learning English when she "was young but not before starting learning Khmer language". She had studied at different private English classes conducted in Khmer for short periods of time, resulting in her English being "not academically structured", until she started her English major undergraduate program at Dream University (NT01-INT01@00:01:53). For NT02, based on his recollection, he started learning English as early as when he was five years old, which he described as "my real English learning journey". NT02 remembered that he started off learning English with his mother who in her free time would "coach me [...] teach me English" before he was sent to a local English school that NT02 viewed as "a sub-standard school". He recalled, "I remember back then there were very few good English teachers, and some of the English teachers who um ran the classes did it for the money only" (NT02-INT01@00:08:30). Likewise, NT03 described her previous English learning as "not that effective", and like the other two novices, NT03 also began her English learning when she was young. As she recalled, it began when she was in kindergarten where she learnt "very normal words and how we start conversation" that was taught by Khmer teachers.

As these teachers continued to recall and reflect upon their past learning events, they appeared to hold negative views about their own learning experiences especially when they were taught by Khmer teachers rather than by "native speakers", the latter also commonly referred to by these teachers as "foreign teachers". NT01 depicted the image of her past teachers as the controllers in the language class where "we just sit and listen to the teacher, doing practice". She went on to comment that "foreign teachers [...] use different methods to teach like some teachers prefer to talk and talk, and some teachers prefer to do practice and [make us] study on our own" (NT01-INT01@00:02:46). However, NT02 appeared to be more critical of his past learning experiences. The following excerpt from his first interview expresses how he viewed the experiences:

Excerpt 6.1

And I remember that looking back they had a lot of mispronunciation problems. Their teaching approach wasn't scientific enough. There wasn't a lot of progress check or follow-up um (...) materials or activities. And I remember pronouncing the word 'about' /əˈbaʊt/ as /əˈbāo/ yeah. So there were a lot of fossilisation but the only [reason] that I got out of fossilisation was because of Cartoon Network, yes (chuckles). So, Cartoon Network um (...) provided me this access (...) this high level of exposure to authentic language. So I started to question the difference between how we actually speak English to native speakers and how my non-native English speaker teachers actually taught me. And then I, I, I just followed the path of how you (...) you would pronounce words um (...) by the native speakers (NT02-INT01@00:09:32).

As can also be seen in the rest of this chapter, NT02's negative comments such as the one expressed in Except 6.1 were prevalent throughout the data collection, and emerged as a theme unique to NT02.

For NT03, who studied with both Khmer and NES teachers, it was the study with the former that provided her negative experience: "I did not really learn much from [them] until I moved to study with the native speakers because they had like very nice methods of teaching. So, it was very effective" (NT03-INT01@00:03:40). NT03 went on to explain why she found "methods" used by the Khmer teachers to be less effective than those used by the NES teachers she studied with.

Excerpt 6.2

Um (...) I think when I was um (...) was studying with the (...) Khmer teachers, they always focus on kind of like big grammar thing. They always try to get us to follow the rule, remember the rules and things like that, but when I was studying with the um native speakers, they kind of like make things a little bit fun and I was young as well so um their way of teaching like we kinda like sometimes play game or do some fun activity to learn the grammar so I think that way hmm they get us to remember more, they get us to create the sentence on the spot so I thought it was effective for me (NT03-INT01@00:04:35).

Excerpt 6.2 also indicates that NT03 did not like a traditional teaching approach, a preference she adopted in her own class teaching vocabulary. As will be seen later,

however, it was her Khmer teachers at Dream University who she said inspired her to learn English and to become a teacher of English.

In short, as far as their early English education was concerned, these teachers found it quite a negative learning experience and it seemed that they held more favourable attitudes towards NES teachers than towards their Khmer teachers, especially when they were in either primary or secondary school levels. In particular, for NT02 access to native language meant access to authentic language, which he regarded as essential input because he believed he learnt English to speak with native speakers, a commonly received view about the status of English in Cambodia (T. Clayton, 2006).

The teachers continued their English language education at tertiary level and decided to become teachers of English as they enrolled in the BEd in TEFL program. They attributed such motivation to different origins. NT01, for instance, initially considered two possibilities for her future career, because she held two degrees (the other being a joint-degree with majors in Business Management and Finance and Banking). Eventually she decided to become a teacher because "I like interacting with people. That's it" (NT01-INT01@00:00:44). For NT02, who also held another degree (majoring in Economics), his reasons to become a teacher were more complex, comprising both intrinsic and extrinsic orientations. He said, "the reason why I actually became a teacher of English was because of passion partly but also was because of um (...) family environment". For the latter cause, "teaching runs in the family" with his grandfather, father and mother all being teachers. During the first interview, he spelled out the environmental influences over his decision to become a teacher:

> Excerpt 6.3
>
> So I guess teaching runs in the family. And um (...) as a boy growing up, I always look up to my father because um he shares a lot of his teaching experience with me (...) teaching experience. I also spent time at [my father's workplace] playing basketball and went to his classroom. So I guess that in a way I was influenced and socialised into um (...) wanting to become a teacher (NT02-INT01@00:04:38).

NT03, however, had never wanted to become a teacher even though she had "the passion" for the language. Her decision to become one was largely influenced by her favourable learning experience at Dream University, as she was inspired by her

(Cambodian) lecturers. The following excerpt, extracted from her first interview, outlines her reasons:

> Excerpt 6.4
>
> I never thought I would want to become a teacher but then when I stepped into the Dream University, it's like people here inspire me to teach. Well, the way they teach here is not just like some other teachers at public school or anything. They really focus on their students' learning. They really wanna help. They really wanna contribute to the human resource in our country. I think I got inspired. And because of the passion [for] this language as well, it makes me like unconsciously want to become a teacher here. [...] I also want to contribute to the development of the country, and as you know, we're going to have 2015 [ASEAN economic] integration where language uh English language will be used. And we see that in our country many people can speak English but not as accurate, so I want to try to help strengthen them, their ability, their capability of using English (NT03-INT01@00:06:10).

It appears that NT03's tertiary English language education to a great extent contributed to her decision to teach the language. NT03's motivation to teach English, as Excerpt 6.4 shows, originated from both intrinsic (i.e., the love of the language) and extrinsic (i.e., being inspired by her own teachers and having a desire to contribute to her community) sources.

6.1.2 Professional Education and Teaching Experience

Having decided to become a teacher of English, these novices were enrolled in the BEd in TEFL program at Dream University. The BEd in TEFL program was intended to train Cambodian teachers to teach English at secondary school level. However, as already explicated in Chapter 4, sub-section 4.1.3, due to the shortage of Cambodian human resources, highly qualified Cambodian graduates with skills in English could be recruited to teach English to undergraduates (Moore, 2008, provides a case study in this context). Therefore, the recruitment of these teachers was a testament that they were among the highest qualified teachers.

At Dream University, the three core subjects (Applied Linguistics, Teaching Methodology, and Foundation of Education) and the six-week practicum formed the structure of their professional training program (Chapter 4 also describes in details this program and its historical development). Regardless of these components' intended objectives, the teachers perceived them differently based on their

personal experiences. Seen from CHAT perspectives, these perceptions were the teachers' constructions of their activity settings. To enable them to construct their own activity settings, during their first interviews, the three novices were asked to recall their professional learning experiences, and to reflect upon how they had contributed to the development of their teaching careers. As fresh graduates, these novices were able to recall their experience during the program. Generally, the teachers evaluated the program positively pointing out the relevance of each subject to their actual teaching. For instance, NT01 said she loved Applied Linguistics the most because it focused on the elements of the English language. Likewise, NT02 and NT03 viewed Applied Linguistics and Teaching Methodology as the most practical subjects, in terms of language teaching, classroom management and techniques of teaching.

These novices, particularly NT01 and NT03, appeared to be quite committed to engaging themselves in the profession. For instance, NT01 envisaged that she would still be teaching in the next five or ten years because "teaching is very uh fun, [but] challenging. And teaching, teaching is one of my favourite jobs, but not the most favourite, the one thing I always strive for, but it's what I will do in the next five or ten years" (NT01-INT01@01:20:05). NT03, likewise, projected that she would still be teaching in the next five years because "I'm kinda passionate about teaching". With their strong determination and commitment, these teachers showed promise to develop professionally in the field of ELT. It was brought to my attention later during the writing of this thesis, in mid-2015, that NT03 was awarded a highly prestigious scholarship to study in the UK for a master's degree in English language teaching. On the other hand, NT02 did not talk about teaching as his future career although he did express his love for the profession. In fact, as it shows later, through follow-up emails after the conclusion of my data collection, I was informed that NT02 left the profession for a corporate position. Nonetheless, during the member-checking process where NT02 read and commented on the final report of his data, NT02 maintained that his love for the teaching profession remained.

Upon their successful completion from the BEd in TEFL program, these teachers were recruited to teach at Dream University. At the time of this study, while NT01 and NT02 were in their first year of teaching, NT03 was in her second year (although NT02 reported that he began teaching private classes when he was in Year 2 of his BEd in TEFL program). At the time of data collection, while NT01 and NT02 had just finished their first semester teaching sophomore and junior

undergraduates, respectively, NT03 had just finished her third semester teaching sophomores. With regard to the classes I observed, both NT01 and NT02 were teaching language skill-based academic courses, respectively known as Core English 2 (CE2) and Core English 3 (CE3) while NT03 was teaching a content-based academic course, Literature Studies 2 (LS2). While NT01 and NT03 were teaching sophomores, NT02 was teaching juniors. The teachers also reported that they were teaching other academic courses at the time. From the teachers' descriptions of those courses, the perceived objectives of the courses were identified. Table 6.2 provides a summary of these teachers' experiences and how they viewed the instructional objectives of each course. These data were collected from their first interviews and are reproduced here from their verbatim descriptions.

Table 6.1 A summary of novice teachers' teaching experiences and their perceived course objectives

	Duration	Subject	Course objectives as perceived by the teachers
NT01	1 SEM	Core English 2* Literature Studies 2	- Understand the English language in a very general context like conversation, travel, sport etc. - Focus on the elements of English like grammar, language, vocabulary, a little bit of writing, and reading - Focus on student English - Use the content-based program to teach them [English] - Read the stories and let them learn English from the stories. So it's (...) content-based. (NT01-INT01@00:04:33)
NT02	1 SEM	Core English 3	- Highlights the four macro-skills: speaking, listening, writing and reading [with] a lot of emphasis on reading and speaking and listening (NT02-INT01@00:15:13)

NT03	3 SEM	Core English 2 Literature Studies 2	- [Focus on] basic English, everyday use of English [including] grammar, vocabulary, idiomatic expressions - Mainly focus on the language [...] linguistic analysis (NT03-INT01@00:08:07-00:08:37)

*The number denotes the class level, e.g., CE2 is Year 2 Core English class.

In their teaching context, all teachers handling the same academic subject worked together to a certain extent to develop the course outline, led by a teacher usually with more teaching experience in that subject. This more experienced teacher was called the subject co-ordinator (as described in sub-section 4.2.1.3 of Chapter 4). The course outlines determined, among other things, the course descriptions, course objectives, and course assessment criteria. I collected all these documents, and their analysis showed some level of consistency between the teachers' views about the course objectives and those specified in the written course outlines. The following excerpts are extracts from the course outlines for the CE2, CE3 and LS2, respectively, taught by NT01, NT02 and NT03. They codified course objectives for which the teachers were supposed to aim; those focusing on vocabulary are highlighted in italics.

Excerpt 6.5

Course objectives for Core English 2

- To continue providing [students] with time to practice the four macro skills so that [they] have opportunity to further sharpen those skills
- To equip [students] with knowledge of grammar and vocabulary at the upper-intermediate level as a bridge to assist [them] to master the four macro skills
- To continue offering [students] chance to be exposed to a particular amount of natural language necessary for basic everyday communication in English (NT01-WR08@03/03/14)

Excerpt 6.6

Course objectives for Core English 3

At the end of the course, the students will be able to

- Use all the tenses and other grammatical points properly and effectively
- Achieve fluency and accuracy in writing and speaking and advance their critical thinking in reading and listening skills

- Acquire advanced vocabulary through various themes and use them in appropriate contexts
- Communicate in spoken and written English fluently, accurately, and confidently
- Comprehend authentic listening and reading texts critically and effectively (NT02-WR04@06/02/14)

Excerpt 6.7

Course objectives for Literature Studies 2

> The subject enables students to increase their motivation to interact with a text and to increase their reading proficiency. Moreover, it also enables students to demonstrate a level of competence to discuss critically related literary issues and terms. Students will become effective, independent readers with a capacity to analyze and respond critically to what they read. They will work more independently to discuss and share ideas within group work and presentation. They will be able to expose themselves to different cultures via literary works and to develop an ability to identify linguistic features of texts (both fiction and non-fiction) (NT03-WR04@03/03/14).

The purpose of comparing these codified objectives and the teachers' perceived objectives of the courses they taught (Table 6.1) was to understand how these novices interpreted the curriculum, thus translating it into their actual practice. This allowed me to interpret how the teachers constructed their teaching and teaching contexts, as well as 'settings', which in turn would indicate the level of interrelationship between the teachers' mental actions and physical actions and between such actions and the collective activity (ELT) vis-à-vis vocabulary instruction.

As can be seen in Excerpts 6.5, 6.6 and 6.7, vocabulary was a focus in all these courses although in LS2 it was not specifically spelled out. Excerpt 6.7 from the LS2 course outline presented earlier suggests that vocabulary (or linguistic features more generally) would be minimally focused on in this course. However, NT03 believed otherwise—that the subject "mainly focus[es] on the language [...] linguistic analysis" (emphasis added). She further noted during her second interview that:

Excerpt 6.8

For me, I kind of direct them to language more [than the literary aspect]. [...] That is more of my goal because our degree [program] focuses on the language, so we learn through that [literary text] and analyse the language. And also when they write the implication [of the stories] or anything like that, I always kind of lead to um to correct their language, not just focus on the content (NT03-INT02@00:03:00).

The ways NT03 worded her accounts (e.g., "For me" and "That is more of my goal") about how she perceived her academic course reflects the personal and individualistic aspect of her cognitions (as conceptualised in Figure 2.3 in Chapter 2). As a result, there seemed to be a dissonance between NT03's 'personal' interpretation of the course objectives and what was codified in the course outlines, the latter reflecting the collective nature of conceptions of the academic course in question. As will be seen later in this chapter, this dissonance created tensions for NT03, who herself struggled to make sense of how she was supposed to act on vocabulary teaching and learning in the LS course.

For the CE courses, a careful reading of the italicised discourses in Excerpts 6.5 and 6.6 indicates how vocabulary was supposed to be taught (differently) across the two levels. For CE2 (Excerpt 6.5), vocabulary was treated as "a bridge to assist" students in mastering the four macro skills. In other words, students needed to learn vocabulary before they could perform language skills (reading, writing, speaking and listening)—a deductive vocabulary learning approach. In contrast, as Excerpt 6.6 shows, for CE3 vocabulary was supposed to be learnt from context (i.e., theme-based) and to be used in context, suggesting an inductive vocabulary learning approach. Comparing these codified course objectives with the teachers' interpretations, there appeared a considerable level of consistency.

There was, however, another document which functioned as a more overarching statement about the principles on which the courses were developed, thus reflecting an even more collective nature of these academic courses. This institutionally developed document (or culturally developed tool, in a CHAT framework) was the Student Information Booklet for the academic year 2013-2014 (Student Information Booklet, 2013). Collected as part of the data set, this 'policy' document was analysed to identify how it expressed the descriptions of the courses required for the completion of the BEd and BA programs and how it exerted its influence over the course outlines and the teachers' interpretations of the

courses themselves. The following excerpt comprises extracts, taken from the booklet, relevant to the three courses handled by the novice teachers:

> Excerpt 6.9
>
> Excerpt 6.9a Core English 2 Course Description
>
> This unit focuses on the improvement of students' macro skills: reading, listening, writing and speaking, and knowledge of grammar, e.g. the tense system, gerunds and question forms. It also stresses the ability in using more complicated vocabulary.
>
> Excerpt 6.9b Core English 3 Course Description
>
> The instruction of this subject is based on New Headway Advanced (New edition) by John Soars, Liz Soars and Mike Sayer, which concentrates on advanced grammatical and lexical aspects and covers all the four language learning macro-skills. Students are required to complete homework, assignments, tests, etc. and to give oral presentations in addition to their semester examinations.
>
> Excerpt 6.9c Literature Studies 2 Course Description
>
> The main aim of the subject is to assist students to become effective, independent readers with a capacity to analyze and respond critically to what they read. It provides intensive and extensive practice in reading and speaking, and in analysis of language, which complements the Core English subject. Students will also develop knowledge of major literary genres of English Literature and an ability to identify linguistic features of texts (both fiction and non-fiction) (Student Information Booklet, 2013, p. 6).

For both CE2 and CE3, vocabulary was one of the main instructional activities. These descriptions were well in line with their respective course outlines that also stressed the importance of vocabulary instruction. On the other hand, while it was clear that LS2 also necessarily focused on vocabulary, that is, students of this subject were supposed to gain vocabulary knowledge that could be used to complement their learning of the CE course, the LS2 course outline (Excerpt 6.7) appeared to focus more on the literary than on the language aspects. The analysis of these institutionally developed material (the Student Booklet) and the collaboratively teacher-made documents (the course outlines) together with the teachers' interpretations of the courses they taught revealed consistency in the course objectives for NT01 and NT02, but contradictions for NT03. This analysis also

showed that the teachers' perceptions of the courses they were handling interacted with policy or curriculum papers (e.g., course outlines and the booklet), and at the same how the teachers appropriated and made sense of their working contexts, thus highlighting their sense of teacher agency.

In the process of data collection, the teachers were also asked to discuss their identities being NNES teachers. I move to describe the analysis of this aspect next.

6.1.3 The Novice Teachers' Identities

Throughout the interview process, the teachers were also asked to reflect on themselves as NNES teachers—an aspect of their identities. The questions centred around what the teachers perceived as the differences between an NES and an NNES teacher, emphasising the advantages and disadvantages of being one or another by relating such attributes to the teachers' working contexts. For instance, during NT01's interviews, I first put to her a question asking for her views of the advantages and disadvantages of being an NNES teacher. The following extract reports how this was done and what NT01 perceived herself as an NNES teacher:

Excerpt 6.10

I: Alright. Hmm one of the facts about teaching English in Cambodia is that most teachers are non-native speakers of English, most of them are Cambodian teachers just like us. Hmm what do you think are the advantages and disadvantages of this fact?

NT01: The (...) disadvantage is of course we are not native so (...) we cannot speak or understand English hmm like the native speakers do, but one of uh=but we have many advantages. First of all, we have the same experience as our students' so that we can use our experience to, to help them in their studying. And [the] second one is that I don't think that non-native speakers of English have=lack ability in teaching English because some=because we know more about grammar, vocabulary, how the language is structured more than the native speakers [do]. So if we have to learn=if we have to teach English as [a foreign] language, I think it's good for our students [to have a teacher] as a non-native.

I: So I take that you consider that non-native English teachers can be effective teachers?

NT01: Yes.

I: Ok. In teaching vocabulary specifically if we are to compare between non-native English speaker teachers and the native ones, who do you think are better teachers?

NT01: Hmm it's hard to say because for the non-native [sic] speakers they have knowledge of vocabulary in themselves=oh for the native [I mean]. For the non-natives I believe they have limited vocabulary knowledge but they can help the students to understand the words using the strategy that is effective for them as a non-native speaker of English themselves. So you have one advantage and one disadvantage (NT01-INT01@00:39:13).

As the excerpt shows, by weighing up the advantages and disadvantages of being an NNES, NT01 exhibited her self-efficacy beliefs and confidence in performing her profession. When asked specifically about teaching vocabulary, NT01 appeared to show low self-efficacy beliefs and confidence when she compared herself to an NES teacher. She commented further that "in terms of English proficiency, probably" she felt inferior to the NES speaker, "but in terms of teaching methods, in terms of [building] rapport with the students, I think that I do better" (NT01-INT02@00:27:44).

As he compared himself to an NES teacher, NT02 similarly pointed to the differences in terms of English proficiency, which shaped his identity as a teacher of English. I present below an extract from his second interview where NT02 was asked to define himself as a NNES teacher:

Excerpt 6.11

I: What does it mean to you to be a non-native English speaker teacher?

NT02: What does it mean to me? (asking surprisingly)

I: Yeah

NT02: That is a big question. Well first of all, I am painfully aware (laughing out loud).

I: Painfully!

NT02: Yeah painfully aware that I'm teaching a language that is not my mother tongue to a group of people who aspire to have FAIRLY good or average command of it (emphasis original). That's how I see myself. That's my identity. Uh I don't feel inferior. Uh in some areas I do feel inferior, some areas.

I: What are those areas?

NT02: (laughs) because I'm not a native speaker I=no matter how much I try, I will never be able to develop that kind of instinctual understanding of the pragmatic side of the language entirely. Sometimes my students uh ask me certain questions I can't explain uh in-in definitional terms and-and yes in contextual terms too. But I can never like go to the extreme in terms of explanation. And I feel limited sometimes. But as you can see, here at Dream University we prioritise non-native speaker teachers. If I were to work at [name] I would feel differently because I will be working uh, uh with other native speaker teachers and I will feel a lot inferior, but because here it's, it's a different setting, so I don't think it's much of a problem (NT02-INT02@00:33:34).

An interesting part of NT02's accounts was where he explicitly indicated that his NNES teacher identity was positively shaped by the context in which he worked. This is yet another piece of evidence showing that teachers navigate and negotiate their identity within their working situations as they make sense of their work setting. This finding invokes a key concept within sociocultural theory which claims that identity formation is navigated and negotiated in situ, for example Ha (2008, particularly Chapter 4).

NT03 also perceived these differences between an NES and NNES teacher such as herself. She said:

Excerpt 6.12

Because we're not native speakers so whenever we want to teach one language point we do a lot of research. We try to prepare ourselves because we of course want to answer our students' questions correctly [...] So because of this, let's say it's a fear maybe because we are non-native we don't=we always consider that we don't know much [...] The disadvantage uh of=we're not=we're non-native speakers well sometimes because we don't=probably we don't have that broad knowledge as the native speakers (NT03-INT01@00:35:31).

Both NT03 and NT02 pointed to the fact that NES teachers had broader linguistic knowledge because "the native speakers, they are exposed to the language more" (NT03-INT01@00:36:58) and because "they've (the native speakers) been exposed to all types of texts whether they be literature, poem, technical texts, whatever. I think they've been exposed to these and they understand [the language] more quickly" (NT02-INT02@00:39:59).

Another interesting finding was how these teachers discussed their identity as NNES teachers from their students' perspectives. NT03, for instance, commented that "it seems like they're (NES teachers) always valued more than the non-native speakers. So, it's like whenever it comes to student trust, it seems that we receive less trust from the students" (NT03-INT02@00:18:23). NT01, likewise, talked about "the first impression".

> Excerpt 6.13
>
> I'd like to talk about the first impression. Uh the students and other people might not feel uh what should I say=the first impression is that um native speakers should teach English, not the non-native speakers. But to me being a non-native uh English teacher has=like it means a lot to me. We have a lot of advantages because [if] we look at the students that we teach, the students are just the same as [whom] we used to be so we know a lot and understand about the students better than the native English speakers, native English teachers (NT01-INT02@00:26:05).

Also exemplified in Excerpt 6.13 was how NT01 reflected on her prior learning experience and reconstructed it to form her confidence and self-efficacy in teaching English. This finding suggests that teacher identities are highly socially constructed, a view taken up by the sociocultural perspective adopted in this study. As these teachers were asked during their interviews to discuss the advantages and disadvantages of being an NNES teacher, they reconstructed their teacher identities, and as has been seen, one can observe tensions but at the same, sense of agency upon which these teachers based to legitimise themselves as a teacher of English.

Summary of the teachers' sociocultural backgrounds

Section 6.1 describes the novices' background information dealing specifically with their histories of learning English, motivation to become a teacher of English, teacher identities, professional training, and English language teaching experiences. As is shown, these teachers had had quite an extensive number of years regarding their personal language learning experiences which appeared to have contributed to their motivation to become a teacher themselves. Throughout their learning histories, together with their current language teaching experiences, their teacher identities were constructed and shaped by the contexts in which they lived and

worked. This background information in part reflected the teachers' sociocultural situations of their own development.

In the following section, I direct the analysis more extensively towards the teachers' mental actions. This analysis revealed yet another core theme: the teachers' reported approaches to vocabulary instruction.

6.2 REPORTED APPROACHES TO VOCABULARY INSTRUCTION

The findings about these teachers' reported approaches to vocabulary instruction emerged mainly from the analyses of their first and second interviews during which the teachers were asked to comment on the nature of vocabulary instruction and about how they believed it was best to teach vocabulary to their students. The teachers first expressed their attitudes towards the importance of vocabulary teaching and learning before they reported on what they did and would do in their classes vis-à-vis vocabulary instruction. In this section, I present three sub-themes that reflected the teachers' reported approaches to (or mental actions about) vocabulary instruction: (1) vocabulary instruction as a goal-directed (mental) action as reflected through their attitudes towards the role of vocabulary in language learning and use, (2) best approaches to vocabulary instruction, and (3) their perceptions about vocabulary testing and assessment.

6.2.1 Vocabulary Instruction as a Goal-Directed (Mental) Action

In responding to my question regarding their views about vocabulary and vocabulary instruction, the three novices pointed out that vocabulary was essential in language learning as it was needed for students to perform various language skills and instructional activities. For NT01, for instance, "vocabulary is the base" on which "the students have the chance to improve what they are poor at" (NT01-INT01@00:57:02). NT01 viewed vocabulary as an ability for her students to be able to read, write, speak and listen–a view well in line with her course objectives (as indicated in Excerpt 6.5). It should be noted that NT01's expression "the chance" reflected the wording of CE2 course's objectives, reflecting how she appropriated her course's curriculum policy. NT01 also identified vocabulary teaching closely with the goal of the program she was handling. She said, "the main goal of this degree is to help them (students) improve their English proficiency, so vocabulary is needed. It's very important" (NT01-INT02@00:20:20). This continued to reflect her construction of the settings (the course, the program and the policy) in which she worked and learned to teach (Smagorinsky, 2010). This is a strong evidence

suggesting that teacher cognition, or teacher learning more generally, is socially constructed.

Like NT01, NT03 believed that vocabulary was a basic requirement for her students to construct sentences in order for them to be able to converse. She considered that:

> Excerpt 6.14
>
> vocabulary as one of the [main] things that we need to know because when it comes to learning language, [when] you want to create sentences, you need this vocabulary, you need that word or this word [...] so everything comes from vocabulary. We need to know the words in order to create a sentence and then use it in conversations and things like that (NT03-INT01@00:45:36).

She believed that vocabulary supported grammar or structural construction. She reported further that there was always vocabulary focused activity in her teaching, as can be seen in Excerpt 6.15 below:

> Excerpt 6.15
>
> even though the main focus is on, let's say, reading, but still I always try to include like one or two minutes to talk a little bit about vocab, that word, this word, to explain the meaning and explain the use of it, in whatever activity or in whatever skill they're focused on (NT03-INT01@00:46:31).

This is what NT03 understood as integrative language teaching with vocabulary instruction being part of the main teaching activities, however scant. As she put it in the following excerpt:

> Excerpt 6.16
>
> So after reading the text, after answering all the questions, tackling the hmm (...) the main language points in that article, I still introduce the words that I think or I ask them which words they don't know. And then we always have this one particular like 10-minute or 20-minute session to talk about the vocabulary and the use of it. So, that's how I teach. [...] To be honest it'll [i.e., vocabulary] never be the main focus actually, but like I said vocabulary is something that I always try to integrate [into my teaching] so in this one article, we will talk about this word, that word but it's never just about vocabulary (NT03-INT01@00:47:18).

As can also be observed from the above quote, NT03 reported that she would introduce vocabulary learning activities after language skill activities (e.g., reading). Although NT03 emphasised that vocabulary was never the main focus of her teaching in LS2, her comments clearly showed that teaching language rather than the literary aspects was the main objective.

NT02, who described himself as a "vocabulary nerd", strongly believed that vocabulary needed to be taught explicitly during class time. He claimed that:

> Excerpt 6.17
>
> I always draw their attention to it (vocabulary). I think the noticing effect is really important. Not everyone=you can't count on your students to pick up the vocab [...] When it comes to words you can't count on them to pick them up on THEIR OWN without you giving examples of how to use it or any contexts, without anything at all for them to uh remember (emphasis original) (NT02-INT01/P2@00:40:59).

NT02 stressed the role of the teacher, particularly as being the resource person. As he further reported, NT02 always felt the need to include vocabulary items in his teaching in order to "capitalise on the language aspect" of the students' learning. In Excerpt 6.18 below, NT02 exemplified how he introduced new vocabulary to his students because he believed it was relevant for them, but the selection of vocabulary items was essentially determined by the theme of the unit—which he viewed as limited.

> Excerpt 6.18
>
> Let me talk about my CE class. So, in Unit 3, the title is Big Business, so I felt like there was a chance for me to capitalise on the language aspect (...) the vocabulary. So, I introduced to them some handouts of business vocabulary in use so that they know uh words like 'royalty', 'commission', 'the business hit the wall', 'going bankrupt', 'corporate downsizing', 'redundant', 'employment benefits', so I think that these vocab are not too advanced and they're really relevant uh (...) at least, if not to the practicality of the working, but at least conceptually. If they are in the corporate world, they need to know uh... words like 'the business cycle' and stuff like that (NT02-INT01/P1@01:37:15).

As a "vocabulary nerd", NT02 provided an analogy of how important vocabulary was for him, as well as for his students, to be able to use the language. He compared

vocabulary in language communication to “bullets” in the “battle”. Excerpt 6.19 is from part two of his first interview.

> Excerpt 6.19
>
> I think that uh vocabulary is power. Just like when you go to battle you have to take up arms and make sure that you got enough bullets loaded into your barrel. Yeah I mean when you communicate you need vocab. So it’s just like your bullets. I love that. I just love vocab because it’s my bullets. And sometimes you have the best bullets, the silver bullets, the golden bullets. We have preferences for words. Words come alive. That is the beauty of language. But that’s from my personal point of view. I don’t know about my students. I try to instil in their mind that kind of philosophy. Sometimes, it just doesn’t sink in yeah because they, they are so into Korean pop culture. They’re still into Khmer music (laughs). But I think it is really significant in all forms of discourse, whether it’s written communication or spoken communication, uh without vocab you are limited. Yeah you are limited in just so many ways, uh in ways that you [are] probably the one listening and your partner being the one talking. Or you in a way that (...) you might be able to express yourself but not be able to express yourself at your fullest. Or in a way that you express yourself in an awkward way or express yourself in a way that you might get your message misunderstood. There are just so many challenges when you don’t have the vocab (NT02-INT01/P2@00:15:16).

NT02, as Excerpt 6.19 shows, appraised vocabulary highly in language use. He emphasised a view of how communication could be misunderstood or reduced to a one-way route when one did not possess rich vocabulary or “the best bullets”. As can also be seen in this excerpt, NT02 also implied the importance of intrinsic motivation in learning the language. That is, students should identify themselves with English rather than Khmer or Korean cultures, but at the same time vocabulary was not something his students could “pick up on their own”. This indicated NT02’s dynamic views about how vocabulary should be learnt and taught. As will be discussed later in this chapter, student motivation was what NT02 (as well as NT03) perceived to be the most powerful source of influence in the success of his teaching.

This sub-section describes the teachers’ positive attitudes towards vocabulary instruction in their class. It was through positive attitudes that vocabulary instruction was determined as a goal-directed (mental) actions intended

to realise the activity of English language teaching in the teachers' contexts. Together with their beliefs about how to best approach vocabulary instruction, described in 6.2.2. below, these teachers' attitudes formed their reported approaches to vocabulary instruction.

6.2.2 How to Best Approach Vocabulary Instruction

In addition to their views on the importance of vocabulary instruction in an ELT curriculum, the teachers also talked about how they perceived as best to approach vocabulary instruction in the classroom context. As they did so, the teachers revived their personal learning and teaching experiences, a reflection of their apprenticeship of being language learners themselves. It was through such reflection that they constructed historically and ontogenetically their beliefs about their approaches to vocabulary teaching and learning. A central theme emerged from the analysis of the teachers' interviews: learning and teaching vocabulary in context.

Carter and McCarthy (1988, pp. xi-xii) once argued that "vocabulary teaching should pay greater attention to the role of vocabulary in naturally-occurring text [i.e., vocabulary in discourse], and in particular to the ways in which vocabulary is used to negotiate meanings across speaking turns and sentence boundaries". The novice teachers in the present study strongly believed in this role of context in vocabulary instruction. However, while the Carter and McCarthy's quote appears to place more emphasis on vocabulary use, the novices in this study stressed both the learning and the use of vocabulary in context in interconnected ways, highlighting the collective nature of teacher-teaching and learner-learning–or the teaching perspective and learning perspective as reviewed in Section 2.3 of Chapter 2. As is shown below, the analysis of these teachers' interview accounts (as well as their recall interviews conducted immediately after the teaching observations) revealed that context in the teachers' sense of the term encompassed several dimensions in relation to how vocabulary should best be taught and learnt. These dimensions were identified and categorised into: (1) teaching, learning and using vocabulary in situational context, (2) teaching and learning vocabulary with linguistic context, and (3) context in vocabulary testing and assessment. To help establish the comparison between the cases presented later in Chapter 9, it is worth noting here that (1) and (2) are findings similar to those found in the case of the pre-services presented in Chapter 5.

6.2.2.1 Teaching, Learning and Using Vocabulary in Situational Context

This theme emerging from the analysis of the teachers' interview accounts reflected the teachers' beliefs about how vocabulary should be learnt and used. The term 'situational context' was arrived at from the teachers' accounts. They used the term 'contexts' to refer to topics or themes of the lessons and to examples adopted to establish situations in which vocabulary items could be used. In other words, to them, word meanings were attached to the situations in which they were used in either spoken or written texts, hence vocabulary in situational context.

For instance, NT01 differentiated learning vocabulary in situational context from learning it in isolation, the latter she believed denoting a rote-learning process or learning by memorisation. She believed also that her students needed to show that they were able to use learnt vocabulary meaningfully.

> Excerpt 6.20
>
> I would ask them to read uh a text and ask them to uh guess the meanings of the words in context, and let them understand that the word in context is not alone by itself. It has to be=it has to have meaning related to the words around them. I wouldn't ask them to memorise. I would ask them to write examples related to that word, and so make them understand the examples rather than remember the definition itself. [...] I ask them to read more and write more so I tell them that studying vocabulary is not only about definition and part of speech. [It's] more about understanding the word and how you can use the word in different contexts [...] When we learn vocabulary, I talk about the examples. I talk about experience with using the words so that they can absorb not only the words but also the contexts (NT01-INT01@00:13:26).

As can be seen in Excerpt 6.20, NT01 emphasised the importance of situational contexts (the when, where, and how a particular word could be used). NT01 defined "contexts" in terms of topics or themes such as conversation, travel, or sport (as also reflected in Table 6.1 regarding her perceived objectives of CE2). In her conceptualisation, "context" also referred to the broader social environments in which the learning and teaching occurred. This conceptualisation of context appeared to shape how she would decide on which vocabulary items to teach and how to teach them. The following excerpt taken from her second interview illustrates how NT01 defined context in relation to issues within a broader socio-

political environment, such as the ASEAN economic community (AEC) or the ASEAN integration as it is generally referred to, and to her instruction.

> Excerpt 6.21
>
> Context is very, very important for them (her students) to improve their general knowledge with English language. So when we talk about each context, we have to make sure that each context or each topic that we're going to help them learn is very important for their future. For example, we talk about society, we talk about ASEAN integration. We talk about politics. We talk about economy. Those are the contexts that help them build their foundation of general knowledge for the reading, for the, the (...) for their enhancement (NT01-INT02@01:07:34).

To NT01, teaching English also meant for her students to be able to use the language in various situations relevant to them. That is, NT01 saw language learning and broadening general knowledge as two sides of the same coin. In other words, she believed that for her students to use English effectively, they should also possess such knowledge about ASEAN or AEC. In fact, such conceptions appeared to have influenced by her active roles in ASEAN youth programs.

Situational context was also perceived by NT02 as an important condition for learning and using vocabulary, as well as for vocabulary testing, a sub-theme presented in sub-section 6.2.3. Identifying himself as a "structuralist [with] personal code", which meant he was an organised person as far as his teaching was concerned, NT02 reflected on how he learnt vocabulary and how he related that experience to his teaching. Excerpt 6.22, extracted from the second part of his first interview, captures his conception of teaching vocabulary in situational context.

> Excerpt 6.22
>
> I talked to you about my personal code that I expect myself to be able to use words, put the words in, into immediate context [...] I think that one unique aspect to that is that during testing (of my students), my progress test 1, I would put those vocab in context whether it's passage completion or sentence completion. But usually it's sentence completion uh because I write my test except for the reading and a few other parts of the test. So I tell my students to try to use the vocab in that context, in that example. Ok. For example, 'confessional'. I taught them 'confessional'. So, 'confess'=so I start with 'what is confess?' To confess? And they say, yeah, 'to admit' and stuff like that. So,

> ‘what is the noun? Confession’. So, ‘what is the adjective? Confessional’. And I say, ‘are you sure?’ They say ‘Yes’. I say, ‘you are wrong’. Confessional is still a noun. So in Christianity=I also introduce to them a lot of cultural aspect=I love to read=well, ‘confessional’ is like in a church you have this booth in which you can confess your sins to the judges. So, a confessional is a noun. Remember that, and a confessional is like either a booth that you can be in or simply any sort of space that you can’t see, space that allows you to express yourself. I say space. We could=probably it can be online confessional like in a chatroom. And on the test I would have uh ‘Skype and other social networking sites have become the perfect virtual [blank] for (...)’ And they learn it. (Chuckles) They got it right (NT02-INT01/P2@00:00:18).

NT02’s perception about how context helped his students learn vocabulary, as Excerpt 6.22 shows, was rather complex. To explain just one word, “confessional”, NT02 provoked students’ knowledge about grammatical parts of speech of the word in question before he went on to provide situational contexts to help his students understand it, and as he reported he seemed proud of what he did because his students did well in the test. This particular mental action about vocabulary teaching reflected NT02’s knowledge, be it KAL, PPK, BAK, TLA or Teaching Expertise as discussed previously in sub-section 2.1.2 of Chapter 2.

In a similar fashion, NT03 also considered it effective to learn vocabulary in situational context. She commented as follows:

> Excerpt 6.23
>
> I think it’s pretty effective. Like I said, it is not about studying words. We have to put [them] in context to make students understand better [...] If we’re able to teach the word and then make the students uh construct the sentence by using the word, for example whenever they have one experience of putting it into their sentence, they will be able to understand more [about the word in question]. That’s how I think. So when we study vocabulary it’s not always like ‘Ok this word means this, this word means that’. Try to put it in the context. Try to get them to use it at the moment and then give feedback on that whether it is right or wrong, for example (NT03-INT01@00:52:24).

As she went on to relate to her experience of teaching LS2, NT03 gave an example to illustrate how different contexts could change the meaning of the word “peculiar”.

Excerpt 6.24

For example, in LS usually the words always mean different things in LS, for example the word 'peculiar' it means 'strange'. So, that is one of the choices that I give them [in a multiple choice question], but then in that context of the story The Hitch-Hiker, it doesn't mean 'strange'. It means 'skilful'. So, uh the students, when they see 'strange' they just go ahead and choose the word because they know the word means 'strange.' But, in this context, it doesn't mean so. So, that is why I just want them to be more alert [to] how one word means in different contexts. So I try to put this kind of exercise in the test (NT03-INT01@00:54:49).

NT03's conception of the term 'context' here was bounded by the story she taught to her students. That is, a word meaning was defined by the story context.

These novices defined vocabulary in context, as shown above, to mean vocabulary in situational contexts—situations in which words were used. Moreover, they also pointed out that vocabulary should be learnt with linguistic contexts, another dimension of vocabulary in context conceptualised by these teachers. It formed a sub-theme to which I now turn.

6.2.2.2 Teaching and Learning Vocabulary with Linguistic Context

This sub-theme emerged from the analysis of the teachers' discussions about approaches to vocabulary instruction. They pointed out a number of linguistic aspects needed for effective vocabulary learning. These linguistic aspects included the parts of speech; collocations, synonyms, and antonyms—together referred to as word associations (Schmitt, 2000); L1 translation; and pronunciation. The teachers believed that with these linguistic aspects, their students could learn vocabulary more effectively, enhancing their vocabulary retention. I present these linguistic aspects in turn.

Attitudes to Teaching Parts of speech

Teaching the parts of speech of a word was considered by these novices as an important aspect of vocabulary instruction, especially when this aspect of vocabulary was seen as one of their students' major challenges in using English. NT01, for instance, commented that her students only learnt vocabulary "slightly", as opposed to in-depth learning (Zhong, 2012), and that they needed to learn the parts of speech more intensively. This comment is captured in the following excerpt

extracted from her first interview during which she exemplified how her students struggled to differentiate between 'wealth' and 'wealthy':

> Excerpt 6.25
>
> Hmm their challenges in learning vocabulary, first of all, they only learn it slightly (...) like only [learn] the definition, especially not the part of speech. When I ask [about] the part of speech of the word, they don't, they don't know. Like 'wealthy' and 'wealth'. 'Wealthy' is adjective and 'the wealthy' is the noun. But when they write [their answers] in the test, they use it [wealthy] very wrongly. So they don't know which part of speech is to be used with which word (NT01-INT01@00:32:03).

NT01 emphasised the importance of quality learning of vocabulary; that is, a word's part of speech should not be studied 'slightly', which could result in expression or sentence structure problems.

NT03 also believed that learning vocabulary should go beyond learning its basic meaning or definition. She considered learning parts of speech, or what she called "family words", could help her students pay closer attention to this grammatical aspect of vocabulary when they put the words into use. She expressed this thought during her first and second interviews, reproduced in Excerpts 6.26 and 6.27, respectively.

> Excerpt 6.26
>
> Usually we introduce the words, uh the pronunciation, the meaning of course. Sometimes when we have time we kind of like go one step further to finding the family words. For example, we don't just study the adjective but also the noun, the verb and things like that. So then it can help them, because students these days, they don't really pay attention to the parts of speech. Like in the sentence they use whatever they want. They think of adjective, they put adjective when that part [of the sentence] is supposed to be the verb, for example. They don't really pay attention to the parts of speech, my students particularly (NT03-INT01@00:31:17).

> Excerpt 6.27
>
> So, I would see [...] whether they understand this word as a noun, adverb or adjective, and whether or not they're going to produce the right definition. For example, I gave the word 'tribal' which is adjective. But then most of them=they actually know what it means=but then when they write the definition, it's in

> noun like 'a group of people blah blah blah' which is a noun. So, because my students didn't really pay attention to the parts of speech, when it comes to vocabulary, that's why I did it [test them this way]. And a lot of them didn't do well. They actually got the meaning, but they were careless in writing the definition (NT03-INT02@00:07:28).

As is evident, both NT01 and NT03 held complex thoughts about how vocabulary could be taught. They both believed that learning a word also involved learning its grammatical functions because such knowledge would allow their students to construct grammatically correct sentences in either speaking or writing. NT02, on the other hand, did not elaborate much on teaching parts of speech. Recall that in Excerpt 6.22 he talked about teaching the word "confessional" and that he pointed to the differences between the noun, adjective, and verb forms of the word. However, it was because the word itself "confessional" takes a form (i.e., spelling) that could be mistaken as being an adjective that NT02 felt the need to make it clear for his students in this regard. As is shown below, NT02 considered it more important to teach word associations in his advanced English class.

Attitudes to Teaching Word Associations

NT02, who taught an 'advanced' class, emphasised through his interviews the importance of teaching word associations (e.g., collocations, synonyms and antonyms). As he reflected upon his teaching of vocabulary in his CE3 class, NT02 talked about how the adjective and adverb collocations should be focused upon in his lessons. Excerpt 6.28 below is extracted from the first part of his first interview and captures his views.

> Excerpt 6.28
>
> [...] For adverb collocation, you can search in any book [but] we don't have the exact uh exercise that you want. I think that in Year 1 and Year 2 [for Core English subject] you have 'adverb sub-degree'. It's also part of adverb collocation, but um somehow in Year 3 our 'adverb collocations' tend to focus more on 'adverb' and 'adjective' but not about 'adverb' and 'adjective of degree'. So, for example, 'infinitely' should go with 'infinitely good', 'infinitely patient'. For example, 'sorely' goes with 'sorely needed', 'sorely missed'. So, it has something to do with um 'adverb' and 'adjective', but the 'adjective' is not the 'adjective of degree', gradable or non-gradable. And because of that, there is a problem, because when I checked most of the 'adverb collocation' books,

there's so much emphasis on 'gradable and non-gradable adjectives' (NT02-INT01/P1@01:15:19).

While Excerpt 6.28 indicates NT02's focus on word associations as part of his vocabulary instructional activities, it also shows NT02's complaint about the limitation of available teaching resources. NT02 continued to lament that such a limitation, together with other conditions, prevented him from realising his beliefs about what he should teach his students, as shall be seen in Chapter 8.

NT01 also viewed teaching word collocations as an important linguistic aspect of vocabulary instruction. She believed that:

> Excerpt 6.29
>
> [...] what I have to=they (the students) don't study clearly each word and they don't know the connection of each word [...] I want them to know more than [the parts of speech]. I want them to know the collocation especially. They are very, very poor at collocation. So, they don't know which word is used [with] which preposition and other words. So, I, I encourage them to, to refer to collocation dictionary. I ask them to read more and write more. I tell them that studying vocabulary is not only about definition and part of speech. [It's] more about understanding the word and how you can use the word in different contexts (NT01-INT01@00:32:03).

She further identified her students' limited understanding about "the connection of each word especially synonym and antonym" (NT01-INT01@00:32:45). With a linguistic context, she believed, her students could remember the word being learnt for later retrieval. Previously it was shown that NT01 was concerned about her students' lack of quality or in-depth vocabulary learning because they studied only "slightly". Here, again, she expressed her concern about vocabulary being not studied "clearly" by which she meant her students failed to learn synonyms and antonyms. As a result, they failed, in her view, to grasp a fuller understanding of how words were used in different contexts. These concerns reflected NT01's consistent thoughts about what constituted vocabulary knowledge, in turn indicating her own understanding about this subject-matter.

For NT02, synonyms were challenges in vocabulary teaching because English was not his first language, and for him to teach these aspects effectively, "you have to check the dictionary to make sure that you know the word. You know how to use it, see if there are synonyms to it (NT02-INT01/P2@00:03:56). He commented further that "if I want to introduce a synonym of a word, then I write it down" (NT02-

INT02@01:33:46). Likewise, NT03 considered it a great difficulty to teach synonyms.

> Excerpt 6.30
>
> I think to teach vocabulary effectively, [one] has to be near native or probably native because like I said even though the synonyms have similar meanings, we need to [know] when to use them. If we're not aware of that, then we're going to teach our students in the wrong way as well (NT03-INT01@00:39:23).

NT03 was also cautious about teaching synonyms because she believed that although words were synonymous, they could not be used in the same context. As she stated, "when [the students] are trying to figure out the new words by using synonyms, they are not aware of the fact that synonyms, [while they] mean similar, cannot really be used in this context" (NT03-INT01@00:29:25). She commented further that:

> Excerpt 6.31
>
> so when we design the [test] items=I can see that some teachers, probably they're short of time or something, so they kind of just put three [options], two as antonyms and another as synonym. [...] [But] sometimes the synonym cannot be used in that context either. So, if we're careless in designing the uh items, the students won't be able to get much out of it as well. And then they are not going to be able to use what they practice in class um in that test (NT03-INT02@00:04:47).

More analysis in relation to vocabulary testing and assessment is shown in sub-section 6.2.3. What follows, however, are the last two linguistic aspects of vocabulary in context the novice teachers believed were essential and beneficial in their instruction: using L1 translation to teach vocabulary, and teaching the pronunciation of the word in question.

The Roles of L1 Translation

The use of L1 translation was seen as conducive to vocabulary learning although the teachers stated that it should be kept at a minimum and in accordance with the students' level of proficiency. For NT03, the use of L1 translation was envisaged only when her students could not understand English explanations properly and when the use of Khmer instruction or L1 translation allowed them to grasp the learning situations better. In her words:

Excerpt 6.32

If they are not that proficient, actually understanding in Khmer helps them understand in English, so they kind of like do the translation things in order to understand that particular situation so that they can infer what the word means, for example. If we try to give them the meaning in English, they're probably not gonna get it [either]. So it kind of depends on the students' level (NT03-INT01@01:05:27).

As can be seen here, L1 translation was seen as a scaffold to support the students' comprehension of situational contexts within which vocabulary was taught and learnt, thus suggesting how NT03 conceptualised the interrelationship between situational context and linguistic context in vocabulary instruction.

NT01 also reported that she used L1 translation in her vocabulary lessons. Like NT03, she believed that "words need to be translated in Khmer so that we can talk more about those words" (NT01-INT01@01:21:58). However, the teachers stressed that it was English that should be the medium of their instruction because, as NT01 put it, "I want them to think in English. If you wanna think in English, read [in] English. [If you want to] understand English, interpret [in] English" (NT01-INT01@01:21:11). NT02, on the other hand, commented that he only used translation when words were "hard to explain in the English language". To learn this kind of words, he said, "first you got to grasp the concept, the Khmer word first, like ដំឡូងមី (Khmer translation for cassava). It's cassava" (NT02-INT01/P2@00:47:44). As NNES, these teachers considered their ability to use the students' L1 as an asset in teaching and perceived L1 translation as contributing to their students learning.

Although these teachers believed that L1 translation could support their students' vocabulary learning, they did not encourage their students to use bilingual dictionaries because they considered such dictionaries as non-standard, which, if used as reference materials, could lead to ineffective learning outcomes. NT02, for instance, stated that "I don't like the bilingual dictionary. [...] It's sub-standard" (NT02-INT01/P1@00:46:57). All the novices believed that English-English monolingual dictionaries should be encouraged for learning vocabulary.

Teaching Pronunciation

The pronunciation of a word is an aspect of its (linguistic) forms (Nation, 2001). The teachers all considered their students' ability to pronounce learnt words an

important linguistic aspect; they reported that when teaching a word, it was preferable that its pronunciation was also focused on. NT01, for example, commented that "I just want them to focus on each word, like when you say something, you need to make sure that what you say is correct [phonologically]" (NT01-INT02@00:12:02). NT01 clarified later that the correct pronunciation meant the students "can say something clear and understandable", which "doesn't have to be like [native speakers' pronunciation]". She believed that understandable pronunciation should be adequate and her students did not have to possess the native speaker's intonational feature—a suprasegmental or prosodic feature of pronunciation. She exemplified as follows:

> Excerpt 6.33
>
> For example, native speakers might say 'I don't want you to go' /ʌɪ dəʊnt wɒnt juː tə gəʊ/ but when [the students] say that same thing, they can say /ʌɪ-dəʊnt-wɒnt-juː-tə-gəʊ/ (in a monotone manner) (NT01-INT02@00:13:50).

However, NT01 was particularly concerned with her students' failure to articulate proper stress at word level, another suprasegmental feature of pronunciation (J. Jenkins, 2000; Pennington, 1996). For example, if the students pronounced "innocent" as /ɪˈnʊsənt/, communication could break down. She said:

> Excerpt 6.34
>
> I don't (...) I don't think=like people don't, they don't understand. The native speakers [don't understand]. /ɪˈnʊsənt/, it's so wrong. It's /'ɪnəsənt/. This is right. And it really affects their way of communicating. [Not only] for this one word, but also other words (NT01-INT02@00:14:52).

NT01 claimed that she "always focus[es] on pronunciation", because she viewed it an important aspect of language and "that [focusing on pronunciation] influences my teaching. The students are aware that I'm very [conscious] about their pronunciation. They tend to work on their pronunciation. It improves a lot" (NT01-INT02@00:36:59). However, for ASEAN context which NT01 herself was concerned about with regard to teaching English, English is increasingly recognised as a lingua franca or as an international language, and according to J. Jenkins (2000), word stress is not one of the phonological challenges that would cause communication problems, a claim supported by Deterding's (2013) analysis of English communication between ASEAN peoples. In this regard, given that NT01 was particularly concerned about teaching word stress in association with vocabulary

instruction, her approach could be in vain. In turn, it reflects NT01's lack of awareness of certain phonological features that actually need instructional focus.

NT02, likewise, also reported that part of his vocabulary lesson time was "dedicated to pronunciation training" (NT02-INT02/P2@00:13:50). As he described how he taught pronunciation, NT02 revived his professional learning experience, as shown in the following excerpt:

> Excerpt 6.35
>
> [...] I did teach them linking sounds, like in AL [Applied Linguistics], we have co-articulation and the elision, the elision of sounds, and the schwa sounds like you don't pronounce 'mountain' as /ˈmaʊnteɪn/ but the T-A-I-N is /tɪnt/. You know, 'if your reputation is tainted, then it becomes spoiled'. That is A-I-N-T. It's /eɪnt/. But, /ˈmaʊnteɪn/? You don't say /ˈmaʊnteɪn/. It becomes /ˈmaʊntɪn/, and the schwa is the /ɪ/ (NT02-INT02@01:03:05).

Like NT01, NT02 was concerned with the stress patterns of the words being taught. NT02 observed that most of his students struggled with this phonological area, for example, pronouncing the word "economics" as /ˌiːˈkənɒmɪk/ rather than /ˌiːkəˈnɒmɪks/ (NT02-INT02@01:07:14). Given the potential waste of time spent on phonological features that do not really cause communication problems, the implication arrived at from this particular finding is clear. These practising teachers need to be well informed of the current development in the field of pronunciation instruction in the context in which their practice occurs.

As far as pronunciation instruction is concern, NT03 staked a similar claim: that she "take[s] pronunciation pretty seriously, even the pronunciation of each vowel [and consonant]", these being segmental features of pronunciation. As she exemplified, NT03 also pointed out how the Khmer phonological systems could interfere how her students learnt the English consonant sounds. As she put it:

> Excerpt 6.36
>
> For example, letters 'V' and 'W'. If we think about it, if we compare [them] to Khmer, of course they're pretty much the same as [the pronunciation of] the letter 'វ'. When it comes to English, if it is 'V' then you're going to kind of do your mouth in a different way, and for 'W' in [another] different way. So I also point that out to my students. Whenever there're similar sounds, I also point that out to them so that they will [...] produce the right sounds with the right articulations (NT03-INT02@00:29:24).

NT03 also observed a general tendency among her students mixing up with "some certain sounds like /θ/, /tʃ/, /ʃ/, /s/ [...] They prefer to use /s/ only [for every other sound]. So, it's hard" (NT03-INT02@00:33:33). Unlike NT01's and NT02's concerns, NT03's was more warranted because segmental features such as consonant and vowel sounds (except 'th' /θ/ and 's' /s/) are important phonological features that require instructional focus (J. Jenkins, 2000).

To summarise this sub-section 6.2.2.2, these novice teachers perceived a number of lexico-grammatical and phonological aspects (e.g., the parts of speech, word associations, L1 translation, and segmental and suprasegmental features of speech) to be viable linguistic contexts for in-depth vocabulary learning to occur. They believed learning vocabulary items within their situational and with linguistic contexts helped ensure effective vocabulary instruction and enhance their students' vocabulary retention. Such beliefs reflected a complex image of vocabulary instruction of these novices.

The last sub-theme of the teachers' mentation about vocabulary instruction dealt with the teachers' perceptions about vocabulary testing and assessment. This sub-section is presented below.

6.2.3 The Teachers' Perceptions about Vocabulary Testing and Assessment

As the novice teachers who taught their own classes and were responsible for testing and assessing their own students' language performance, they also expressed their views about how vocabulary could be assessed. They commented that for vocabulary knowledge to be measured effectively and meaningfully, vocabulary test items should be context-sensitive and production-based. It will become clear from their interview accounts how the concept of context in vocabulary testing is related to that used to describe vocabulary instruction presented in sub-sections 6.2.2.1 and 6.2.2.2. All three novices shared similar concerns as to how context could be incorporated in both in-class tests and school-semester examinations.

The teachers believed that the current practice of vocabulary testing used in their courses was ineffective in measuring their students' vocabulary knowledge. They critiqued the use of such "controlled-testing techniques"—to use NT02's phrase—as multiple-choice question (MCQ), passage completion (with or without word clues), and word-definition matching formats. They argued that vocabulary tests should also be production-based, allowing the students to actually use the learnt words. NT01, for instance, reported that she used multiple-choice questions

to test vocabulary, but "I don't think we can tap into their knowledge directly" (NT01-INT01@01:10:30). She pointed out that she needed "other methods [...] to make it more challenging". She also believed that for vocabulary tests to be effective, her students needed to show they were able to use learnt vocabulary in speaking: "vocabulary is not only about working on the test. [It's also] about you speak it out [i.e., using it in speaking]. You know the collocations and stuff like that". She further noted that while she was satisfied with the way vocabulary was tested in the semester examinations (generally using MCQ or matching techniques), for in-class assessment she planned "to spend some time working on [the students'] vocabulary, assessing their vocabulary based on their speaking" (NT01-INT01@00:20:46).

NT02 indicated that he used passage or sentence completion as a way to assess his students' vocabulary knowledge, but, like NT01, he believed that this technique was limited. He suggested that vocabulary tests should be more production-based because "the main goal is to get them to know the words and use the words correctly" (NT02-INT01/P2@00:12:22). He referred to such a production-based test as a "less controlled" technique. In his words:

> Excerpt 6.37
>
> A test is a combination of techniques really. Basically it's controlled techniques, you know, passage completion, synonym substitution, something like that. I do want to make it less controlled but I haven't had the time to (NT02-INT01/P2@00:30:31).

More importantly, for NT02, vocabulary testing items should be constructed within a context so that they could be more challenging and meaningful. NT03 also believed that context was integral to vocabulary testing. She emphasised the importance of context in vocabulary testing as follows:

> Excerpt 6.38
>
> Whenever we design the items we will need to be very, very careful. [We] usually have the MCQ and what we, what we test the students is like the context. I mean the meaning of the words in context, for what they really mean. [...] Sometimes, the synonym [i.e., the answer choice] can be used in that context [i.e., the context being tested] but sometimes that synonym cannot be used in that context either. So, if we're careless in designing the items, each item, students won't be able to get much out of it. And they are

> not going to be able to use what they practice in class in that test (NT03-INT02@00:04:47).

Because these teachers reported that they also designed test items by themselves, they placed high emphasis on the role of context in ensuring the validity of the test items, and as NT03 warned, if context was not taken into proper consideration, students would fail to practise what they learnt.

In addition, NT03 also acknowledged that matching or MCQ testing techniques were insufficient to "reflect the fact that [the students] know the words or not", thus calling for production-based testing techniques. This view is captured in the following excerpt extracted from her second interview:

> Excerpt 6.39
>
> Well I think matching or multiple choice [test] is not that effective. Students sometimes, they can just guess and then they got it correct because there're options given already. Matching is even easier, sometimes. So, it doesn't really reflect the fact that they know the words or not. Usually for my test in Semester 2, I sort of like give only the words and then I asked them to write their own definitions. So, I will see whether they understand this word as a noun, adverb or adjective, and whether or not they're going to produce the right definition [thus reflecting their understanding about its meaning]. [...] I think the multiple-choice section [in the exam paper] should be changed by now because it's not that effective (NT03-INT02@00:07:28).

Although the teachers were sceptical about these testing formats in delivering effective outcomes, their use endured. Section 6.4 reports the practice of vocabulary testing and assessment. However, as have been seen here, these novices used context as a concept in vocabulary testing and assessment in a very similar manner they used to describe their approaches to vocabulary instruction. That is, vocabulary should be tested in appropriate situational contexts, which allowed students to enact their knowledge of linguistic aspects of the learnt vocabulary. What appeared to be a more crucial concern, however, was the teachers' perceived lack of production-based vocabulary testing, the embodiment of which, the teachers believed, would ensure an effective process of vocabulary instruction.

Summary of the novices' reported approaches to vocabulary instruction

From the discussions in Section 6.2, it is possible to summarise these novice teachers' complex cognitive processes about vocabulary instruction and testing/ assessment. To visualise them, I present in Figure 6.1 a schematic representation of the teachers' mentation about this area of language instruction–reported approaches to vocabulary instruction. Dotted lines indicate the teachers' the perceived lack of approaches to vocabulary instruction or testing.

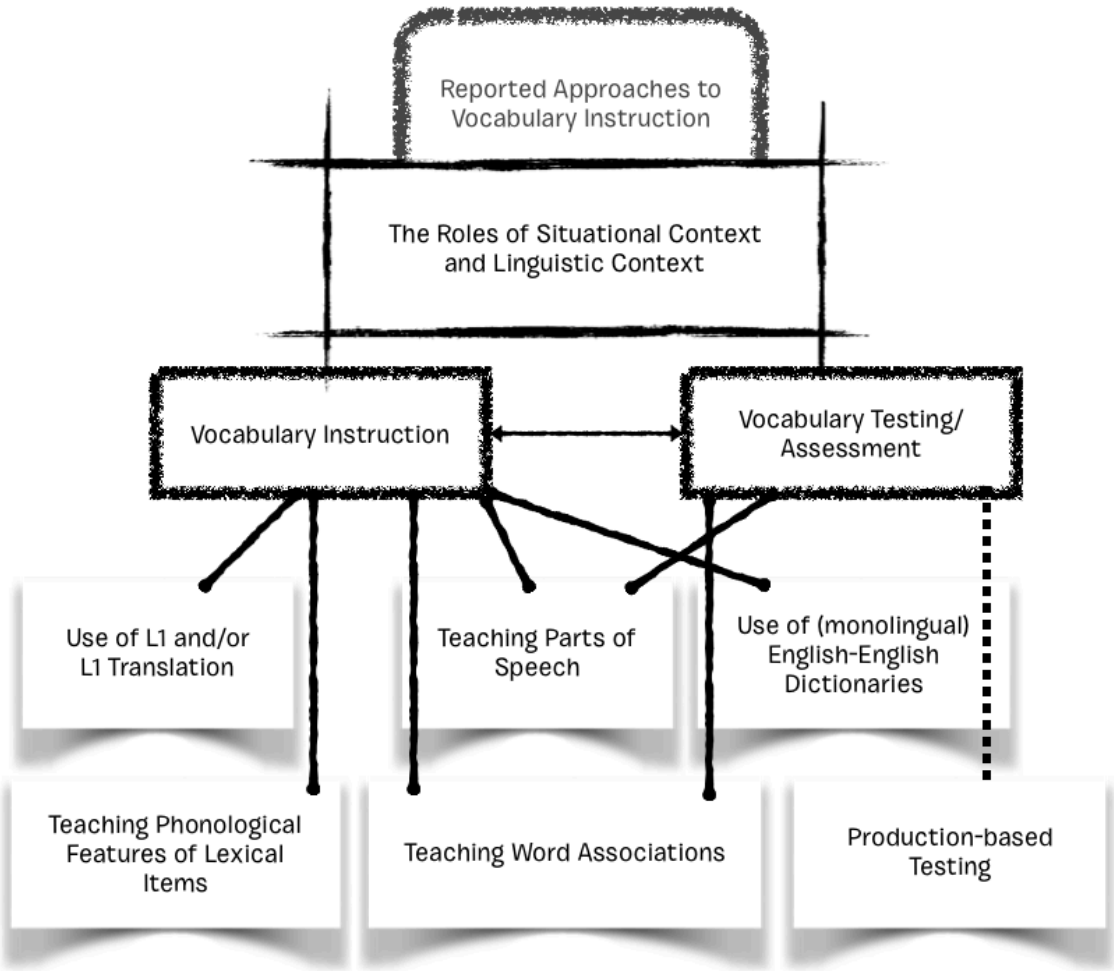

Figure 6.1 Schematic representation of the novices' reported approaches to vocabulary instruction

Figure 6.1 displays the novice teachers' edifice about vocabulary instruction. As it shows, these teachers, despite their minimal teaching experience, appeared to hold sophisticated thought systems about vocabulary instruction. They believed that vocabulary instruction should be embedded in context, a notion perceived by the teachers to include both situational contexts and linguistic contexts. While the

linguistic aspects of vocabulary covered grammatical parts of speech, word associations, L1 translation and pronunciation, the situational aspects of vocabulary instruction were determined by topics or themes (for example, shopping, sports, holidays or business), reported to be realised through contextual explanations, for instance. Vocabulary testing and assessment were perceived as part of the teachers' daily practice of vocabulary instruction. The teachers were particularly concerned with how vocabulary could be effectively tested or assessed. They believed that context also played a pivotal role in vocabulary testing; therefore, they proposed that both linguistic and situational contexts should also be realised in test design. More importantly, the teachers perceived a need for more incorporation of production-based vocabulary tests into the assessment schemes so that, they believed, a more comprehensive measurement of their students' vocabulary knowledge could be obtained. All these perceptions formed a network of teachers' mental actions about vocabulary instruction and testing.

As a brief case comparison between the novices and the pre-services, respectively Figure 6.1 can be read in juxtaposition with Figure 5.1. As can be seen, these teachers were of similar views about the role of vocabulary instruction in their ELT curriculum and how vocabulary should be approached. The differences, however, lie in how these two groups of teachers foregrounded their mental actions about vocabulary instruction. As Figure 5.1 indicates, the pre-services appeared to orient their thoughts towards classroom instructional activities when they spelled out their beliefs about vocabulary instruction, hence the comparison between in-class and outside-class activities. The novices, on the other hand, as indicated by Figure 6.1, appeared to foreground their thoughts about vocabulary instruction on the basis of a conceptual framework or tool, that is, the roles of 'context'. This is not surprising, however, because as practising teachers these novices must have had a broader conceptual basis on which to operate whereas the pre-services were understandably concerned with classroom conducts. More comparative analysis is provided in Chapters 8 and 9. In the remainder of this chapter, however, I continue to outline the analysis of the novices' actual practices based on observational data (Section 6.3) and their practice of vocabulary testing and assessment based on written documents (Section 6.4).

6.3 ACTUAL APPROACHES TO VOCABULARY INSTRUCTION

Based on the analyses of the audio-recorded teaching and the observation notes I generated during my non-participant observations, I present in this section findings

about the teachers' physical actions in relation to vocabulary instruction. I also draw on the data from the follow-up recall interviews conducted immediately after the observations and the collected printed materials such as teacher-made worksheets and handouts, to triangulate the findings. As can be seen, throughout this section I also draw references to the teachers' mental actions presented in the preceding section in order to map connections between their cognitive systems and practical approaches, which shed light on the triadic relationships between thinking, doing and sociocultural contexts in which thinking and doing occur.

Over a period of six months, I was able to observe and audio-record four to eight lessons for each novice teacher. It was the teachers who determined which lessons I could observe. Due to the overlapping timetable, the number varied. Recall that while NT01 and NT02, respectively, were teaching CE2 and CE3, NT03 was teaching LS2. Following the procedures used in the case of the pre-services, the analysis of the observational data was performed, and three major themes were arrived at relating to how these teachers approached vocabulary instruction in their classes. These themes were: planned and unplanned vocabulary instruction, in which both explicit and embedded vocabulary activities were embodied, and the strategies the teachers used to enact vocabulary instructional actions.

Between these two, embedded vocabulary instruction was found to be more prevalent than explicit vocabulary instruction which was associated closely with planned instruction. Unlike the pre-service teachers, no written-up lesson plans were collected from these novices. The teachers reported that they planned their lessons in their "head" as they were familiar with how to conduct them. Besides, the fact that they had to follow a textbook for their respective course could also explain why these teachers found it unnecessary to write up lesson plans. As a result, the use of explicit vocabulary instruction was generally identified retrospectively from the follow-up recall interviews during which the teachers were asked to rationalise their actions and decisions. Nonetheless, there was one source that could indicate the teachers' planned vocabulary activities: the teachers' printed handouts and worksheets made available to me during the observations.

6.3.1 Planned Vocabulary Instruction

Deliberately planned vocabulary instruction was evident from the textbooks and the teacher-made vocabulary worksheets designed to pre-teach certain vocabulary items before listening and/or reading activities and to test vocabulary knowledge after the students' performance of these skills. However, the number of such

worksheets was minimal, with no more than two such worksheets produced by the teachers over the whole period of my observations. NT01, for instance, produced only one such worksheet in her CE2 lessons during my seven observations. It was designed to pre-teach a number of vocabulary items she selected from the passage her class would be reading later on. That worksheet was designed in a word-definition matching format, a portion of which is reproduced here to show how NT01 planned to teach vocabulary as a pre-reading activity.

Excerpt 6.40

Unit 7: Getting on together

Selected vocabulary: Match the words in A with the definitions in B.

A	B
1. to erode	A. to lose sth or have sth taken away from you because you've done sth wrong
2. to afford to do sth	B. to annoy or irritate sb
3. to spoil	C. so upset and frustrated because you don't know what to do
4. to live in a bubble	D. to give a child everything they want in a way that has bad effects on them
5. to get on sb's nerves	E. small special piece of food

[...] (NT01-WR01@04/03/14)

The students were asked to work individually before they paired up to work out the meanings of the phrases in Column A. Having checked that the students had done the matching exercise, NT01 went on to check their answers as a whole class activity. It was during this comprehension check that NT01 decided to explain more about each phrase in Column A, and her explanations (as discussed more thoroughly in sub-section 6.3.2 below) were identified as spontaneous vocabulary instruction. What can be said here about NT01's planned vocabulary instruction is that it was designed as a pre-requisite to the day's lesson activity, intended to assist the students' ability to read or to listen. As to how vocabulary items were presented to the students, NT01 adopted the word-matching style; that is, the students matched the vocabulary items with their respective descriptions or definitions.

Pre-teaching vocabulary selected from the textbook before introducing reading and listening activities was seen as a common practice for NT01, whether

the vocabulary in question was part of that day's lesson or the previous one, the latter case involving revision of learnt vocabulary. During the second session that I observed, for instance, NT01 instructed her students to work on some vocabulary she extracted from the reading passage the class was to read that day. She wrote the words onto the board and her instructions went as follows:

Excerpt 6.41

NT01: Ok, everyone. So, these are the vocabulary in your reading. First of all, I would like you to work on the vocabulary before we move on to the reading. If you finish, say 'bingo' then I'll go to your seat.

SS: (Students began working on the worksheet.) (NT01-TR02@00:05:14)

Such a pre-teaching vocabulary activity aimed to equip the students with adequate vocabulary knowledge so that they could perform the subsequent reading tasks. This approach to teaching vocabulary reflected the objectives of the course (i.e., CE2), which stated in part that vocabulary was a bridge to mastering language skills. Whenever vocabulary instruction was carried out as a revision of the previous lesson, it was said to be "to improve [students'] memory because most of them tend to forget after time. Reviewing vocabulary can help me understand how they learn, how well they know about [learnt words]" (NT01-ReINT04@01:00:24).

Unlike NT01, NT02, whom I observed eight times, designed vocabulary tasks in a gap-filling format. Such a task was introduced to the students after the day's lesson was finished, and he named it a "follow-up vocabulary task" (NT02-WR02@28/02/14). The worksheet NT02 designed comprised 44 items and took the class almost an entire session of 80 minutes to finish studying them. The items were selected from the textbook's reading and listening passages the students already studied. Excerpt 6.42 is an extract from NT02's vocabulary worksheet based on the content of Unit 7 in the textbook he used. It is presented here to illustrate how "teaching vocabulary in context", as NT02 labelled it, was realised in NT02's actual practices.

Excerpt 6.42

Unit 7: Words of Wisdom

Task 1 (vocabulary in context)

Direction: Fill in the gaps in each of the following sentences using the words in the box. The given words might not be in the correct form, in which case you will have to change their part of speech to fit the grammatical context.

content	fall out of favor	Alzheimer's	faithful
firearms	place of honor	astound	contempt
clutch	dementia	restrain	tyranny [...]

1. This style of house _____ with most people lately. A no-more-than-two-storied detached house with a big front yard is the mainstream trend these days.
2. If you are found guilty of possessing unlicensed _____ in this country, you might pay a huge fine or go to jail for a few years.
3. What is poverty and when is a person poor? A useful new way to capture the many aspects of poverty is set to generate a new _____ of data for economists.

(NT02-WR02@28/02/14)

Stated explicitly, the worksheet was meant to assist the students to use the words in 'context'. As can be noticed in the excerpt, particularly in the direction to fill in gaps, NT02 also aimed to teach the grammatical part of speech of the words in question, an aspect he referred to as "the grammatical context" in a manner similar to NT01's conception of vocabulary instruction. However, NT02's approach to teaching vocabulary was different from that of NT01, in that NT02 presented vocabulary items after reading and listening activities in the following lesson, an approach NT02 justified later during the recall interview as "less boring and more effective" than the pre-teaching activity.

Excerpt 6.43

I: I was wondering, because uh it seems that there were more words, actually not just the words that you wrote on the board, and you did not pre-teach these words=

NT02: =I did not pre-teach these words.

I: Why did you not do that?

NT02: I think that learning through discovery or inductive learning is less boring and more effective. For example, if I pre-teach the words, then they're words out of context. But, still when I teach them, I can put them into context, but then I think I might overwhelm them with many different contexts. I want the contexts to be solely the quote contexts [i.e., the quote about Words of Wisdom] (NT02-TR02@01:05:22).

A closer look at NT02's rationale above revealed that, to him, teaching vocabulary after the students read or listened amounted to "discovery or inductive learning", which however seemed to be merely a post-reading or post-listening vocabulary learning activity. It should be recalled that while NT01 was teaching CE2, a supposedly 'upper-intermediate' English class, NT02 was teaching CE3, a supposedly 'advanced' English class. This difference could explain why the two novice teachers were using different approaches to teaching vocabulary although their focus about vocabulary items (e.g., situational and linguistic contexts) was observed to be the same between them. In fact, as can be recalled from Section 6.2, the descriptions of the two courses also suggested different instructional approaches. This difference is interpreted in this study as harmonic interrelations between teachers' cognitions, practices and curriculum policies. This particular finding, thus, indicates that teachers appropriate their teaching curriculum at the collective level and enact it at the individual level, in turn reflecting the process of teacher learning in that context.

However, for NT03, who was teaching LS2 and whom I was able to observe for only four times, contradictory thoughts occurred when she tried to decide whether or not certain vocabulary should be pre-taught before the day's lesson. Explaining why she did not explicitly teach vocabulary before the students read the story in question, NT03, like NT02, seemed to favour "discovery learning". The following excerpt is extracted from one of her recall interviews where she rationalised her decisions about teaching vocabulary:

> Excerpt 6.44
>
> So, actually, first of all I would like to hear from my students first, but it's just that when they answered, it's kind of a little off-track so I wanted to turn them back to the right context [i.e., the context of the story they were reading]. So, in here it was actually one of my thoughts but I didn't want to tell them directly, so that is why I thought of showing them this word first. It might ring a bell or something=that made them understand of what I was trying to say. So, I was just trying to give them clue first before I told them the answers. [...] I thought of like explaining them the questions and [the vocabulary] first. That's why I thought, like explaining the words and everything so that when they got to discuss, they didn't have [to ask questions]. They would understand the (discussion) questions and they could go on and answer them. But, then there was=sometimes I'd like to test them

> as well, like what they understood without my explanations prior to their discussions. There was time that I wanted to test them. But, I still had to work around and then=well I could see that some (students) actually understood without my explanations, but the majority kind of not being clear (NT03-ReINT03@01:19:51).

NT03 was confronting competing thoughts, one that urged her to pre-teach vocabulary so that more time could be spent on the students' discussions and another that would allow her to "test" if her students understood difficult words without her explanations. What she actually did during that session was to let her students discuss the story without her pre-teaching of certain vocabulary items, but as she reflected upon what she did she realised "the majority [were] not being clear". As illustrated in Section 6.2, there was a dissonance between NT03's beliefs about teaching vocabulary in her academic course (i.e., LS2) and what was stated as the course's core objectives. As was evident from her teaching, that dissonance created tensions for NT03 as she thought of how to approach vocabulary instruction. In essence, the interrelations between NT03's cognitions, practice and curriculum policy were disharmonic. Thus, it is crucial to understand why it was the case, an issue I pursue in Chapter 8.

Despite such tension, NT03's approach to vocabulary instruction became crystallised through her prepared worksheets. One was designed in a gap-filling format to teach her students about "Apartheid", a concept central to the story that her class would be reading. Another worksheet was developed as a quiz that NT03 intended to use to measure her students' vocabulary knowledge after reading the story. To give a picture of how these worksheets were designed, I present two short extracts from these worksheets:

> Excerpt 6.45
>
> Choose the appropriate words from the box below to complete the passage. You can use the word only ONCE.

A) mixed	D) consigned	G) prohibited	J) segregation
B) governing	E) unravel	H) criticized	
C) abolish	F) opponents	I) ownership	

> Apartheid was a policy of racial (1) _____ formerly followed in South Africa. The word apartheid means 'separateness' in the Afrikaans language and it described the rigid racial division between the (2) _____ white minority population and the non-white majority population. The National Party

introduced apartheid as part of their campaign in the 1948 elections, and with the National Party victory, apartheid became the governing political policy for South Africa until the early 1990s [...] (NT03-WR01@03/03/14)

Excerpt 6.46

Quiz 1 "Literary Terms"

The following terms are commonly used in literary works. Match them with their correct definitions.

1. Antagonist	A. A contrast between appearance and reality, or between what is expected and what actually happens
2. Climax	B. A figure of speech using like or as to compare seemingly unlike things
3. Incident	C. The central character in the story, drama or dramatic poem. Usually, the action revolves around this person who undergoes the main conflict.
4. Comedy	D. A type of drama that is humorous and typically has a happy ending
5. Irony	E. A character of force that opposes the central or main characters in the story or drama

[...] (NT03-R03@03/03/14)

As these extracts (Excerpts 6.45 and 6.46) illustrate, the design of vocabulary worksheets was similar to those NT01 and NT02 used in their CE classes, suggesting that regardless of the difference in English levels and the nature of the academic courses they taught, these teachers employed common types of materials in teaching vocabulary. In other words, these novices used the same type of physical 'tools' to realise their vocabulary instruction, which in turn seemed to have influenced how they thought about vocabulary instruction, for example teaching vocabulary through matching words with their definitions.

While these planned vocabulary instructional activities were observed to be explicit and infrequent, at least over the period of my observation, a multitude of other vocabulary instructional activities were observed during class time as the teachers made constant decisions to focus on certain vocabulary items. It is these spontaneous, unplanned vocabulary instructional activities that I now turn to.

6.3.2 Unplanned Vocabulary Instruction

The analysis of the lessons I observed showed that while teaching, the teachers decided to focus on certain vocabulary items they believed their students had trouble understanding or needed to understand so that the lesson points (either grammar points, reading or listening comprehension, speaking or writing tasks) could be meaningfully discussed. There were, however, very few instantiations of vocabulary-focused activities initiated by the students themselves. That is, most of the observed instances were established by the teachers, suggesting that it was the teachers who determined what to learn. To provide an illustration, the following excerpt is an extract from NT01's CE lesson during which listening comprehension was the main focus; the topic of which was Arranged Marriage.

Excerpt 6.47

NT01: Ah the bridesmaid. How about those=how about those friends who help the groom? What do you call them?

SS: Best man. Best man.

NT01: Best man. Other words?

S1: Superman

SS: (Burst into laughter)

NT01: Well, superman! The word is best man, yes. Another word is?

S2: Groommaid? [...] (NT01-TR01@00:38:33)

Teacher interventions such as this one were evident not only in NT01's class but also in those of the other two novices where vocabulary items were selectively concentrated on at the intuition of the teachers.

More interestingly, the way such vocabulary items were handled was dynamic, in that the teachers deployed various techniques or strategies to teach the items. In addition to dictionary definition and contextualised or personalised examples, the teachers also used L1 translation, word associations, grammatical parts of speech, pronunciation and spelling–operations similar to those enacted by the pre-services (described in Chapter 5, particularly sub-section 5.3.3). The use of these strategies was intricate because they were intertwined with one another, reflecting the holistic nature of how the teachers carried out their vocabulary teaching practices. It also reflected the teachers' mental actions about vocabulary instruction in relation to situational context and linguistic context, presented in Section 6.2. For this reason, I invoked the teachers' concepts of situational and linguistic contexts of vocabulary instruction in order to present the findings of

these novices' action-enacting strategies of vocabulary instruction. In other words, I grouped definition and personalisation techniques under situational contexts, and parts of speech, L1 translation, word associations, spelling, and pronunciation under linguistic contexts.

6.3.3 Vocabulary Teaching Strategies

Two themes were arrived at from the analysis of the observational data that reflected the vocabulary teaching strategies these novices used to realised vocabulary instruction in their classrooms. First, it was observed that vocabulary items were presented in 'situational contexts'. Second, they were taught with 'linguistic contexts'. I present these strategies in turn as follows.

6.3.3.1 Presenting Vocabulary in Situational Contexts

In creating situational contexts to teach vocabulary, the teachers explained each word with contextualised or personalised examples along with the dictionary-style definition of that word. For example, as observed in NT01's lesson about Arranged Marriage, NT01 explained the word "chaperone" by setting contextualised backgrounds of the word, illustrated in the following excerpt, extracted from her Teaching Record 01:

Excerpt 6.48

NT01: We have=we had this chaperone before. But now, not many. So the chaperone=a chaperone follows the daughter (to be wedded) everywhere. They need to make sure that she is okay.

S1: Is it referred to uh, referred to the-the female? Right?

NT01: Yes. Female. You have to hire a female to work for your daughter (the bride). But in the past we didn't have a person who took care of the groom because they could take care of themselves (NT01-TR01@00:37:37).

In this same manner, in her other lesson, NT01 provided personalised examples, in addition to a synonym, to elucidate the meaning of the idiom "to get on somebody's nerves". The following excerpt is extracted from her second lesson I observed:

Excerpt 6.49

NT01: [...] To get on somebody's nerves. To annoy or irritate somebody. 'My friend is always borrowing my laptop. It gets on my nerves', for example. 'My mother is always asking me why I'm going out or why I go out. It gets on my nerves'.

SS: (The students were listening attentively.)

(NT01-TR02@00:13:34)

Instances such as this were identified in all NT01's lessons I observed. They showed NT01's dynamic approaches to teaching vocabulary items embodied as the lessons went by.

Likewise, during the eight lessons recorded, NT02 also explained certain vocabulary items or phrases using personalised or contextualised examples. Excerpt 6.50, extracted from the first observation of his lesson, illustrates how NT02 harnessed the opportunity to teach vocabulary he believed was important for his students.

Excerpt 6.50

NT02: So if you look at the answer choices, they have a phrase 'has fallen out of favour'. So, what does that mean, 'to fall out of favour'? Any ideas?

S1: No longer popular

NT02: Yeah. It's no longer popular. Uh actually it is not only applicable to products, but if we say that as a staff='Smith as a staff of the company, you have fallen out of favour, so you can=that's the door. So, you're fired'. So if you've fallen out of favour, uh it means that you're no longer needed. Your service is no longer needed. Ok. And you no longer serve the benefit of the company. So, can you think of a product or a brand name that has fallen out of favour here in Cambodia? (NT02-TR01@00:59:08)

Excerpt 6.50 is a clear example of how NT02 personalised vocabulary teaching and learning. He went from giving examples and creating situations that helped explain the meaning of the phrase "has fallen out of favour" to eliciting students' answers for a real case in their own context.

Another instance to exemplify NT02's approaches to spontaneous unplanned vocabulary instruction that deployed personalisation was when he tried to check if his students understood the meaning of the phrase "frown upon" after they listened to a listening passage. Below is an extract of NT02's lesson where "frown upon" was taught:

Excerpt 6.51

NT02: Was there any phrase that you did not understand? Did you hear something like this 'he's making a frowning face'? Frown upon. So that is probably a new phrase to learn for today. Do you know 'to frown'?

S1: Yes

NT02: Hey, [Name]. Do it. Do it. (Class laughing). Usually, when do you frown? When you're angry? Sometimes, it's when you try to think. But in this context, 'to be frowned upon' means 'to be considered inappropriate' or probably 'just bad'. For example, if you're working for a company and you keep coming late everyday, so your poor punctuality is frowned upon. Right? So people consider it really bad. Even in class, that can be frowned upon. Talking to your girlfriend on the phone in class is frowned upon. The teacher eating in class or talking with mouth full of food is frowned upon. So everything that's bad is frowned upon. Right. So you can use it in your writing. It's a formal phrase. Next one (NT02-TR01@01:07:46)

"That is probably a new phrase to learn for today" was a clear indication that NT02 had not planned to teach the phrase "frowned upon"; it was decided there and then as NT02 believed it was essential. Moreover, NT02's approach to teaching the phrase, as exemplified in Excerpt 6.51 above, can be said to be multifaceted, combining both situational context and linguistic context together. That is, in addition to the personalisation of the phrase, for example asking one of the students to frown, NT02 also implicitly injected the grammatical form of the phrase, i.e., "do you know 'to frown'?" A brief synonymous phrase "to be considered inappropriate or just bad" was also used to explain the meaning of the phrase "to be frowned upon". This multifaceted approach to teaching vocabulary, evident in all of his teaching sessions that I observed, reflected not only NT02's broad knowledge about the subject-matter (i.e., about the vocabulary in question) but also his pedagogical knowledge (Gatbonton, 2008). It also seemed to substantiate his self-identified personality being 'a vocabulary nerd'. That situational contexts were found in NT01's and NT02's approaches to teaching vocabulary in their CE classes further supported the claim of harmonic interrelations between the teachers' cognitions, practices and curriculum policies (put forward in Section 6.2).

On the other hand, situational contexts were not found in NT03's approaches to teaching vocabulary in her LS class although NT03 believed, as

reported in Section 6.2, that situational contexts were essential for effective vocabulary learning. More interestingly, despite absence of evidence of situational contexts in her approach to vocabulary instruction, NT03 continued to emphasise the role of situational contexts in enhancing her students' vocabulary retention. The excerpt below was taken from a recall interview conducted after my observation of one of her LS2 lessons. During that recall interview I asked her to explain why she did not pre-teach vocabulary before her students read the story.

> Excerpt 6.52
>
> Um I think well it's pretty much because when I teach the words, like pre-teach [them], probably [the students] are not going to remember them. So, if I can teach them along the way when we have difficult words and I explain them, and then they put them in [situational] context immediately, they tend to understand better. If I pre-teach ten words like that, I don't think they're going to remember [as] they might have to refer back to the story [for situational context] (NT03-ReINT02@01:19:12)

It is clear from this instance that NT03 perceived the situational context within the story to be adequate for her students to learn vocabulary. This kind of decision reflected NT03's situated knowledge needed to enact vocabulary instructional activities in her class.

6.3.3.2 Teaching Vocabulary with Linguistic Contexts

The novice teachers also employed strategies that were classified as teaching vocabulary with linguistic contexts, for example teaching parts of speech, spelling, pronunciation, word associations and using L1 translation. I present these sub-themes in turn.

Teaching Parts of Speech

Providing linguistic contexts of the word or phrase being taught was evident in NT03's lessons. In one of them, as she was checking her students' answers for the gap-filling exercise about Apartheid (presented earlier in Excerpt 6.45), NT03 made it explicit that knowing the part of speech of the word "governing" was important. The following excerpt illustrates her approach:

> Excerpt 6.53
>
> NT03: B [is] governing. Very good. Governing. So, governing here, what is the part of speech?

S1: Adjective

NT03: Adjective. Ok. I-N-G, as in an /ing/ form. So, uh 'the governing white minority population' [means] the white population was the one who governs the country. Alright. Paragraph 2, anybody?

(after about 7 minutes)

NT03: So, the blacks were put in the newly created and impoverished homelands. What does the word 'impoverished' mean? [It's] adjective here! (NT03-TR02@00:05:20)

Excerpt 6.53 exemplified how NT03 made explicit in her teaching the necessity for her students to learn about the grammatical parts of speech of those items (e.g., "governing" and "impoverished"). It was not a mere presentation of the linguistic contexts of the vocabulary. Rather, it was what she believed (as indicated in Table 6.1 regarding her interpretation about the objectives of the subject) LS2 was for: "to focus on linguistic analysis" (Excerpt 6.8), the interpretation that was in line with the stated course descriptions specified in the Student Information Booklet (reproduced in Excerpt 6.9c) but which appeared different from those stated in the course outline (reproduced in Excerpt 6.7).

Teaching grammatical parts of speech was also evident at least in some of NT01's lessons. In one lesson that I observed, NT01 wrote on the whiteboard a number of vocabulary items taken from a reading passage. As she went on to check her students' understanding of those words, she highlighted the parts of speech of the word "apt" as follows:

Excerpt 6.54

(After checking the students' answers of Task 2 in 'Pilot Superstar' section)

NT01: Alright. If you look at the board, you can see some words here: mansion, helipad, and apt. I just want to (xxx) this one first. Can you find this one in the text? In the passage? Here they talked about his (...) rights? So, apt, apt is an adjective, which mean?

S1: (xxx)

NT01: It's like to be, it's like to (xxx) appropriate==

S1: =yes.

NT01: =or suitable. How about a noun? Apt as a noun referring to a person who?

S2: (xxx)

NT01: Pardon?

S3: (xxx)

NT01: Refers to a person who? What, what does the dictionary say?

S3: It says 'we don't=cannot find a noun'

SS: (laughs)

NT01: You cannot find a noun? It has a noun. An apt [refers] to a person especially a kid who has the ability to do something like 'wow, he's so good at drawing. He's an apt' (sic). Like 'wow he's very talented' (NT01-TR04@00:34:02).

Despite the fact that her explanation of "apt" as a noun was incorrect, instances such as this indicated that NT01 gave value to learning parts of speech. They also proved that her beliefs about teaching this linguistic aspect, reported previously, were realised in practice.

In NT02's lessons, however, as far as spontaneous vocabulary instruction was concerned, there was no teaching of parts of speech. NT02 did not think that this linguistic aspect was as important as it would warrant explicit teaching in his CE3 advanced English class (as has been shown in Section 6.2 above that reports on his beliefs). Therefore, the absence of this aspect in his actual teaching actually indicated a unity between his espoused beliefs and practices.

Teaching Spelling

Another linguistic aspect of vocabulary instruction emerging from the analysis was teaching spelling. Focusing on spelling has been referred to as a form-focused vocabulary learning activity (Nation, 2005). Although there were only a few instances, evidence of teaching spelling indicated the extent to which the teachers' knowledge about vocabulary instruction accorded with what has been written in the literature on vocabulary teaching. There were at least two instances of explicit teaching of spelling in NT01's lessons; they are reported below:

Excerpt 6.55

NT01: You can [spell] with one 'L' or with double 'LL' [for snorkelling].

S1: (xxx)

NT01: Yes. What's the difference between scuba diving and snorkelling? (NT01-TR02@00:20:26)

Excerpt 6.56

NT01: Knack! Yes. Thank you. Start [with] K. K-N-A-C-K. A knack. To have a knack means to have a gift (NT01-TR04@00:36:14).

In both of these instances, NT01 harnessed the opportunity to highlight the spellings of the words (i.e., "snorkelling" and "knack"). Harnessing such an opportunity was also found in NT02's lessons, illustrated in the following extract taken from one of his lessons:

Excerpt 6.57

NT02: Let's check the answers. Number 1?

S1: (xxx)

NT02: Can you spell it?

S1: G-L-O-R-Y (NT02-TR05@01:07:03)

In NT03's lessons that I observed, however, no evidence of teaching spelling was found. Teaching the pronunciation of the word in question, however, was heavily focused upon in her lessons. I turn to this linguistic aspect next.

Teaching Pronunciation

These novice teachers focused on the pronunciation aspect of the word in question spontaneously either when they deemed it appropriate to maximise their students' learning or when their students' pronunciation was seen as incorrect.

In NT03's lessons, teaching pronunciation was heavily focused on even though she seemed to be unaware of it. In just one lesson, she corrected her students' pronunciation repeatedly and constantly asked them to repeat after her. The words being taught were "apartheid", "segregation", "pressure", and "racial". She focused on the stress patterns of the words. Illustrated in the following excerpt is how she intervened in her student's pronunciation of the word "apartheid":

Excerpt 6.58

NT03: Yeah. Read [the] answer.

S1: Ok. /'əpɑːtheɪt/ (sic).

S2: /ə'pɑːtʌɪd/.

NT03: /ə'pɑːtheɪt/. Ok. Guys. The pronunciation of this one [is] /ə'pɑːtheɪt/.

S1: /ə'pɑːtheɪt/.

SS: /ə'pɑːtheɪt/.

NT03: /ə'pɑːtheɪt/. Yeah. Ok. So, the stress is on the second syllable. /ə'pɑːtheɪt/.

S2: American people, they pronounce it like /ə'pɑːtʌɪd/.

NT03: Yeah. They have uh two pronunciations (NT03-TR02@00:02:41)

Based on this excerpt, the students themselves seemed very interested in the phonological aspects of the vocabulary. In fact, from my observation, some of them also corrected each other's pronunciation. This might in part explain NT03's enthusiasm in teaching pronunciation, catering for the students' learning needs and preferences.

NT01 also capitalised on pronunciation as she checked her students' answers to the vocabulary exercise, again emphasising the importance of word stress. The following excerpt extracted from one of her CE lessons illustrates how she initiated a pronunciation focus:

Excerpt 6.59

NT01: No. 7? How do you pronounce No. 7?

S1: (xxx)

NT01: /fɔː'feit/? /fɔː'fɪt/?

S1: /fɔː'feit/

S2: /'fɔːfɪt/

NT01: /fɔː'fiːt/? [It's] /'fɔːfɪt/. /'fɔːfɪt/ or /'fɔːfeit/, both are correct. Yes. A: to lose something or have something taken away from you because you've done something wrong. Have you ever /fɔː'feit/ (sic) anything? (NT01-TR02@00:15:05)

In another lesson, NT01 corrected her student's pronunciation of the word "rid" (as in "get rid of") because apparently the student pronounced the word as /rʌɪd/. The following excerpt, taken from NT01's third lesson that I observed, shows a student's pronunciation mistake that was corrected by NT01:

Excerpt 6.60

(The student was reading an answer.)

S1: [No.] 2–Someone is about to throw something away. Don't get rid /rʌɪd/ (sic) of that yet=

NT01: =Get rid /rɪd/ of that.

S1: Get rid /rɪd/ of that.

NT01: Rid /rɪd/ (NT01-TR03@00:07:29)

Although NNES teachers are generally identified as disadvantaged and limited in terms of their ability to teach pronunciation (Walkinshaw & Oanh, 2014), these Cambodian teachers appeared committed to helping their students learn as much as they could including modelling their pronunciation.

In NT02's lessons, teaching pronunciation was also evident during his vocabulary instructional activities. During his third lesson I observed, NT02 suddenly decided to emphasise the pronunciation of the word "content". He specifically highlighted the importance of stress pattern at the lexical level. The following excerpt illustrates his approach:

Excerpt 6.61

NT02: I think you know this word [content]. As a noun, how do you pronounce it?

S1: /ˈkɒntɛnt/

NT02: /ˈkɒntɛnt/. /ˈkɒntɛnt/ because the stress is on the first syllable /ˈkɒntɛnt/. And as an adjective? /kənˈtɛnt/. What does it mean? (NT02-TR03@00:56:50)

It should be noted that while NT02 was pointing out the part of speech of the word "content", it was the pronunciation aspect rather than the part of speech of the word that he was focusing on.

As far as teaching pronunciation was concerned, these novices seemed to view that stress pattern at the word level was an important phonological feature their students needed to acquire. The discussion I laid out earlier regarding these teachers' perception about teaching pronunciation (sub-section 6.2.2.2) also applies to this finding. That is, it appears that these teachers need to be more well informed of the new development in the field of pronunciation instruction if they are to maximise their effective teaching.

Teaching Word Associations

Word associations have been considered an important aspect of vocabulary knowledge (e.g., Schmitt, 2000). Although only few and trivial instances were found in these novice teachers' approaches to teaching vocabulary, they reflected the extent to which the teachers had theoretical knowledge about teaching vocabulary. Moreover, evidence of teaching word associations, however scant, also indicated the teachers' efforts in realising meaningful vocabulary instruction. Recall that they all espoused the belief that word associations (e.g., collocations, synonyms and

antonyms) were an important (linguistic) aspect of vocabulary teaching and learning (Section 6.2).

To illustrate this evidence, in one of NT03's lessons that I observed, for instance, to teach the word "colonisation" she invoked the base verb "colonise", creating a knowledge base of word family (NT03-TR01@00:37:12). In NT02's class, similarly, to teach the word "tyrannise" he invoked the word "terrorise" (NT02-TR03@00:55:46) while in NT01's, she invoked the word "chilli" to teach the word "chilly"[14] (NT01-TR03@00:46:08).

Another evidence of word associations was the teaching of synonyms and antonyms (Schmitt, 2000). From their teaching records, synonyms and antonyms were at times used by these novices to explain the meaning of selected vocabulary items that they deemed difficult for their students. For example, while checking his students' listening comprehension, NT02 drew the students' attention to the word "hiatus" in the listening recording and quickly provided a series of synonyms "a pause", "a rest" and "a time-off". The following excerpt extracted from the first lesson I observed illustrates this practice:

Excerpt 6.62

NT02: So it's B. I think you heard 'time-off'. So when you have time off, you have time away from work. Right. But uh, let's listen to that recording again and you'll hear this word, but the word is pronounced very unclearly. It's called 'hiatus'. [NT02 played the recording.] 'Celine Dion is taking a hiatus'. Right. So 'hiatus' means 'a pause'. Right. It's like 'time-off', 'taking a rest' but it's usually temporary. So you can say that 'class has resumed again after a two-week hiatus, a two-week rest, or a two-week off'.

SS: (Some students were taking notes. Then NT02 continued to play the recording.)

(NT02-TR01@01:09:38)

The teachers rationalised that using synonyms was a quick and easy way to explain vocabulary, noting that the synonym used to explain another word should be the one the students were familiar with. As NT03 put it:

[14] "Chilli" and "Chilly" might not be generally identified as word associations when referenced with the 'native-speaker' lexicon. However, research has showed that words of similar pronunciation such as these two are word associations in the 'non-native-speaker' lexicon (Meara, 1982; 2009, particularly Chapter 2).

Excerpt 6.63

[...] why I used the synonym [i.e., 'consequence' for 'repercussion'] is because it saved time, because they're very familiar with this word [i.e., consequence] so I just needed to mention the synonym. I hope they remember this new word [i.e., repercussion] and that they clearly know the meaning of it as well (NT03-ReINT03@01:22:55).

As can be seen from the above quote, NT03 also believed that synonyms helped strengthen her students' ability to remember words well. As Schmitt (2000, p. 38) notes, strong knowledge of word associations indicates "systematicity" in the learners' mental lexicon. The techniques these novice teachers used to teach vocabulary seemed to conform to 'expert' pedagogical knowledge about vocabulary instruction. At the same time, it is notable that these novices' rationale in their decisions to use synonyms or antonyms were the same as that of the pre-services.

Using L1 and/or L1 Translation

The last aspect of the linguistic contexts of vocabulary instruction that these novice teachers drew on was the use of L1 and/or L1 translation in teaching vocabulary. As NNES teachers who speak the students' L1, the use of L1 translation was seen as an advantage. Recall that all the teachers espoused positive attitudes towards the use of L1 translation in teaching vocabulary although they committed to keep it at the minimum. They also cautioned against the use of bilingual dictionaries because, as they stated, either such dictionaries were not of good quality or they believed the students should be exposed to the target language as much as possible.

Instances of L1 translation were recorded, however. During her lessons, NT01, for instance, at times translated or elicited translation from her students especially when the vocabulary items in question were idiomatic expressions. Among other words that required NT01 to translate into the students' L1, the idiom "to live in a bubble" was an interesting example. The idiom was also familiar among the students as a Cambodian concept, but the way NT01 taught it illustrates how L1 translation made its way into vocabulary instruction.

Excerpt 6.64

NT01: To live in a bubble?

S1: កង្កែបក្នុងអណ្តូង (Khmer translation for 'a frog in a well')

NT01: រស់ក្នុងអណ្តូង (Khmer translation for 'to live in a well')

SS: (laughs)

NT01: That's direct translation. What is that [in Khmer]? What is it?

S2: (xxx)

NT01: We say? កង្កែបក្នុងអណ្តូង ('a frog in a well')

S1: មែន ('I was right') (chuckles)

NT01: You can say 'oh she lives with her parents and she never visits her friends. She never goes outside. She is like a frog in a well'. Do you think that is right? Do you think that they==well except our Cambodian friends, do you think foreigners will understand you [saying this]?

SS: No.

NT01: 'My friend is like a frog in a well'.

S3: She lives in a bubble.

NT01: So when you wanna say that someone lives and isolates themselves from others, from ordinary activities of life, you know, stays inside the house all the time, you say they live in a bubble or that they live in their own bubble (NT01-TR02@00:12:15).

Excerpt 6.64 indicates also NT01's concern about effective communication with "foreigners" or non-Cambodians who do not share the same conceptual understanding of the idiom "to be a frog in a well". Because of such a concern, NT01 was supplying contextual examples she believed would make it clear for her students to enable them to use the idiom "to live in a bubble" effectively.

Although L1 translation was an effective resource to invoke students' understanding about certain idioms, such as the one presented here, NT01 did not really believe that she should encourage the use of translation in learning vocabulary. This was a belief also espoused by NT02 who claimed he would only deploy L1 translation as the last resort despite the fact that he also believed in the effectiveness of using L1/translation while teaching. During one of his lessons, for example, NT02 resorted to L1 translation of the term "quicksilver" after his failed attempts to explain it with a synonym, "mercury", and other personalised examples. The following extract illustrates how he explained the meaning of the term "quicksilver" ending with the Khmer translation:

Excerpt 6.65

NT02: Uh [name], do you know all the words in this quote? No? Ok. What is quick silver? Quick silver is mercury. Right? Do you have a thermometer at home? You know, that little device on the wall that measures the temperature? Thermometer? [translation of thermometer]? You don't? Oh I do, at home. So in the thermometer you see the silver looking thing, right. So, that's quicksilver. So, it's also known as mercury. Right. ជាវ៉ែត (Khmer translation for "mercury").

SS: (Students reacted positively to the translation) (NT02-TR03@00:12:23).

NT02 explained at the end of that lesson why he used translation eventually, reflecting his pedagogical knowledge and decisions.

Excerpt 6.66

Yeah so uh first I would start with a lot of examples, vivid examples that are related to their immediate experience. [...] But sometimes it doesn't work. It doesn't ring a bell, so you have to accompany that with synonym 'mercury' and I looked at their facial expressions. Then I decided to yeah [use L1 translation] (NT02-ReINT03@01:09:51).

Excerpt 6.66 is an interesting example of how teachers fine tune their teaching and make decisions about how to respond according to the reactions of their students.

Translation was also evident in NT03's lessons, but was initiated by her students themselves. For example, as she was checking the meaning of the word "unravel", a student was quick to provide a translation. This classroom interaction is depicted in the following excerpt, extracted from NT03's second lesson:

Excerpt 6.67

NT03: Unravel. Yeah. What does it mean? Unravel?

S1: (xxx)

NT03: Yeah?

S1: Explain

NT03: Explain? Um in this context, in this context 'policies began to unravel', what does that mean?

S2: អ៊ីស្ត្រីភាព (Khmer translation for 'unstable')

NT03: Yeah, fall apart, like we don't practice it anymore. Alright? (NT03-TR02@00:14:18)

It appeared later that, as her students benefited from L1 translation, NT03 harnessed the opportunity to teach associated words for the word "riot" (such as "strike" and "demonstration") using Khmer translation.

Excerpt 6.68

NT03: Are you guys familiar with the word 'riot'?

SS: Yes

NT03: What is it? Riot.

SS: (xxx)

NT03: It's a what?

S1: កុប្បកម្ម (Khmer translation for 'riot')

NT03: កូដកម្ម ('strike') or កុប្បកម្ម ('riot')?

S1: កុប្បកម្ម ('riot')

NT03: So, it (riot) is a kind of protest as well, but it involves violence. Right. So, in Khmer?

S2: កុប្បកម្ម ('riot')

NT03: កុប្បកម្ম ('riot')==because we have like បាតុកម្ম ('demonstration'), កូដកម្ম ('strike') and កុប្បកម្ম ('riot'). Yeah.

NT03 recognised that the use of translation was initiated by her students and acknowledged that such a method could help her students remember the words better. She said "so, they kinda gave a direct answer (translation, that is) in Khmer, which probably helped them to remember the word as well. We talked about this quite a lot in the first semester" (NT03-ReINT03@01:20:50). Exemplified in Excerpts 6.67 and 6.68 was NT03's comparison and contrast between L1 and English, resembling Samar and Moradkhani's (2014) findings about teachers' code-switching in their EFL classrooms. Again, this capitalises on the advantage of NNES teachers who speak the students' L1.

Summary of the novices' actual approaches to vocabulary instruction

In this section 6.3, I have presented an analysis of how these novice teachers approached vocabulary instruction, and as found in their actual practices, their

approaches to teaching vocabulary were complex, dynamic and multifaceted. On one hand, their approaches to vocabulary instruction were both planned and unplanned. On the other hand, they were operated based on the concept of 'context', which the teachers used to explain their beliefs about vocabulary instruction. That is, both situational and linguistic contexts were realised in actual classroom practices. The diagram presented below, therefore, aims to visualise the complexities of their approaches to teaching vocabulary and to depict the sophisticated interconnections between situational and linguistic contexts, and between planned and unplanned vocabulary instructional activities found in the observed lessons.

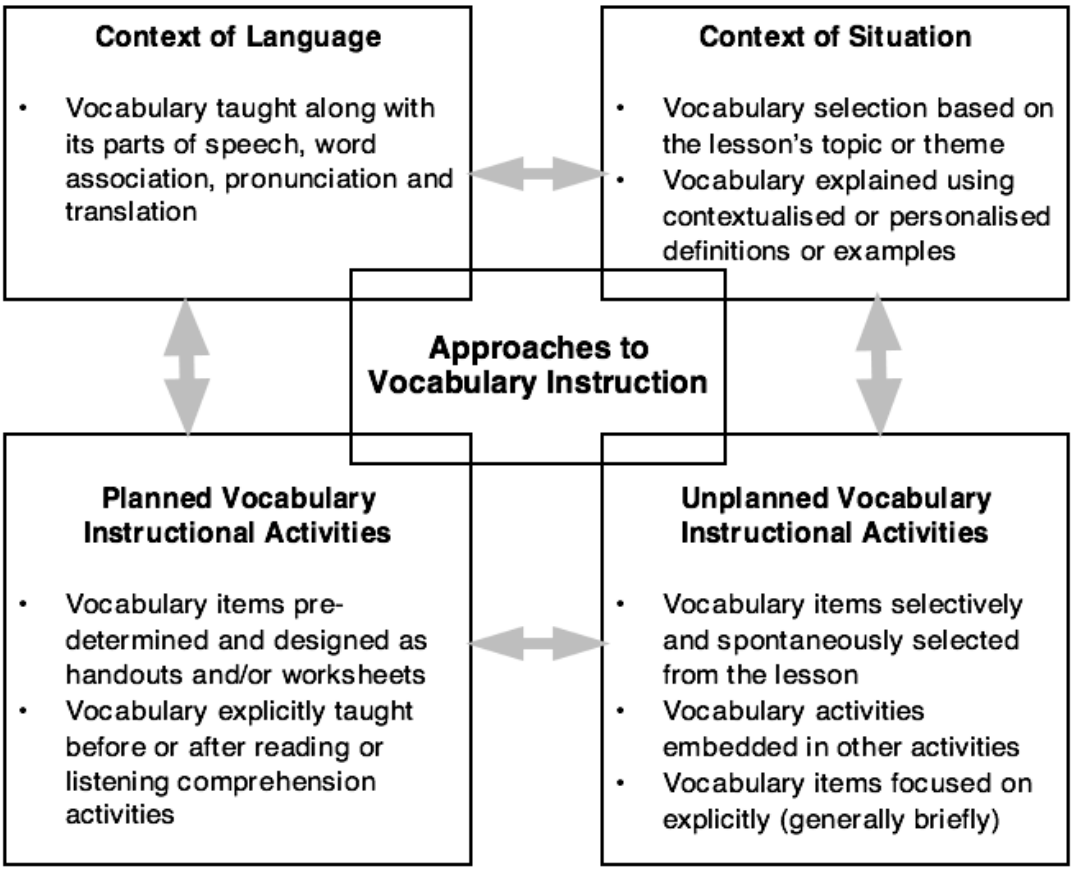

Figure 6.2 Schematic representations of the novice teachers' actual approaches to vocabulary instruction

Figure 6.2 summarises the three novices' approaches to teaching vocabulary in action. As it shows, these teachers' approaches were complex in nature, developing around the concept of 'vocabulary in context'. In their uses of the term, vocabulary should be presented in the context of situation (for example, through personalised examples relevant to the topics or themes of the lesson in question) and in the context of language (for example, presenting the parts of speech, the

pronunciation, word association, and the translation of the vocabulary being focused on). These ways of teaching vocabulary characterised the teachers' classroom instructional activities observed to be both planned and unplanned. The former mode of instruction consisted of pre-reading or pre-listening activities as a means to test students' vocabulary knowledge and to prepare them to do reading and listening comprehension activities. The unplanned, spontaneous vocabulary instruction, on the other hand, were initiated mostly by the teachers while teaching, thus highlighting their constant decision-making process in relation to their beliefs about the importance of vocabulary. That is, the vocabulary in question was deemed crucial for the students' language learning process. The teachers' actual approaches to teaching vocabulary were interrelated with their stated cognitions. These observed approaches were the teachers' operations in realising the action of teaching vocabulary.

In the final section of this chapter, I present the analysis of documentary evidence that shed light on the practice of vocabulary testing or assessment. The documents included course outlines, quizzes, tests and examination papers.

6.4 THE PRACTICE OF VOCABULARY TESTING AND ASSESSMENT

Vocabulary testing or assessment is an integral area of vocabulary research (Schmitt, 2010). The present teachers' practice of vocabulary testing and assessment was reflected in their course outlines, test and examination papers. Sub-section 4.2.3 (Chapter 4) describes the assessment policy for courses of the BEd TEFL program in the context of this investigation. For the relevant academic courses (i.e., CE2, CE3 and LS2), there were two assessments in each semester: one on-going assessment and one semester examination, each accounting for 50% of the total scores. The following excerpts show the delineations of these assessments:

Excerpt 6.69 Course Assessment Policies

Excerpt 6.69a

Core English 2 Assessments

1. Semester examination 50%
2. On-going assessment 50%
    a. Two revision tests 20%
    b. Two listening tests 10%
    c. Quizzes 5%

d. Presentation 10%

e. Homework and class participation 5%

(NT01-WR08@03/03/14)

Excerpt 6.69b

Core English 3 Assessments

1. Semester examination 50%
2. On-going assessment 50%
    a. Two progress tests 20%
    b. Two listening tests 10%
    c. Debate/Presentation/Panel discussion 10%
    d. Homework, class participation 5%
    e. Quizzes 5%

(NT02-WR04@06/02/14)

Excerpt 6.69c

Literature Studies 2 Assessments

1. Semester examination 50%
2. On-going assessment 50%
    a. Progress tests 20%
    b. Oral presentation 10%
    c. Major assignment 10%
    d. Quizzes 5%
    e. Class participation/Homework 5%

(NT03-WR04@03/03/14)

Vocabulary formed a part of almost all of these assessments, but notably vocabulary was explicitly addressed in progress tests, quizzes, oral presentations and written assignments (altogether constituting on-going assessment), and semester examinations. The analysis of these documents revealed two features: the weight of the focus on vocabulary and the techniques or formats by which vocabulary was tested. I present these two features in relation to the following questions: (1) How much weight was given to vocabulary assessment across the three courses? (2) How was vocabulary (knowledge) assessed? Table 6.2 presents a sample summary of the score percentages of vocabulary components found in quiz, test and examination papers I collected throughout the study period. (Appendix 11

provides the complete summary of these novices' vocabulary assessment data.) It also describes the testing formats deployed to measure vocabulary knowledge in particular domains of vocabulary focus.

Table 6.2 Vocabulary assessment for CE2 by testing formats and scores

CE2	TESTING FORMATS	DOMAINS OF VOCABULARY FOCUS	RAW SCORE	% SCORE
TEST101	- MCQ - Gap-filling (semi-control) - Gap-filling (total-control) - Matching	- Randomly selected words - Compound nouns and adjectives - Compound nouns (Verb + Preposition) - Hot verbs (Make vs. Do)	35/80	43.75
TEST201	- MCQ - Devising words - Matching - Gap-filling (total-control)	- Randomly selected words - Affixes and antonyms - Hot verbs (Take and Put)	30/80	37.5
TEST102	- MCQ - Writing (semi-control) - Gap-filling (total-control)	- Randomly selected words - Hot verbs (Get + preposition) - Adverb collocation - Homophones (form-meaning connections)	35/80	43.75
QUIZ101	- Matching - Devising words	- Randomly selected words - Compound words	15/40	37.5
QUIZ102	- Gap-filling (total-control) - Matching	- Randomly selected words - Hot verbs (Get + preposition) - Adverb collocation	25/50	50
EXAM01	- MCQ - Matching - Gap-filling (total-control)	- Randomly selected words - Compound words - Hot verbs (Make and Do) - Prefixes and antonyms - Hot verbs (Take and Put)	30/100	30

EXAM2	- MCQ - Matching - Gap-filling (total-control)	- Randomly selected words - Hot verb (Get + preposition) - Extreme adjective - Homophone and homonym - Idiom (related to body parts) - Word pair	30/100	30

To measure the weight given to vocabulary assessment, I examined the raw scores and converted them into percentage scores averaged among all the assessments in each course. I collected seven assessments for CE2, six for CE3 and twelve for LS2. The analysis of these documents revealed no significant differences between CE2 and LS2 in terms of vocabulary measurement, but in CE3 (taught by NT02) a large proportion was focused on vocabulary. On average, vocabulary assessment accounted for 39.9% for CE2, 51.3% for CE3 and 38.8% for LS2. These percentages accounted for only the 'discrete-point approach' to targeted vocabulary items. That is, there were other vocabulary assessments 'embedded' in larger components such as reading comprehension (Read, 2000). (These two approaches to vocabulary testing were discussed in Section 2.2 of Chapter 2.) Therefore, if all these components (discrete-point and embedded testing) were taken into consideration, it would have shown even heavier weight placed on the vocabulary component in these language assessment schemes.

Also shown in Table 6.2 were different formats for testing vocabulary employed by these teachers in their contexts of teaching. Typical formats were MCQ, matching, devising and/or gap-filling. These formats that were also practised during class time (described in Section 6.3) were prevalent in all of the assessment papers analysed. There were, however, some variations in terms of the degree of 'control' imposed by the test designs over the test-takers (i.e., the students). In other words, while MCQ was understood to be 'total-control', giving the students no freedom to write their own answers but to select from among the pre-determined (generally four) options, the gap-filling format was found to be either 'total-control' or 'semi-control'. To a limited extent, the latter gap-filling format allowed the students to devise their own vocabulary items to fill in the gaps in a passage with appropriate meanings. The kind of control this semi-control gap-filling format imposed was the context or topic of that passage itself. To illustrate, Excerpt 6.70 below contains some extracts from the test banks, reproduced here verbatim.

Excerpts 6.70 Vocabulary Test Formats: MCQ and Gap-filling

Excerpt 6.70a (total-control)

Multiple choice questions (10 marks)

Choose the best alternative that has the closest meaning to each underlined word.

1. Some people believe that to succeed in this world, you have to be <u>ruthless</u>.
   a. heartless b. cold c. careless d. caring
2. Where did you get all these <u>exotic</u> flowers from? They look amazing in this garden.
   a. native b. nonnative c. weirdd. beautiful

[...] (NT01-WR09@15/09/15)

Excerpt 6.70b (semi-control)

Gap fillings (5 marks)

Complete each gap with ONE appropriate word that you HAVE LEARNED FROM THE UNITS.

a. Talking about our old family holidays has made me feel quite n.....
b. The word that means to remove the inner organs of an animal is g.....
c. The w..... of the car was scattered over the roadside.

[...] (NT01-WR09@15/09/15)

Excerpt 6.70c (Total-control)

General vocabulary (20 marks)

Choose the most suitable answers to complete the sentences. Write the answers in the boxes provided.

1. He spent his life ..... off his parents. He's simply a useless person.
   a. taking b. sponging c. forfeiting d. stripping
2. Her friends are always ..... for cash because they have to pay high rents.
   a. striped b. strapped c. strived d. fallen behind

(NT01-WR11@15/09/15)

Excerpt 6.70d (Total-control)

Gap-filling (10 marks)

Choose the words from the box below and [fill] them in the correct spaces [in the passage]. Write your answers in the boxes provided. There are MORE words than needed.

A) company	E) cry	I) relationships	M) words
B) reaction	F) behavior	J) poverty	N) borrow
C) balks	G) unfavourable	K) hosted	

Mathilde Loisel is "pretty and charming" but feels she has been born into a family of (1) ____ economic status. She was married off to a lowly clerk in the Ministry of Education, who can afford to provide her only with a modest though not uncomfortable lifestyle. Mathilde feels the burden of her (2) ____ intensely. She regrets her lot in life and spends endless hours imagining a more extravagant existence (NT03-R05@14/09/15)

The extracts in Excerpt 6.70 are examples of how MCQ and gap-filling testing formats were designed. As mentioned, MCQ was a total-control testing format limiting the students' vocabulary production. It was also seen as limited in context. On the other hand, gap-filling (or passage completion) that was both total-control and semi-control was seen to be richer in context or context-dependent (Read, 2000). This format was more evident in NT03's test papers for her LS class, a content-based subject.

Matching and devising definitions were also common testing formats deployed by these teachers to measure their students' vocabulary knowledge. Like MCQ, matching was a total-control format (Excerpt 6.71a below). Devising, however, ranged from being a total-control (Excerpt 6.71b) to a semi-control (Excerpt 6.71c) to a control-free (Excerpt 6.71d) testing technique; the latter allowed the students to produce their own words. The following excerpts contain extracts of such testing formats taken from NT01's and NT03's test papers to illustrate the kind of control that matching and devising formats had on the test-takers:

Excerpts 6.71 Vocabulary Test Formats: Matching and Devising

Excerpt 6.71a (total-control)–Adverb collocation (5 marks)

Match the adverbs in A with the most suitable collocations in B.

A	B
1. extremely	A. panic, injured, ill
2. profusely	B. cold, hot, high, bad, grateful
3. properly	C. bleed, sweat, apologize
4. exactly	D. work, operate, do, act
5. seriously	E. the same, right, the opposite

(NT01-WR13@15/09/15)

Excerpt 6.71b (semi-control)–Supplying key words (5 marks)

Fill in the gaps with correct letters to form correct words for the given definitions. The words below are all taken from the story Poison.

1. K __ __ __ __ a brightly colored venomous but non aggressive snake of south-eastern Asia having a generally black body with colored bands
2. __ E __ __ __ a liquid that contains substances that fight infection that is put into a sick person's blood

[...] (NT03-WR11@14/09/15)

Excerpt 6.71c (semi-control)

Supply the best word to form the compounds.

	club		class		card
.....	time	.....	rate	.....	account
	mare		hand		note
	shop		light		
.....	center	.....	jam		
	car		accident		

(NT01-WR12@15/09/15)

Excerpt 6.71d (control-free)–Vocabulary (14 marks)

Based on the story Cry Freedom, provide the definition to each term below.

a. Apartheid system

_____

b. Confrontation

_____

c. Racism

_____

(NT03-WR08@14/09/15)

Arguably, the control-free devising technique (exemplified in Excerpt 6.71d) was not totally free of control; that is, it was also controlling in the sense that the targeted words were pre-determined.

The last feature of vocabulary testing and assessment evident in the situated practice of these novice teachers was the type of language domains or areas of vocabulary being tested or assessed. As shown in Table 6.2, these domains

included a number of randomly selected words, word associations (such as compound words, collocations, synonyms, antonyms and word pairs), grammatical features of targeted words (such as prefixes, suffixes and infixes), phonological aspects of targeted words (such as homophone and homonym), idioms (at least those related to body parts), the so-called "hot verbs" (such as "get", "take", "put", "make" and "do"), and modal verbs (such as "will", "would", "should", "must", "can" and "could"). Particularly for NT03's LS2 class, a large number of vocabulary items were extracted from the stories the students read, making them highly context-dependent.

Relating this practice of vocabulary testing and assessment to the teachers' mental actions presented in Section 6.2 and to their physical actions presented in Section 6.3, it can be said that there was a high level of consistency between teacher cognition and practices (the latter including both instructional activities and testing methods). Nonetheless, as shown here, production-based tests, ones that the teachers believed would allow the students to freely produce vocabulary and maximise the students' learning experience, were highly limited in either teacher-made tests or the institutionally designed examinations. Recall also that these novice teachers expressed their concerns over such a limitation and called for more incorporation of production-based vocabulary assessment in both tests and examinations. These concerns (thus, tensions) appeared to continue to exist as part of the teachers' work. In Chapter 8, I present the analysis of such tensions and discuss them more systematically using an activity systems analysis model. What follows, however, is a summary of the novices' findings presented in this chapter.

6.5 SUMMARY

Chapter 6 reports on the analysis of the case of the novice teachers. As young, beginning teachers who had quite a long history of learning English, these novices brought their past language learning, together with their little teaching, experiences to their current teaching practices. That is, through their reflections of their learning histories and training experiences, these novices reconstructed their understandings and beliefs about vocabulary instruction in their current working contexts. The chapter has shown that their reported approaches and their actual practices about vocabulary instruction (including also their practice of vocabulary testing and assessment) were in a complex way interrelated and intertwined with the teachers' past experiences, present contexts, and future realisations (the latter being what the teachers reported they would do in the classroom).

As has also been shown, these novices appeared to exhibit a broad understanding about teaching vocabulary, and as observed during their actual teaching, the teachers displayed sophisticated teaching strategies in order to realise what they believed as meaningful vocabulary instruction. These strategies are seen as the teachers' classroom operations realising their actions in vocabulary instruction. Besides, this chapter has also shown that, for NT01 and NT02, there were harmonic interrelations between their cognitions, practices and curriculum policies while for NT03 there were not. Such interrelations reflected how the teachers appropriated and made sense of their operations, actions and activity of English language teaching.

For comparative purposes, there are more similarities than differences between the novices' findings and those of the pre-services presented in Chapter 5. Their conceptions of vocabulary instruction were largely similar in that both groups considered it an important element in the curriculum that needed to be focused on. They were also similar in terms of how they enacted vocabulary instruction in the classroom context. Nonetheless, differences were found in that the novices seemed to have a more complex and broader conceptual framework upon which they operated both mentally and physically. These comparisons provide a glimpse of how teachers of different career stages conceptualise and enact the teaching of vocabulary in their context. More comparisons will be available in the next chapter, where I analyse the experienced teachers' data, the third group of the present cases.

7 | THE EXPERIENCED TEACHERS

This chapter presents the last group of the participants who took part in the study–the experienced teachers (ET01, ET02, and ET03). These teachers will be referred to by their respective gender throughout. Like the preceding two chapters, it lays out the analysis of the teachers' language learning backgrounds, cognitions, practices and how these were interrelated. Again, like that in Chapters 5 and 6, the analytical framework used in this chapter reflects the 'action' and 'operation' levels or dimensions of Leont'ev's activity theoretical approach. The analysis was based on the teachers' interviews, actual classroom observations, documentation (including the institutionally developed and/or teacher-made tests, quizzes, handouts and worksheets, course outlines and policy papers), and the researcher's field notes. It revealed four themes categorised as the teachers' (1) sociocultural backgrounds including their English learning histories, motivation to become a teacher, professional training and teaching experiences, and self-defined identities (2) reported approaches to vocabulary instruction, (3) actual approaches to vocabulary instruction and (4) practice of vocabulary testing and assessment. I present these themes in turn below.

7.1 THE TEACHERS' SOCIOCULTURAL BACKGROUNDS

Data relating to the experienced teachers' backgrounds were obtained from both the first and second interviews. These backgrounds included their histories of learning English, motivation to become a teacher, professional training, teaching experiences, professional qualifications, and self-defined identities as NNES teachers and ELT professionals. This background information, from a sociocultural theoretical perspective, is seen to portray the cultural and historic values the teachers brought with them to the activity of teaching (Cross, 2010).

7.1.1 History of Learning English and Motivation to Become a Teacher

Through their accounts of English learning experiences, ET01 and ET02 reported that their English education began as early as in their teenage years. ET01, for instance, recalled that she began studying "English during the communist regime [...] when I was 15 or 16 years old" (ET01-INT01@00:03:27). ET02 remembered that he started learning the language "since 1984 when English was prohibited" (ET02-

INT02@00:08:44). Both of the teachers remembered how rare it was to find an English class and when there was one, the class was taught by Cambodian teachers with very limited knowledge about the language itself. (Chapter 4 provides the broader sociocultural context of the study describing the historical background of English language teaching and learning in Cambodia prior to, during and after the 1980s.) On the other hand, ET03, who was a few years younger than his experienced fellows, had the opportunity to begin his English education in the early 1990s when he was in "primary school, yeah I guess, Grade 5 or 6" (ET03-INT02@00:00:48). During this period, he recalled that he learnt with Cambodian teachers in different settings including English classes conducted at Buddhist pagodas and various "private schools near my house" (ET03-INT01@00:04:29).

Despite their different onsets of English learning, all three teachers reported that they experienced similar teaching approaches: grammar-oriented and teacher-centred. ET01 recalled what a typical "teacher-oriented" lesson entailed and how, even after several years of learning, she failed to use English to greet a foreigner.

> Excerpt 7.1
>
> [Reflecting on] what I have learnt at that time now I think the, the style of teaching during that time was teacher-oriented yeah. So most of the time my teacher wrote grammar point on the whiteboard and then we read after him. There was no speaking in the class [...] It was funny that during the UNTAC [United Nations Transitional Authority in Cambodia] time [during the 1990s] I was uh introduced to meet one of my father's friend. She was an English woman. And before the UNTAC time I had studied uh English for a few years. But then when I met her I couldn't even say 'how are you?' because I never practised speaking. Yeah. And uh I studied only like grammar and the sentence [structure]. The conversation was like uh=he (the teacher) copied it from the book and write it on the whiteboard and we copied it from the whiteboard into our notebook. Yeah. And then we were asked to read. But we rarely spoke in uh I mean even in the class (ET01-INT01@00:05:47).

Consistently, the three teachers stressed that the teaching approaches they experienced (prior to their English language education at the university) were ineffective for them to use the language communicatively, especially in speaking. ET02 reported that he took on a part-time job at a hotel because "I wanted to practice my English and to see how it worked [...] I tried to experiment my English several times" (ET02-INT02@00:11:30). Such communicative opportunities, ET02

recalled, were not available in his "translation approach" English class (ET02-INT02@00:11:30). Similarly, during his early English learning experience, ET03 reported that his classes focused intensively on grammar much more than any other language areas, a learning approach he characterised as limiting his ability to communicate effectively. An extract below taken from his first interview reports such an experience:

> Excerpt 7.2
>
> Looking back, I guess we focused only on grammar, but we uh I think we lost the opportunity to focus on other areas like uh the vocab, the reading, especially the extensive reading [and] intensive reading. So what we know is only grammar and sometimes we you know we cannot communicate well especially when we communicate with foreigners because we cannot understand each other by using only the grammar yeah. We need to understand other aspects especially the vocab and some other related knowledge. And I can see the weaknesses but uh only later did I realise that (ET03-INT01@00:04:29).

For vocabulary, particularly, the teachers reported that the primary method was translation between the target language and L1. From ET01's recollection, her teacher never explained vocabulary in English. She said

> Excerpt 7.3
>
> he did the translation yeah uh for difficult words. He wrote them on the whiteboard and translated [them] and we copied. And then the translation was like uh=he never gave us the definition in English. Yeah so it's like only from English to Khmer language and then we copy it. Yeah. Yeah. [...] I think that it was not practical methodology because uh it's like I didn't remember much uh of the word. Yeah. Sometimes I could not use it in the correct uh=you know when I used it later it was like not in the context (ET01-INT01@00:08:27).

Likewise, for ET02 and ET03, translation was the prominent approach to vocabulary instruction during their early English education. Excerpts 7.4 and 7.5 below, respectively, capture their learning experiences in this aspect:

> Excerpt 7.4
>
> I remember that uh it was not so much useful when we had a word translation [approach]. And then we tried to apply those words in context but if we understand the connotation of the word and we can understand how to use

the word it's better yeah. And when we have word translation it causes more complexities or more difficulties to remember and sometimes we put the words in the wrong context because of uh first language so it was not useful [...] (ET02-INT01@00:39:53)

Excerpt 7.5

The teacher would write those words on the blackboard, during that time we used blackboard, and translation from the target language to L1. [...] And we-we knew the meanings of the isolated words but uh I don't think we could communicate with a foreigner or with anyone. We just remember the words and remember the translations, and we can understand only something that is in the book that we learn. If we read other books, yeah, [if] we talked with other people, I think we could not go beyond that. Yeah. We could not do that (ET03-INT02@00:01:58).

From their experiences, these teachers believed that translation was not an effective method to teach and learn vocabulary. They believed instead that contexts and opportunities to practise were important for learning and using vocabulary.

As the teachers continued their English language education at the university level, based on their accounts, they seemed to have witnessed and experienced new and more favourable ways of learning English, which appeared to have continued shaping their conceptions about how vocabulary should be learnt and taught. It appeared also to be in this later phase of learning that the role of context in vocabulary instruction emerged as part of the teachers' conceptions. For example, ET01 described the learning at the university as "a foreign environment for me, I mean if we compare it to when I was studying [Essential English] Book 1 and Book 2" (ET01-INT01@00:18:14). To her, learning English at the university was more conducive to enhancing her communicative abilities because vocabulary was learnt in context. The following extract from her interview accounts describes her typical classroom activities, which ET01 believed had helped improve her learning experience:

Excerpt 7.6

So we had group work. We had class work. Uh we had pair work and we were assigned to do homework. And the vocabulary uh was taught=most of the time the teacher didn't give us the translation but he explained us in English. The definition had to be in English yeah. And he gave examples and told us which

> context we could use it. And uh I started by [using] dictionary and I checked it out [to see] whether that word had another definition and things like that. Uh yeah and honestly I didn't pay much like uh whether it is adjective or not. But I know that some of my friends they also paid attention, whether that word is adjective or verb or you know pronoun or noun or something like that. [...] The thing is that I know that as long as I can communicate, I'm alright. As long as I can communicate in English then I am alright (ET01-INT01@00:18:30).

ET01 continued later that "to me in my experience I think that when I want to learn new words I try to learn from the context [...] To me I'm more like using the context. I mean when I find one word difficult I try to guess" (ET01-INT01@01:11:25). As will be shown later, this conception is also reflected in her cognitions about vocabulary instruction when she verbalised her teacher beliefs.

Learning English at Dream University was also a favourable experience for both ET02 and ET03. In his interviews, ET02 recalled that he "felt something new [...] when I was studying" there (ET02-INT02@00:15:04). As far as vocabulary instruction was concerned, he added, "I was taught how to match the words, guessing the words or uh put them into new contexts or uh, uh, uh write a definition of the word. That's what I was taught" (ET02-INT02@00:16:34). For ET03, on the other hand, the learning environment at the university appeared to have broadened his mind about English language. In his words:

> Excerpt 7.7
>
> I can say before I came to Dream University the world was very small. I mean [...] uh we didn't know a lot about English. I mean what skill, what are the aspects or other areas that we have to know. But at [the university] here we learnt that there are many areas, there are many aspects that we need to develop further you know (ET03-INT01@00:12:39).

ET03 was explaining how he came to understand that learning English did not mean learning only the grammar, an approach he had adopted when he first started learning the language. Rather, it now made more sense to him that it involved learning other language skills and aspects (including vocabulary and pronunciation) if he was to be able to communicate. He said

> Excerpt 7.8
>
> if at that time [when he first started learning English] we had focused on other areas: the vocab, the pronunciation, especially the reading, now we would be

> able to communicate well. So it's like we focused on only the form of the grammar. And I think we lost, we lost a lot of benefits. Until I came to Dream University I could [not] see the weaknesses. I just thought that=I also felt you know very, very proud, yeah very proud that I knew a lot of grammar. But when I came to [the university] and I used my English with other people [...] we tended to have a lot of problems when we needed to communicate, especially when we needed to communicate uh professionally or academically yeah (ET03-INT01@00:11:04).

These teachers' conceptions about English language education more generally and about vocabulary instruction more specifically, as reified through their retellings of their language learning experiences, formed parts of their cognitive systems. They provide a sociocultural lens on the espoused beliefs the teachers brought along in their journey to become teachers of English. In the subsequent sections, I continue to describe their professional training and teaching experiences, beginning with their motivation to become a teacher of English.

Through their interview accounts, the teachers' motivation to become a teacher in the first place was illuminated. As the teachers explained, their motivation appeared to have been shaped profoundly by the contexts of their learning, particularly those at the university, and by the then opportunities afforded to teachers of English. For ET01, for example, it was her positive learning experience at the university that changed her perception of being a teacher. She said (laughing) "when I was young, I told everybody that I would never be a teacher yeah but then uh my perception had changed ok when I started to study English at Dream University yeah". She went on to outline some background situations that led her to become a teacher at her university.

> Excerpt 7.9
>
> In 1995 the English Department at Dream University used to be supported by Australia yeah. [Later] there was uh difficult time for the department because uh some=almost all the foreign teachers had to move back to their country. No [more] financial support [for the department]. But Khmer teachers, Khmer lecturers still like uh devoted themselves to be a teacher even though they could get low salary. [...] I can still remember one of my uh female teachers. She was uh=I always keep [her] in my mind. It's like 'Wow I want to be her!' Ok. Because uh like when we had debate or something like that, the male students

> tried to debate with her but then they never uh=she always convinced them to like her point of view. So uh she's my role model (ET01-INT01@00:25:30).

ET01 aspired to become a teacher she always admired, and as suggested in the above quote she was inspired by her female teacher because the teacher represented gender equality and empowered women. This intrinsic motivation was part of her decision to become a teacher of English. However, there were also other pragmatic reasons for her to become a teacher, as shown in the following extract from her first interview:

> Excerpt 7.10
>
> And at the same time I wanted to use it (being a teacher) as a stepping stone ok to become a public servant yeah public officer so I can get scholarship to Australia because in 1998 when I was a student in Year 3 (of the BEd in TEFL) I was sent to Australia once for two months. I was sent to uh New South Wales University (sic) and when I was there ok everything [about me] changed. I told myself that I had to come back to Australia [to] study again. Yeah, yeah I told myself. And then I learnt about Australian Award Scholarships uh they are called ADS: Australian Development Scholarship. And I said [to myself] that one thing that I could win the scholarship was to become a public servant. Yeah so that's one of the reasons why I want to be at [the university]. So my thinking at that time was to get the scholarship (ET01-INT01@00:26:35).

Being pragmatic or opportunistic was not uncommon given the socioeconomic situations at that time. ET02, for instance, was even more articulate about his instrumental reason to become a teacher of English. He explained that

> Excerpt 7.11
>
> actually um before I started teaching English I had another career [in] civil engineering but uh the situation of the working environment was not really good because it was insecure you know. We still had the fighting with the Khmer Rouge[15] and my job was not good. And then when I came to work in uh the hotel and I had a private class I think I told myself I would be qualified if I wanted to become a teacher yeah. So that's the course that influenced my

[15] The Khmer Rouge took control of Cambodia from April 1975 to January 1979. It was defeated by invading Vietnamese troops who took control of Cambodia from 1979 to 1989. During this period, there were occasional fightings between the then Cambodian government and the Khmer Rouge soldiers living in the southwestern part of the country.

> selection or choosing the career, the teaching career yeah (ET02-INT01@00:11:17).

As ET02 rationalised, what prompted him to change his career from being a civil engineer to being a teacher of English was the latter's job prospects; teaching was a more secure occupation for him to grow, both financially and professionally.

ET03 cited both intrinsic and extrinsic motivation to become a teacher of English. Intrinsically, "I find English very interesting [...] I love it. English is the only field that I've been always interested in yeah and I'm still interested in English" (ET03-INT01@00:02:28). And to become a teacher of English, ET03 further explained, had allowed him to find a job more easily.

> Excerpt 7.12
>
> English in Cambodia was very popular, Number 1. And number 2 uh it was very easy to find a job, to find a job in Cambodia especially teaching English. Well you know uh after high school I had an opportunity to teach English. Actually, at the beginning I never thought that I wanted to become a teacher or I wanted to teach English. But after uh I was offered to teach English, actually I just taught for fun, but after one year [of teaching] I just found it interesting. After high school I found it interesting and I put all my effort, my concentration, my passion in [teaching] English. And that's why uh I am a teacher now yeah (ET03-INT01@00:03:06).

For ET03, his passion of being a teacher of English had accumulated through his ongoing teaching experiences. As has been shown, the motivation of all these teachers to become a teacher of English could be said to be intrinsic but more particularly extrinsic (cf. Lim, 2013).

7.1.2 Professional Development and Teaching Experiences

As they decided to become teachers of English, they took a four-year BEd in TEFL degree program at Dream University. At the time of this study, however, the highest level of professional training in the field of ELT, education or in related fields these teachers had received was a master's degree. In addition to these training programs, the teachers also reported that they had attended several local and regional professional development workshops and conferences, such as

CamTESOL[16] and ThaiTESOL[17], related to their field of teaching. More importantly, they believed that despite their many years of teaching experience, participating in such events would allow them to learn from and share with other colleagues, thus to a certain extent reflecting their continued effort to learning about new ideas. ET02, for instance, believed that the professional development programs he had attended provided him with "ideas [about] how to reflect on difficult situations, uh how to deal with student problems, how to improve teaching methods so I think it's very useful=they were very useful for me" (ET02-INT01@00:13:19).

To provide an outline of their teaching experiences and the qualifications these teachers had at the time of the study, I present in Table 7.1 the information I collected from Dream University's public documents and through the teachers' interviews.

Table 7.1 Summary of the teachers' professional qualifications and teaching experiences

	Qualifications (Country of education provider)	**Teaching experiences (at the university)**	**Academic courses taught**
ET01	BEd in TEFL (Cambodia) MEd in Leadership & Management (Australia)	Since 1999	Core English Bridging Course (Reading) Introduction to Environment*
ET02	BEd in TEFL (Cambodia) TESOL Certificate (USA) MA in TESOL (Australia)	Since 1998	Core English Teaching Methodology
ET03	BEd in TEFL (Cambodia) MA in TESOL (Cambodia)	Since 2006	Core English Applied Linguistics

* Introduction to Environment, taught in English, offered to freshman undergraduates enrolled in either BEd in TEFL or BA in English for Work Skills.

As the table shows, at the time of this study's data collection in 2014, ET01 had been teaching for at least 15 years, ET02 for 16 years and ET03 for 8 years. The common academic course taught by these teachers and which is the subject of the present study is Core English (CE). While ET01 was teaching a freshmen class (i.e.,

[16] http://www.camtesol.org

[17] http://thailandtesol.org

CE1), ET02 was teaching sophomores (i.e., CE2). ET03 was teaching 'advanced' level CE to junior students (i.e., CE3). The objectives of CE2 and CE3 were reported in Chapter 6 at Excerpts 6.5 and 6.6, respectively, but for ease of reference, I reproduce them here together in Excerpt 7.13.

Excerpt 7.13

Course objectives for CE2

- To continue providing [students] with time to practice the four macro skills so that [they] have opportunity to further sharpen those skills
- To equip [students] with knowledge of grammar and vocabulary at the upper-intermediate level as a bridge to assist [them] to master the four macro skills
- To continue offering [students] chance to be exposed to a particular amount of natural language necessary for basic everyday communication in English

Course objectives for CE3

At the end of the course, the students will be able to

- Use all the tenses and other grammatical points properly and effectively
- Achieve fluency and accuracy in writing and speaking and advance their critical thinking in reading and listening skills
- Acquire advanced vocabulary through various themes and use them in appropriate contexts
- Communicate in spoken and written English fluently, accurately, and confidently
- Comprehend authentic listening and reading texts critically and effectively

However, ET01 was unable to provide the course objectives of CE1 she was teaching at the time, although its institutionalised course descriptions could be found in the student information booklet (Student Information Booklet, 2013), reproduced below:

Excerpt 7.14 (Institutionalised descriptions)

Core English 1

By learning this subject, students will be able to develop intermediate English proficiency in the four macro-skills. More specifically, the students will be able

to use intermediate-level tenses and other grammar points and vocabulary to communicate in spoken and written English fluently, accurately and appropriately, and to comprehend listening and reading texts effectively. The main textbook is New Headway Intermediate (fourth edition) by Liz and John Soars.

CE1's institutionalised course descriptions were, to a certain extent, similar to those of CE2 and CE3 (reported in Chapter 6 together at Excerpt 6.8 and reproduced below).

Excerpt 7.15 (Institutionalised descriptions)

Core English 2

This unit focuses on the improvement of students' macro skills: reading, listening, writing and speaking, and knowledge of grammar, e.g. the tense system, gerunds and question forms. It also stresses the ability in using more complicated vocabulary.

Core English 3

The instruction of this subject is based on New Headway Advanced (New edition) by John Soars, Liz Soars and Mike Sayer, which concentrates on advanced grammatical and lexical aspects and covers all the four language learning macro-skills. Students are required to complete homework, assignments, tests, etc. and to give oral presentations in addition to their semester examinations.

The only purported difference was the emphasis on the proficiency levels: respectively, 'intermediate' for CE1, 'upper-intermediate' for CE2 and 'advanced' for CE3. However, these levels were artificially determined in accordance with the textbooks employed in the courses, i.e., the New Headway Series by Oxford University Press (Soars & Soars, 2011). Respectively, the 'intermediate', 'upper-intermediate' and 'advanced' course books were used for CE1, CE2 and CE3.

It is important also to understand how the teachers themselves conceptualised their course's objectives and how such conceptualisations were related to the stated institutionalised course objectives and descriptions. When asked to describe the course she was teaching, ET01 claimed as follows:

Excerpt 7.16

For Core English I follow the book. We're using New Headway right now. So the book focuses on four skills. But because uh at [the university] we have writing

> skill separated from Core English so in [Core English] I'm not focusing on it (writing) at all. But most of the time I focus on vocab ok [in] context and uh reading and grammar yeah yeah, yeah (ET01-INT01@00:35:13).

The textbook was therefore ET01's syllabus. For ET02, on the other hand, who taught CE2, "the ultimate goal is to encourage [the students] to use the language effectively. They should have more techniques to deal with [learning] difficulties. And they can uh use their language outside the classroom" (ET02-INT02@00:22:26). Similarly, for ET03, who taught advanced level, the course was meant to focus on the four macro skills (listening, speaking, reading and writing), vocabulary and grammar. However, he commented that:

> Excerpt 7.17
>
> I think we tend to ignore [reading, speaking and writing]. We focus only on grammar and vocab. Although in the course objective, it's about speaking, listening, reading, writing, grammar and vocab, I think uh much of the time [we have focused] only on grammar, vocab and uh speaking (ET03-INT01@00:16:37).

As can be seen, even though there were course descriptions specifying the contents the courses in question, it seemed that these experienced teachers, particularly ET02 and ET03, more or less decided for themselves what was convenient to focus on in their course. As they reported, despite the codified course objectives and course descriptions, they could adjust and determine the ultimate goal of their instruction, thus exercising a considerable level of teacher agency.

7.1.3 The Experienced Teachers' Identities

The last sub-theme arrived at from the analysis of the teachers' background information is related to their teacher identities. As the teachers talked about themselves as NNES teachers and ELT professionals, both their personal and professional identities emerged. This particular theme was touched upon mainly because the teachers reported on their challenges in teaching English, specifically citing concerns of their limited language proficiency as NNES.

Nonetheless, all these experienced teachers embraced their NNES teacher identity, recognising the advantages and disadvantages of being an NNES teacher. ET01, for example, pointed out that, as an NNES she did not have the same pronunciation as that of "the native speakers" and had limited vocabulary knowledge. However, she prided herself on "the methodology, the way we handle

issues in class" (ET01-INT01@01:15:15). Nevertheless, viewing herself as an NNES teacher, ET01 reported she had faced a number of challenges in teaching English. Below is an extract from her first interview, outlining difficulties in teaching pronunciation and vocabulary:

> Excerpt 7.18
>
> We have to know about the accent or the stress or something like that. Yeah so at some point we have to focus on that. And the stress is one of the difficulties that we [who] are not native speaker can't compare with them, with the native speaker [...] The meaning also [is difficult to teach]. Uh trying to find the synonym because uh English is very rich; it's a rich language. One word can have=some words have more than 10 definitions yeah. For example, like phrasal verbs 'put', 'put up', 'put up with' or something like that. So there's a lot of words that you can't remember. But for native speakers yeah they have it. We cannot compare with them. They are rich in words. They know almost everything. You know. Yeah (ET01-INT01@00:16:17).

ET01, as indicated in Excerpt 7.18, exhibited her inferiority towards the 'native speaker'. This sense of inferiority or inadequacy has been reported in the literature of NNES teacher research as part of the 'impostor syndrome' (Bernat, 2008).

For ET02, on the other hand, being an NNES teacher had a great deal of advantages regardless of the limitations ET01 pointed out (with which he also agreed). ET02 said "I think uh the advantage of this non-native language teacher [is] they understand the context better. They know how to help or reduce the [learners' learning] difficulties" (ET02-INT01@00:29:31). He went on to draw on his successful teaching experiences in order to weigh up the advantages of being an NNES teacher, as follows:

> Excerpt 7.19
>
> I can use my uh (...) teaching experience about how I teach my first language to foreigners and how I teach English to my native speakers. I found that when the native speaker explains the vocabulary to their learners, probably he has more concepts [about the word] or he has better understanding about those kind of key terms than the non-native speaker. But it does not mean that the non-native speaker could not explain those words well. But the idea that he expresses=that he (an NNES teacher) tries to get the students involved with is just a little bit different I feel. Yeah (ET02-INT01@00:32:07).

Such recognition of the advantages of NNES teachers ET02 pointed out could help empower NNES teachers (as found in Reis, 2011). A brief comparison between how ET01 and ET02 identified and compared themselves to an NES teacher (in terms of teaching vocabulary) showed that while ET01 acknowledged that her lexicon in English was indeed smaller in size and less dynamic in depth than that of her NES counterparts, ET02 believed that as an NNES teacher he had different ideas and relevant concepts to explain and teach vocabulary to his students. He believed, in other words, that his vocabulary knowledge was not necessarily smaller or less dynamic than that of an NES teacher. This belief reflected his higher self-efficacy in teaching, compared to ET01. More interestingly, ET02 invoked the term Englishes, recognising the notion of varieties of English, to justify himself as a capable teacher of English in his working contexts. He believed that:

> Excerpt 7.20
>
> if [an NES] teacher does not uh try to understand the other culture, the other context, [he/she] might lose opportunity [to use the language] and probably the way they're using the words [...] We have what we call Englishes I think because we have different English uses. [But] the most challenging [aspect] for non-native speakers is pronunciation, I think. That's difficult because uh we have less opportunity to expose to practical use of the language so the pronunciation could be various or could be different or not correct, I think (ET02-INT01@00:29:31).

What is strikingly significant here is the way ET02 argued for his own legitimate English. To him, his NNES English (including pronunciation) was appropriate in its own right, in the contexts in which he worked and lived. As was observed during his interviews, ET02's English accorded to the various features of Asian Englishes described in Y. Kachru and Nelson (2006, Chapter 5) such as the absence of the final consonant sounds in words, dropping of aspiration of voiceless plosives, replacing certain fricatives with other sounds, and nonappreciation of the stress patterns at word level.

Likewise, ET03 also identified himself as an NNES teacher whose qualities lay in his deep understanding about the learning contexts. As he put it:

> Excerpt 7.21
>
> We understand each other (teacher and students) very well. We understand the culture. We understand their expectations. We understand their preferences. We understand the learners' styles because we share the experience, because

> we grow up in that society, in that culture. So we can teach well (ET03-INT01@01:00:05).

Like his fellow experienced teachers, ET03 perceived pronunciation as the most challenging task for NNES teachers such as himself. He said "a problem is with I think uh with the pronunciation yeah. And that's why most Cambodian students have problems with pronunciation. They cannot pronounce the word uh I mean intelligibly, I mean understandably" (ET03-INT01@01:02:35). As he suggested, students' pronunciation was in part the result of the effect of instruction. More importantly were the terms "intelligibly" and "understandably" invoked by ET03, which struck my attention. That is, the terms are widely discussed in relation to English as a lingua franca, for example Smith and Nelson (2006), to promote legitimacy among NNES teachers, and as he explained later in his second interview, ET03 seemed to be aware of the phenomenon, thus constructing his teacher identity around this conception:

> Excerpt 7.22
>
> I think we cannot pronounce=I cannot pronounce uh the same as the native speakers [do]. But I think I usually pronounce words very clearly, I mean, intelligibly, very intelligibly. Yeah. That's my focus. Because it's hard to follow the American or the British. I found out later. Actually during my Year 2 or Year 3 [as a student] I tended to uh=I thought that 'well, pronunciation should be American, should be British. We're closer to that'. I seemed to be very proud, very proud, you know. And when I pay attention more on that, more on pronunciation, trying to compare, trying to learn more about that, I realise that we cannot be the same or similar to native speakers, but we can be clear, yeah, clearly articulated, yeah, so that we can communicate well, and can also inspire students [to do the same] (ET03-INT02@00:37:49).

When asked if he felt inferior to the NES teacher, he said "I think uh I used to feel inferior but until, I mean, until I understand the phenomenon. There is something more. I mean non-native speakers can teach better than native speakers in a number of ways, in many ways. Yeah. And I feel superior [about] that" (ET03-INT02@00:46:14). Like ET02, ET03 displayed strong self-efficacy belief being an NNES teacher in his own teaching contexts, empowering themselves as legitimate, capable teachers of English. Their views reflected some key concepts highlighted in recent literature of NNES teacher professionalism, for example in De Oliveira (2011), Llurda (2005b), and Reis (2011).

These teachers' identities as legitimate NNES teachers was also linked to their attitudes towards the role and status of English in their contemporary contexts. Both ET01 and ET02 considered English as a "global language", thus appreciating different varieties of English in various contexts. For instance, ET01 reported that:

> Excerpt 7.23
>
> I learn from the workshop recently English now no longer belongs to only the English speaking countries. It's going to be like the Singapore [English] or like many other countries. And the population who speak English and who are not native (speakers) are more than the number of the native speakers (themselves). So I think rather than we tend to change ourselves to pronounce=to make pronunciation the same as [that of] the native speaker, we can have our own way (ET01-INT01@01:15:20).

During her second interview, ET01 later, reconfirmed her view about the status of English. As she put it:

> Excerpt 7.24
>
> I think English now is a globalised language ok. We have Sing=even Singapore ok they have their own English. And our Cambodian=we also have our Cambodian English ok which mean [it] doesn't mean that we have to follow American accent (...) British accent or Australian accent ok. Uh, uh I think whatever accent is ok as long as we can understand each other. But there are also the points that we have to [take into consideration], for example, the stress [patterns] (ET01-INT02@00:47:19).

ET01 was particularly articulate about the difference between accent and pronunciation. She pointed out "so it's not the accent but pronunciation [that] is more important". She reported that she would be glad if her students could attain native-like pronunciation, but she would not "push the students to be specific on what accent=uh specific accent [to aim for] [...] It is not my idea" (ET01-INT02@00:48:24). Teacher conceptions such as those upheld by ET01 indicate how teachers' self-defined identities can shape their class practices, but they also reflect how complex her understanding about this phenomenon was.

In a similar fashion, ET02 argued for the acceptance of different varieties of English as follows:

Excerpt 7.25

Non-native speakers sometimes don't pronounce uh the word like the native does but we have to understand that language is unique. You can compare like Indian English, American English, Australian English, Singaporean English, so the context is how can you get your message across? And um how you understand [the message] but the pronunciation could be unique (ET02-INT02@00:52:07).

ET02 considered that "English is a global language" and believed that it was the sentence structures that were more important in communication. In his words: "when we have the right structure, we can say uh we put the message across, so I think it's not much problem related to (...) pronunciation" (ET02-INT02@00:55:42). However, as suggested by this last comment, it appeared that ET02's view about pronunciation was limited to the lexical level.

On the other hand, ET03 displayed signs of contradictions in his own beliefs relating to pronunciation and the speaker identity it would entail. As reported previously (e.g., Excerpt 7.22), he acknowledged that one did not have to obtain a native-like pronunciation and that he did not feel inferior to the NES norms, a sense of empowering oneself as an NNES teacher. However, at one point during his first interview, he stressed that he only focused on American and the British English because "I think these two are superior than you know other varieties of English" (ET03-INT01@01:54:46). When asked directly for his views about other English varieties, ET03 was particularly blunt, using his bald statements to discriminate against other varieties, especially when he found that they caused communication problems. He singled out Philippine English as the exception.

Excerpt 7.26

[For] the Philippines, I think they are acceptable yeah they're good standard. [For] the Indians, I feel some kind of discrimination. I discriminate yeah, Indian or African English yeah. I don't know [...] but I don't like Singaporean because uh they are not very close to uh American or British. As long as they are close to American or British, I mean very comprehensible, intelligible, yeah then I accept it. I agree with it. I do not discriminate. Otherwise I will discriminate. Like Singaporean. I'm not talking about those people's speaking English standard, I mean in the standard way because there are also some Singaporeans who can speak standard English. But the general people are crazy. I discriminate (them). I don't know but I don't feel good with them. I don't feel good because I find it hard to [understand]. I went to Singapore a

few times you know and I feel bad about those people. I don't like that. I don't want them to speak that way you know. Yeah. But they want to be themselves you know. They have their own identity. But I want them to stick to American standard or British standard, Australian standard so it's easy to communicate (ET03-INT01@01:55:57).

It became clear for ET03 that his personal identity as a speaker of English was constructed around the American or British ways of speaking the language, a form of sociocultural identity that is bound by the NES norm (Sifakis & Sougari, 2005). It became also clear that, for ET03, comprehensible or intelligible English in his sense of the terms, had to be either American, British or Australian English. To him, these Englishes constituted standard English, "the original" that provided the pedagogical norms for his (pronunciation) lessons.

Excerpt 7.27

I: Ok. One last question. Do you think there is a role or there is a place for the non-native variety in teaching?

ET03: I think uh=I don't know but uh we should stick to some kind of standard that is acceptable, yeah the standard. I think if uh [there are] too many varieties, we'll have problems with communication, a bit chaotic, confusing. We stick to the standard. By standard I mean British, American, Australian uh yeah Filipino. Those are the original ones, the source ones (ET03-INT01@01:57:56).

Philippine English is certainly not one of the 'originals', but as exemplified in Excerpt 7.27, ET03 held particularly favourable attitude towards this variety along with the other three Inner-Circle varieties (B. B. Kachru, 1992b). ET03's views represented prescriptivist perspectives about English language teaching. When asked if he considered introducing other Englishes than those of the Inner-Circle varieties, he said "I think it's hard and I think we seem to go away from the standard one. We try=actually we rather should=our direction should be [towards] the standard one. And right now because of the environment we tend to change the direction, to a wrong direction" (ET03-INT02@01:29:07). Clearly, to ET03, these Outer- and Expanding-Circle Englishes were an aberration of the Inner-Circle Englishes, a centripetal view about English varieties.

Comments made by ET03, presented so far, indicated that how he identified himself as an NNES teacher in his context related not only to his own conceptions of the language, conceptions that seemed to have been constructed throughout his

history of learning the language itself, but also to the broader sociocultural contexts in which the phenomenon was situated. In other words, like the cases of the pre-service teachers participated in this study (presented in Chapter 5) whose findings relevant to this issue are reported in more detail in Lim (2016), these broader sociocultural contexts (the historical view of English as a foreign language and the contemporary socio-political view of English as a lingua franca) shaped ET03's emergent conceptions of his NNES teacher identity, of the language itself and, in that regard, of how he would enact his instructional activities.

Section 7.1 has described the sociocultural backgrounds of the experienced teachers, which includes their language learning histories, motivation to become a teacher of English, professional training they received, teaching experiences they had had, and their identities as an NNES teacher. In the two sections that follow, I will move on to analyse the teachers' reported and actual approaches to vocabulary instruction. Where possible, I will draw connections between what the teachers thought, believed and knew about ELT and what they had experienced as language learners themselves.

7.2 REPORTED APPROACHES TO VOCABULARY INSTRUCTION

A number of related themes relevant to the teachers' reported approaches to vocabulary instruction emerged from the analysis of their interview accounts. These themes included (1) the teachers' conceptions about the importance of vocabulary instruction in an ELT curriculum, characterising it as a goal-directed action, (2) challenges the teachers reported they faced in vocabulary instruction, (3) beliefs about how best to approach vocabulary instruction, and (4) their perceptions about vocabulary testing and assessment.

7.2.1 Vocabulary Instruction as a Goal-Directed (Mental) Action

In determining that vocabulary instruction is a goal for which the teachers reported to aim, I invited the teachers to talk about the roles of vocabulary in language learning and vocabulary instruction in an ELT curriculum. All the three teachers believed that vocabulary played an important role in language learning. ET01, for example, viewed vocabulary knowledge as a basic requirement for her students to perform language skills. At the same time, she believed, the students could learn vocabulary from these skills.

Excerpt 7.28

I think it's important. To be able to read, to do the writing, to listen, you have to have basic vocabulary. Without basic vocabulary you cannot understand it. But at the same time you also have to understand the vocabulary from the listening and from reading backward yeah so well you can learn vocabulary [from these skills]. But if you learn vocabulary without reading, without listening, without you know writing, then you're still not able=I mean they have to go along hand in hand. And there has to be practice from one to another vocab and then combine it with other skills. Otherwise, you'd forget it yeah (ET01-INT01@01:32:07).

Her view that vocabulary and language skills "go along hand in hand" reflects the well-documented literature on vocabulary instruction (e.g., Carter, 1998; Nation, 2001; and Meara, 2009), suggesting therefore that ET01, as an experienced teacher, espoused beliefs about vocabulary instruction alluded to in research.

Similarly, ET02 also believed that "vocab also plays an important role in comprehension" (ET02-INT02@00:18:53). Like ET01, ET02 suggested that "the students should have enough words in order to use with uh=whether in communication or whether in the way of writing, speaking or reading so they, they=vocab play an important role in those kinds of text I think" (ET02-INT02@00:22:57). However, it was grammar that ET02 reported was focused on more during his class time. Taking his instructional experiences into account, ET02 put it as follows:

Excerpt 7.29

I think uh for a foreign learning context, a foreign language learning context we would introduce grammar structure. [It] is more successful than the others (language aspects), where the students have to be familiar with the structures and then they can build up uh language patterns by themselves and then we can move to other fields (language aspects?) effectively I think yeah (ET02-INT01@00:36:02).

To ET02, grammatical structures were the cornerstone of successful language learning, thus effective cross-cultural communication as well. This attitude was also shared by ET03, who reported that he focused more on grammar than on vocabulary, and both vocabulary and grammar together with speaking were emphasised much more than any other three macro-skills (reading, listening and writing). He commented that

Excerpt 7.30

I: Teachers often teach various skills. These include the four macro-skills and vocabulary and grammar. In your teaching is there a language skill that you have taught more than others?

ET03: Uh (...) I think uh reading and writing are the least that I focus on. I focus much on speaking yeah, speaking a lot. And grammar! [...] Grammar and Vocab. Yeah I think grammar and vocab are the main focus for me. Yeah usually grammar and vocab. And if we compare grammar and vocab, it's grammar (that I taught more). I spend most of the time on grammar (ET03-INT01@01:15:58).

ET03 went on to explain why he focused on grammar more than vocabulary in his lessons, reflecting his learning and teaching experiences reported in the preceding section (7.1).

Excerpt 7.31

I: Why do you do that?

ET03: Because uh grammar=I don't know (chuckles) I can say uh I'm confident with grammar. I'm good at grammar. And the students have problem with grammar. And grammar is easy to teach, easier to teach than uh vocab. And we have a lot of [instructional] materials for grammar and that's why I focus more on grammar than on vocab. Vocab is hard to teach. It's hard, it's hard to teach (ET03-INT01@01:17:00).

It is interesting to note that ET03 believed that "vocab is more important than grammar because vocab is more communicative" (ET03-INT01@01:17:44), but he reported that he was confident in teaching grammar repeatedly citing that teaching vocabulary was challenging. ET03's accounts suggest to a certain extent that despite one's belief (i.e., the importance of vocabulary instruction), it is one's confidence that gives rise to action. In other words, one does what one does best. At the same time, ET03's heavy emphasis on grammar also reflected his extensive grammar learning experiences reported in the preceding section, echoing the widely known notion of the apprenticeship of observation (Lortie, 1975).

The analysis in this sub-section illustrates that vocabulary instruction was a goal-directed (mental) action, one among others for the teachers to enact their ELT activity. However, as can be seen, for these teachers (especially ET02 and ET03), vocabulary instruction seemed to compete with, rather than complement, grammar teaching, the latter being reported as a more intended goal in their teaching

English. Invoking the notion of researcher reflexivity, the fact that vocabulary instruction was reported to have a place at all in these teachers' ELT curriculum could have been affected by the nature of the research which focused on vocabulary instruction. Nonetheless, as will be clear, vocabulary was perceived as much more challenging to teach than grammar, leading the teachers to focus on what they believed they were good at.

7.2.2 Challenges in Vocabulary Instruction

Seeing themselves as NNES teachers, all the three teachers expressly recognised some major challenges in vocabulary instruction. For example, they pointed out that the polysemy systems of the English language posed great a challenge for them to teach and for their students to learn vocabulary. ET01, for instance, commented that "[in] English, one word can mean many things yeah, so that is one challenge. The students sometimes learn only one definition and don't know other definitions. Generally, they focus on only [one] definition. Yeah they're not exploring" (ET01-INT01@01:07:18). ET01 believed that vocabulary needed to be learned in context so that its polysemy could be fully acquired:

> Excerpt 7.32
>
> For me I try to tell my students that the context is very important to learn vocabulary. You learn new words but also you have to understand the context. Sometimes if you don't know that word in that reading [...] you should look at the context. The context can give you some idea [of] what it means (ET01-INT01@01:10:05).

ET01 viewed that guessing the meanings of the words in reading was a strategy her students should learn to use; however, she complained that "most of them try to check the dictionary rather than guessing" (ET01-INT01@01:12:40). Similarly, ET02 found it difficult to explain how particular words were appropriately used in particular contexts because of the nature of their polysemy.

> Excerpt 7.33
>
> I think the way of choosing appropriate words for context where we have to explain the students [...] is the most challenging, I feel yeah. It's very difficult to get students to understand uh how we apply the word [in context] because in some context=you know the English words have different meanings [...] So it's very difficult to get the students to understand [this] (ET02-INT01@00:33:29).

In this similar manner, ET02 also reported that he found words with closely related meanings, which all meant the same in the first language, difficult to teach; “for example, we have the words like goal, aim, objective. It’s very difficult to get the students to understand these” (ET02-INT01@00:33:50).

ET03, on the other hand, was more concerned with how his students could use learnt words productively. He observed that “the biggest challenge is uh they cannot use the vocab appropriately [...] in speaking or in writing. When they use it, it’s like very clumsy you know. It sounds very clumsy. So it’s like it’s not the right word. They do not use the right word to express the [intended] meaning” (ET03-INT01@00:54:50). More importantly, ET03 recognised that this problem also stemmed from the fact that

> Excerpt 7.34
>
> we (teachers) can teach only the meaning. When it comes to using the vocab appropriately, we have problems because sometimes we ourselves do not understand it. I mean we do not understand the vocab very well (ET03-INT01@01:13:35).

Another challenge these teachers reported they were faced with in their vocabulary instruction was associated with teaching pronunciation of the lexical items in question. They believed that vocabulary instruction also involved the teaching and learning of pronunciation, especially the suprasegmental patterns of the lexical items, phonological features that posed great difficulty for them and their students alike. ET03, for instance, lamented that “another challenge of the vocabulary [instruction] is most students uh do not pronounce the vocab correctly. They have problems with pronunciation” (ET03-INT01@00:55:03). ET03 observed that while his students seemed to be able to pronounce individual lexical items properly, they tended to make mistakes in speaking in a broader discourse.

> Excerpt 7.35
>
> They can pronounce those words correctly. But the disappointing part of the story is that when they speak uh=I mean subconsciously they make the mistake again. Yeah if you ask them to pronounce those words [in isolation] with their peers, they can pronounce the words correctly. [But] later on when they're speaking using those words, [they make] mistakes (ET03-INT01@00:56:30).

ET03, who taught junior undergraduates, believed that "it's called fossilisation. Fossilisation yeah cannot be cured" (ET03-INT01@00:56:50). He referred to this fossilisation as "an obvious phenomenon", the effect of instruction. He elucidated his thought, during his second interview, as follows:

> Excerpt 7.36
>
> I think they take it for granted from the beginning [of their learning]. And I think if we (teachers) do something about it in the beginning, I mean if the teacher tries to pay attention to teaching pronunciation and tries to be very strict with pronunciation, raise [students'] awareness constantly of the pronunciation, I think the story ends better yeah and more happily [...] I think if they (students) take it seriously, they can do it. They [have] potentials. They can do it. They're capable. Most of them are capable, but they take it for granted. And I think the main job of the teacher is do something about it, to get the students to take it seriously. [...] Yeah. But I don't think most lecturers or most teachers uh pay attention to that. They also take it for granted (ET03-INT01@00:34:03).

ET03's concept of his students' fossilised language as some sort of disease that "cannot be cured" appeared to profoundly affect not only his classroom practices but his teacher identity. As will be seen in Chapter 8, ET03 reported that, after failed attempts, he decided to ignore his students with poor language proficiency, a deliberate decision that made him feel "guilty".

ET01, however, found herself in a less convenient position to teach, or even to talk about, pronunciation. She admitted that:

> Excerpt 7.37
>
> honestly I know my weaknesses and I know my strengths so uh I try to focus on something that I am so good at yeah. And for example I know that my pronunciation is not good ok, I try, during the pronunciation [activity] I let the students listen to uh CD rather than I speak it (modelling pronunciation, that is) because I'm not good at it=like [whether it's] voiceless or voiced, the sound /t/, /ʃ/ and things like that. I want to learn (laughs) but I could not uh because when I was young I didn't have chance to expose [to it] [...] I know that it's one of my weaknesses so I play the CD and let the students repeat it from the CD rather than I speak it (ET01-INT01@00:59:35).

ET01's account appealed to her view of sound pedagogical decisions. Like ET03 talking about teaching grammar (Excerpt 7.31), ET01 believed that one does what one does best.

As can be seen in this sub-section, these experienced teachers identifying themselves as NNES, acknowledged their limitations in teaching vocabulary and pronunciation, but also showed they knew how to make pedagogical decisions to maximise their students' learning experience. The analysis of their interview accounts further revealed what they perceived as appropriate approaches to vocabulary instruction, thus being their reported approaches.

7.2.3 How to Best Approach Vocabulary Instruction

This theme reflected their beliefs about the best approaches to teaching and learning vocabulary. Based on their interview accounts, three interrelated sub-themes were further identified. They were the teachers' beliefs about (1) the role of learner autonomy, (2) the role of context in vocabulary instruction and (3) the role of L1 and/or L1 translation. I present them as follows.

7.2.3.1 The Role of Learner Autonomy in Vocabulary Instruction

As experienced teachers, the notion of learner autonomy seemed to function as a foundational, conceptual framework on which they based to operate their thinking about vocabulary instruction. These teachers consistently reported that learner autonomy was an important conceptual approach to language learning (particularly vocabulary learning). For instance, in her response to my question about how she went about teaching vocabulary in her class, ET01 reported that

> Excerpt 7.38
>
> to me I tend to let the students do by themselves [...] I ask the students to work in group and then I ask them to highlight the difficult words ok and then uh I let them do by themselves. And sometimes I ask them to do this: They [are] divided into 4 groups and [for] 4 sections [of the unit] and I ask them to look for difficult words and they share the difficult words with each other. Yeah. I give more responsibility to the students (ET01-INT01@00:52:19).

ET01 believed that "the students learn when they are trying to highlight [i.e., identify] the difficult words" by themselves much better than when she decided on which words were difficult for them because, she said, with the former approach the students would remember words for a much longer period of time. ET01

characterised learner autonomy as a teaching strategy within "student-oriented methodology", commenting that "it's strategy that we should share responsibility with [the students] if we can" (ET01-INT01@00:54:02).

ET02, likewise, advocated learner autonomy as a good approach to teaching vocabulary. He believed that "they (the students) should learn independently. They should be responsible for what they're learning. So we have to convince them to see the benefit" as independent learners (ET02-INT02@00:27:54). ET02 reported that, with this approach, his students "work more independently [...] When they come across a difficult word, they have their own way to find out [what] the word is, instead of asking [the teacher]" (ET02-INT02@00:28:52).

In a similar fashion, reflecting on how successful his teaching had been in terms of enhancing his students' vocabulary knowledge, ET03 identified his role as an inspirer or a guide for his students to be autonomous, managing their own learning process. The following extract capturing his view on learner autonomy is taken from his second interview:

> Excerpt 7.39
>
> [...] much work lies with the students themselves because I still strongly believe in uh learning autonomy. I mean, the learners take the responsibility by themselves. The learners must be autonomous, must be independent, must be responsible [for their learning] because I believe that uh my main responsibility is to guide them and to pave the way or to inspire them, to, to lead them. And the rest, I mean the rest of the main work, the main job is with the students themselves (ET03-INT02@00:18:16).

For ET01 and ET02 particularly, learner autonomy signified the instructional culture at their workplace. When asked how she came to embrace such an approach, for instance, ET01 responded that "I don't know. I think it's like uh at Dream University we tend to teach students to be more independent" (ET01-INT01@01:35:10). Similarly, ET02 commented that "at Dream University, probably typically for Dream University students, they uh are responsible" for their own learning as they had accessible technological devices such as smart phones and electronic dictionaries. ET02 observed that

> Excerpt 7.40
>
> the teaching situation right now is completely different from what we had in the last 15 years or 20 years, yeah completely different. In the last 20 years the

> students did not have access to those kinds of uh learning materials so they um depended too much on the teachers (ET02-INT01@00:23:16).

ET02, as Excerpt 40 indicates, viewed the increasing role of learner autonomy as an approach to language instruction in conjunction with the advancement of technological tools such as smart phones used in language classrooms. Learner autonomy was not explicitly proclaimed as the preferred approach to teaching at that institution, however. Nonetheless, these teachers perceived that this concept was promoted there, thus reflecting how they appropriated, negotiated and made sense of their own community of practice.

An aspect of promoting learner autonomy among their students in learning vocabulary, as these teachers believed, was for the students to use monolingual (English-English) dictionaries, especially when their learners were at an advanced level. For instance, for ET02, using dictionaries "helps students to be independent learners". ET02 also believed that with dictionaries his students could learn how to "pronounce words correctly [...] and how to use the words in appropriate ways" (ET02-INT01@00:54:08). ET02 clearly stated that "I encourage them to use [the dictionaries] in their own time, not in the classroom. And in the classroom we try to use other methods [but] not that one" (ET02-INT01@00:54:32). Later during his second interview when he and I were discussing the use of matching and gap-filling exercises, ET02 explicated what he meant by these other methods that he would use in class to teach vocabulary.

> Excerpt 7.41
>
> I did a kind of guessing, predicting or matching or word hunting. Yeah. So the idea is we want to reduce the use of dictionary while reading. So I told the students that they can understand [the reading] without uh getting the exact meaning of the word because the word could be different according to the context [in the reading] [...] We want their understanding, but uh I told them if they wish to learn how to use the new word in [other] context, they have to check the dictionary to make sure it's appropriate yeah. But for the reading they can guess (ET02-INT02@00:21:19).

ET02's argument was that for his students to achieve reading comprehension, they needed to possess the ability to guess difficult words in the context of the reading, but as part of their autonomous learning dictionaries could be used to extend the contexts of vocabulary use.

ET03 also believed in the role of dictionaries in promoting independent learning. He viewed a dictionary as an alternative reference to the teacher, upon which his students could rely to learn vocabulary outside of the classroom. In his words:

> Excerpt 7.42
>
> I think dictionary is very important because we can=we don't need to learn from our teacher. We can learn independently you know by using the dictionary. We don't need to ask someone. We can use the dictionary in order to learn uh the vocab (ET03-INT01@01:48:19).

On the other hand, ET01, who previously complained that her students generally used dictionaries rather than guessed words in context, believed that "sometimes they have to [use dictionaries]. [If] they try to guess the meaning, [and] they still don't know it, [...] it is a must that they have to check it [in the dictionary]" (ET01-INT01@01:44:41).

Learner autonomy appeared to be the central operating concept these experienced teachers drew on to make sense of vocabulary instruction, a notion that did not feature in either the pre-services' or the novices' accounts. However, like their less experienced counterparts, these experienced teachers also believed that vocabulary instructional activities during class time needed to take into account the role of context. It is this sub-theme to which I now turn.

7.2.3.2 The Role of Context in Vocabulary Instruction

This theme was arrived at from the analysis of the teachers' interview accounts. It reflected how the teachers perceived teaching and learning vocabulary in relation to context, by which the teachers meant that the meanings of the lexical items in question were bound by the context of either the reading or listening texts or of the topics for speaking or writing.

For difficult words in reading, ET01, for instance, reported that she asked her students to guess the meaning using the reading's context. She claimed that "I ask them to concentrate only [on] the meaning in the context, not any [other meaning]. So it's like they're supposed to have only one meaning or two" possible meanings for that context (ET01-INT02/P2@00:10:25). ET01 also reported that

> Excerpt 7.43
>
> sometimes I use TOEFL text or IELTS or something like that. They (reading comprehension questions) ask what does the verb mean? Ok, what does the

> verb in this line mean? Something like that. So then the students ask why not this one, why not this one. So we have to say that 'Look. You see which one is the best. So this word may have the same meaning, similar meaning but it's not in the context. So you have to choose the best, the best one which is suitable for this context' (ET01-INT01@01:33:23).

To ET01, it was crucial for the students to appreciate how the meaning of a particular word was affected by the context in which the word was used. In teaching new vocabulary to her students, therefore, she reported that she taught not only the definition of the item but also "how to use it and [in] what context" (ET01-INT01@00:31:22). ET01 explained further that definitions alone were not enough. Examples showing how the items were used should be presented to the students so that the meanings of the new vocabulary could be retained. In her words: "I mean it's like they learn new vocabulary [using] the definition and example [...] I think [example] can remind them to remember the definition" (ET01-INT01@01:06:37). To ET01, it was the examples that set the context for how the words were used and it was through such contextualised examples that the meanings of the words were learnt and remembered. She commented further that "to remember it longer you have to remember the meaning of the word and how you can use it in context yeah" (ET01-INT01@01:36:20). Such a strong emphasis on the role of context in vocabulary instruction was consistent and recapitulated throughout ET01's accounts.

For ET02, learning vocabulary in isolation was not a good approach either. He believed that teaching vocabulary in isolation was only meant to increase the number of words the students knew, and "the students can learn [that] by themselves I think", continuing that

> Excerpt 7.44
>
> it's better to teach them (lexical items) in uh different contexts I think [through] reading or listening or writing. It could be useful. And uh if we teach vocab solely [without] context, the students do not know how to use it (ET02-INT01@00:42:36).

Apparently, ET02 was pointing out the difference between vocabulary breadth and vocabulary depth, two among many other concepts discussed in the literature of vocabulary instruction (e.g., Nation, 2001). ET02 believed that working out the meanings of vocabulary in context was important for his students to learn new words.

Excerpt 7.45

I chose a number of difficult words where it uh retain the meaning of the text and provide them with the kind of explanation of the word in simple context. It's really like dictionary but uh (...) what=it means in that context and ask students to scan through the text if they find any difficult words and then ask them to highlight those kind of key or difficult words and then encourage them to find out whether the difficult words are related to the explanation or not, something like that (?) And then they can uh figure out which words are explained in that context. Yeah (ET02-INT01@00:44:20).

ET02 also discussed his vocabulary teaching in terms of his students' English proficiency levels as illustrated in the following excerpt taken from his first interview.

Excerpt 7.46

Currently I'm teaching Core English uh in Year 2 (upper-intermediate level) and ISE uh Introductory to Sociology (conducted in English) (intermediate level) yeah (...) and uh you refer to how I teach the vocab so it depends on the level of the students. And it depends on the time or schedule but uh I think for the lower level students using pictures is the best way to integrate or to help them understand the lesson better. And then they have their own practice and group work and they can share. Yeah I think that one is normally [what] I try. And for the higher level normally we ask the students to guess from the contexts or we can design another handout where the students they have to work with the text and find the meaning of the words from the handout, what we call 'word-hunting' or 'matching' yeah so that one I did yep (ET02-INT01@00:17:08).

As can be observed from this extract, for ET02 the role of context played out when the students' proficiency became higher, and as already shown, ET02 also found it harder to teach vocabulary in context (reported in sub-section 7.2.2). From his perspective, vocabulary instructional activities for low-level learners were more concrete, for example using pictures, and would become more abstract for high-level learners, for example using examples to explain the vocabulary in question. He was quite consistent in his accounts during his interviews.

In discussing the role of context in vocabulary instruction, ET03 re-emphasised the importance of polysemy, and he believed that it was particular

contexts that made the meaning of a particular word precise. In giving his view about vocabulary teaching, he put it as follows:

> Excerpt 7.47
>
> [...] they need to understand the meanings of the words in context because the meanings, you know=I mean one word can have multiple meanings. It varies from context to context. If they do not learn from that context, maybe it can be a problem. Maybe they can understand the meaning, only [for] one particular context, but in a different context, they cannot understand [it]. So, that can be a problem. So we have to think of understanding a word in context, specific contexts and they can use it in speaking or in writing (ET03-INT02@00:12:29).

ET03 was particularly explicit about how he approached vocabulary instruction. He said vocabulary needed to be taught for "both receptive skills and productive skills" (ET03-INT02@00:12:09), but as will be shown later in Chapter 8, ET03 was frustrated that he could not deliver what he believed was helping his students enhance their productive vocabulary knowledge, citing concerns of class time availability and his workload.

7.2.3.3 The Role of L1 and/or L1 Translation

With strong beliefs in the role of context in vocabulary instruction, these experienced teachers appeared to hold negative attitudes towards the role of L1 and/or L1 translation. The teachers believed that strategies such as providing definitions together with contextualised examples were more appropriate than translation which would not be conducive to retaining vocabulary knowledge. ET01, for instance, believed that for her students to retain vocabulary knowledge, translation should not be used, reporting that her teaching was "like English-to-English definition. And most of the time, no translation" (ET01-INT01@00:31:36). ET01 was particularly determined that translation should not find its place in her instructional activities. That is, if her students wished to translate words, they had to do so by themselves outside of her class. As she put it:

> Excerpt 7.48
>
> Uh some students like uh=their English is not good enough to understand [in English] so sometimes they say that uh=they ask me what does it mean in Khmer? But uh most of the time I=even though they ask me to do the translation, I tell them that they can go and check it by themselves. For me I

> can teach [them in English]. I want them to understand the meaning by itself in English yeah [with] context. Yeah (ET01-INT01@00:32:18).

It was highly consistent in ET01's accounts that translation was not used in teaching vocabulary. Throughout her first interview, whenever she talked about explaining vocabulary to her students, she repeated her stand that "I tell them the definition. I tell them the definition in English, not translation yeah not translation" (ET01-INT01@01:35:52). When asked how she came to embrace such a negative attitude towards the role of translation in vocabulary instruction, ET01 responded as follows:

> Excerpt 7.49
>
> If I'm not wrong ok I have learnt from my teacher at Dream University that uh (...) it seems like we're not encouraged to do translation yeah. We=uh I remember uh I think translation sometimes can be confusing yeah and uh like English uh can have many meanings so one translation? And that's not in English teaching methodology itself yeah I think. Translation, you can do translation by yourself (ET01-INT01@01:36:10).

Excerpt 7.49 illuminates two aspects of ET01's conception of the role of translation in vocabulary instruction. First, it explains that she became negative about the role of translation because she had observed that translation was not encouraged during the course of her own learning English. That is, through her apprenticeship of observation, her negative perception about the role of translation was formed. Second, ET01 conceptualised that translating words to teach vocabulary was "not in English teaching methodology". In other words, it was her belief that methodologically teachers should not use translation to teach vocabulary.

ET02 reported that he rarely used L1 and/or translation in his lessons. He said "I actually, at Dream University, uh rarely yeah [taught] those students in the first language. Normally I use the target language with them, so rarely=I rarely did it in the first language" (ET02-INT01@0055:35). It is interesting to note that ET02 generally referenced his conception of language teaching to the context in which he worked, the Dream University as just ET01 did in Excerpt 7.48 above. Such a reference suggested that these teachers framed their own conception of a particular phenomenon (i.e., teaching vocabulary) within his social institution, an appropriation of teaching practice in situ.

On the other hand, ET03 was wary in terms of the role of L1 or translation in vocabulary instruction. Although acknowledging that L1 could be good for his

students' learning vocabulary, it became clear throughout his interview accounts that he also held a negative attitude towards it. The following extract shows how ET03 evaluated the role of translation, criticising the quality of translation his students could obtain from a bilingual dictionary. In his words:

> Excerpt 7.50
>
> First language uh I think uh=actually it's also good because the students can understand the meaning very well. Yeah. But the problem is with the dictionary translation because it's hard to find a good dictionary==I don't know if it's hard to find or we don't have a good Khmer dictionary, Khmer-English. And the problem is that they can distort the meaning. I don't know but I have one student or two students you know. A few years back they used Khmer-English dictionary. And that's the problem you know because if they use that they try to think in Khmer. Yeah they try to think in Khmer. So they'll always ask (for) translation. It's really annoying sometimes (ET03-INT01@01:49:33).

For ET03, poor quality translation can "distort the meaning" of the words being learnt, and this painted a negative picture for the role of translation. Besides, as also illustrated in Excerpt 7.50, he believed the resulting effect of using a Khmer-English dictionary was his students always relying on translation, and that became "annoying" for him, although it was not clear whether the cause of such an annoyance was actually the demand placed on him to provide good quality translation. However, an interesting comment that ET03 made in the excerpt was the problem of his students thinking in Khmer when learning English. I was able to follow up this comment during his second interview where he explained as follows:

> Excerpt 7.51
>
> I: Ok. And you said also that you concern that if the students use the Khmer-English dictionary, the students will think in Khmer rather than in English.
>
> ET03: Yes.
>
> I: And what do you mean by thinking in English and thinking in Khmer?
>
> ET03: I mean uh thinking in Khmer when they see the word in English, yeah they try to use their L1. They try to use their L1 in order to think. When they see that word in English they tend to let their L1 interfere with their L2. And so their attention is divided into two, so it's not effective for using the language, for operating the language. And thinking in Khmer, sometimes we have the difference between L1 and L2 so that

> can distort the meaning. I mean they might misunderstand. The meaning of that word in Khmer can be misleading, because right now they're learning (?). But if they're learning translation or interpretation, yeah I think L1 and L2, that way is good because you need to translate. You need to interpret. But in this way, attention is divided. Learning is not effective. Thinking is not effective. Speaking is not effective (ET02-INT02@01:19:14).

It became clear that for ET03 L1 and/or translation had a negative role not only in vocabulary instruction but also in language learning generally. ET03 was concerned about possible cross-linguistic negative transfer when his students use Khmer translation to learn English vocabulary.

7.2.4 The Teachers' Perceptions about Vocabulary Testing and Assessment

As practising teachers, vocabulary testing and assessment also featured in their discussions regarding vocabulary instruction. The teachers reported that, on top of their teaching workload, they also designed, administered and marked vocabulary tests, as part of the assessments in their ELT curriculum. When asked how they went about testing their students' vocabulary knowledge, these teachers pointed to a number of testing techniques such as matching words with their definitions, multiple-choice questions (MCQ) and sentence- or passage-gap completion (i.e., gap-filling). ET01, for instance, reported that she used "matching [...] supply[ing] key terms and reading" to test her students' vocabulary knowledge (ET01-INT01@01:37:34), and she elaborated as follows:

> Excerpt 7.52
>
> Uh to me=Ok we usually=in the test, revision test and the exam, even in the quiz, we usually have multiple choice but we have less multiple choice I guess because it's difficult to design. We have matching more often. We have uh filling in the gap and uh, uh that is uh I think basic vocabulary standard. Um (...) uh maybe it's not yet=it seems like it's the same thing all the time but uh at one point when we have similar standard all the time, I think one point is good because the students are familiar with that. So they find it=they understand [about] the standard of the test (i.e., face validity of the test papers) and uh they have their=I mean and the teacher also knows that it should be among this range. Ok (ET02-INT02@00:15:38).

Based on her verbal accounts, ET01's conception of the vocabulary test appears to have been influenced by the context she was working in. Her repeated use of "we usually" and "basic vocabulary standard" supports this interpretation. Previously, she also reported that the ways she tested her students' vocabulary knowledge (such as matching definitions with vocabulary items) were the result of her previous professional training experience: "It's (matching technique) a kind of design, of methodology that we have (...) uh the test skill that we have learnt, yeah" (ET01-INT01@01:37:51). It seems, therefore, that ET01's beliefs about vocabulary testing were heavily influenced by her formal teacher education program and her institutional culture of practice itself.

When probed for possible connections between what she believed about vocabulary testing and how she taught in class, at the end of Excerpt 7.53, ET01 justified her practice by referencing her fellow colleagues, thus framing her conception of this aspect within the community of practice.

Excerpt 7.53

I: So in the vocabulary section (of the test paper), there are matching=

ET01: =hmmm

I: And gap-filling=

ET01: =multiple choice

I: Yeah multiple choice. So how has that influenced your way of teaching vocabulary in the class?

ET01: I also use multiple choice [matching?] more often. Yeah. More often I use the multiple choice. Honestly I think it's like uh easier to design yeah ok. It's like you pick up==I pick up a difficult word, ok, from the text, ok. And then we type it, check it in the dictionary and copy from the dictionary and then we uh you know ask them to match, finding the right answer. Yeah. So, for me, it's more common. And I think some other lecturers also use it more common as well (ET01-INT02@00:20:42).

Although she said "multiple choice", it was clear from the excerpt that she meant "matching". She also corrected herself later in our exchange:

Excerpt 7.54

I: Do you give them, the students, a lot of this kind of exercise (matching exercise)?

ET01: Yes. Yeah. Yeah. Mostly uh it's multiple choice. Oh no sorry. Not multiple choice. It's matching. Yeah (ET01-INT02@00:21:40).

For ET02, the vocabulary test also needed to take into account the context. He said "in testing normally we test in context [...] ask them to choose or to match or to [supply] in the appropriate space [with a lexical item]" (ET02-INT01@00:47:21). He strongly believed that by testing his students this way,

> Excerpt 7.55
>
> it could tell us about uh the student proficiency, the student comprehension and their uh their what? their um what we say? Can we say their ability to use? or their flexibility? Yeah we can say their flexibility that they, they know the word and they can put them back in the right context. Or it helps them to understand uh it gives us some idea that they understand the context better, or something like that one. Yeah (ET02-INT02@00:19:43).

However, it seemed that ET02 was not differentiating receptive from productive vocabulary knowledge, an important distinction ET03 pointed out. In his response to my question about how he tested his students' vocabulary knowledge, ET03 commented that "I think uh more frequently uh [it's] matching, yeah doing matching. Uh just uh recognition. If they can recognise the words, yeah they can perform well in the test or in the quiz" (ET03-INT01@01:36:33). His choice of the word "recognise" clearly reflects his understanding about the difference between receptive and productive vocabulary knowledge. It became even clearer when he explained why he did what he did. The following extract was taken from his first interview:

> Excerpt 7.56
>
> Actually it's not [satisfactory] but I think because of the marking, because of the convenience so that we can=Number 1. We can mark faster. Number 2. It's very fair (i.e., objective) so that there is no complaint [from the students]. Number 3. It is easy to design, quickly designed. But uh I think uh it does not really test the students' ability, real ability uh the students can only recognise. But if we ask the students to write something, to produce something I think it's much better. But uh we will have more burden for that. We know, I think we know [about this]. Everyone knows, every teacher knows but we think of the burden, we think of the workload. Yeah that's why I think we do what we don't

want to do you know. We still do it you know. We still do it (ET03-INT01@01:37:05).

It was particularly revealing that ET03 (and, according to him, other teachers as well) evaluated his beliefs about how best to test his students' vocabulary knowledge against the working conditions afforded to him. Through such an evaluation in itself, contradiction emerged, discussed further in Chapter 8.

Moreover, like ET02, ET03 also pointed to the role of context in vocabulary testing, but as can be seen from Excerpt 7.57 below, even when he discussed the role of context in vocabulary testing, ET03 also expressed his dissatisfaction over the ways vocabulary knowledge had been tested. He referred to these ways as "pretty traditional methods of testing [...] those old ways".

Excerpt 7.57

Uh I think uh the way we test vocab, we just test those words from uh the reading texts in uh Core English. And sometimes also from uh the listening, I mean the tape-scripts that we also can take some words to test them. And the way we test uh sometimes=I mean it depends on the section (in the test paper), sometimes we test the vocab in contexts so the students can understand. If they understand the words used in the contexts, they can do it well. And sometimes uh you know they don't need to really understand, they just remember. Yeah they remember the words or the meanings from the texts, from the Core English [texts], they can also do it. Yeah they can also do it, because we seem to uh use pretty traditional methods of testing, yeah testing our students. And we have no other choices. We just follow those old ways, same old, same old (ET03-INT02@00:08:59).

Summary of the teachers' reported approaches to vocabulary instruction

Section 7.2 has presented the experienced teachers' reported approaches to vocabulary instruction and their perceptions about vocabulary testing and assessment, which reflected their mental actions. It may be helpful to visualise such actions in representational forms. Figure 7.1, therefore, summarises the teachers' reported approaches to vocabulary instruction.

Figure 7.1 depicts the experienced teachers' mental processes about vocabulary instruction. In summarising these experienced teachers' mental actions, this model may be more illuminating when compared to those of the pre-services (Figure 5.1) and the novices (Figure 6.1) so that it is possible to project how these teachers at different career stages conceptualised vocabulary instruction.

Figure 7.1 Schematic representation of the experienced teachers' reported approaches to vocabulary instruction

In a similar fashion, it appears that as these teachers talked about vocabulary instruction, certain instructional tasks such as word-definition matching, MCQ, gap-filling exercises, and non-instructional activities like using monolingual dictionaries emerged as a common theme in their accounts. However, differences lay in how these teachers oriented their thoughts towards discussing vocabulary instruction. Although nuances are found among individual teachers, an observable pattern exists between the pre-services, novices and experienced teachers regarding such orientations. By juxtaposing Figures 5.1, 6.1 and 7.1, I observe that while the pre-services tended to conceptualise vocabulary instruction in terms of differences between in-class and out-of-class activities, the novices viewed it in terms of the role of context in the teaching and learning of vocabulary. The experienced teachers' perceptions about vocabulary instruction seemed to

encompass both of these orientations (i.e., instructional and non- instructional activities and the role of context).

However, also featured quite prominently in the experienced teachers' accounts was the notion of learner autonomy in the process of vocabulary learning and teaching. As reported in this section, these experienced teachers viewed that it was important for their students to take charge of their own learning, giving rise to, for example, students guessing word meanings from the contexts of reading or listening, using monolingual (English-English) dictionaries to work out the meanings of lexical items, and translating words into Khmer on their own. As for the role of context, like their less experienced counterparts, these experienced teachers also believed that contexts (especially situational contexts) played an important role in meaningful vocabulary instruction. These situational contexts were largely determined by the contexts of, for example, reading and listening passages found in the textbooks they were using. However, for the role of linguistic contexts, unlike their less experienced colleagues (both pre-service and novice teachers), these experienced teachers did not articulate that vocabulary items should be taught along with parts of speech, pronunciation and synonyms or antonyms. Besides, unlike the pre-services and novices, they held strong negative attitudes towards the role of L1 and/or translation during classroom instruction. These similarities and differences among these teachers are important indications of the contents of their thinking or mental actions about vocabulary instruction. More importantly, the references they made to certain notions such as vocabulary in context and learner autonomy reflect the psychological or conceptual tools of these teachers on which they based their pedagogical decisions and enacted such decisions in terms of both instructional and non-instructional activities.

Another dimension of the experienced teachers' mental actions about vocabulary instruction as shown in Figure 7.1 deals with vocabulary testing and assessment. This aspect also applied to the novices because both the novices and the experienced teachers were practising teachers, handling their own classes, but it did not apply to the pre-services who underwent a short practicum period, thus limiting the realisation or materialisation of this aspect of their thinking about vocabulary instruction. The experienced teachers reported that vocabulary was mainly tested using matching, MCQ, and gap-filling techniques, a kind of practice they seemed to have appropriated from their learning and teaching experiences, as well as from their professional development programs. However, there were tensions on the part of the teachers. Among them, ET03 was particularly articulate

in terms of his frustration. As already shown (for example in Excerpts 7.55 and 7.56), ET03 perceived the assessment of the learners' productive vocabulary knowledge delivered by his institutional testing methods to be limited. In a sense, these teachers' articulated evaluation of their current practice of vocabulary testing and assessment reflected the constraining nature of the cultural and institutional context in which the teachers worked. Such a constrain also seemed effectively to contain their sense of agency in rectifying the problems they reported they were facing. As will be seen further in Chapter 8, such a lack of mechanisms to resolve (perceived) problems seemed to have caused teacher attrition within the institution.

In the remainder of this chapter, however, I turn to the analysis of the observational data, recall interviews and written documents collected from two of the three experienced teachers (i.e., ET02 and ET03; the reasons for the lack of data from ET01 were explained in 7.3 below.) The analysis showed how the teachers went about dealing with vocabulary issues, thus essentially reflecting their physical actions and operations of vocabulary instruction.

7.3 ACTUAL APPROACHES TO VOCABULARY INSTRUCTION

Only ET02's and ET03's observational data were valid for the analysis. For ET01, classroom data and teaching materials could not be extensively and meaningfully collected. Among the three teachers, ET01 appeared to be the most sensitive and reluctant to engage. She tended to avoid having her lessons observed, despite continuing to express her consent. She called off the scheduled observations frequently. She cancelled them either because, she said, a test would be administered on the day or because she would be absent from the class. Throughout the entire data collection period, therefore, I was only able to observe two of her lessons, one of which was a reading lesson conducted among pre-university program students, a Bridging Course (BC), and the other a Core English (CE) lesson for freshmen. Unfortunately, the major part of both sessions turned out to be designed, respectively, for a reading quiz and for the students to make oral presentation of their class projects. As a result, little was observed about ET01's actual practices, resulting in her classroom data being excluded from the analysis.

On the other hand, the data of the other two experienced teachers had been obtained meaningfully. The analyses of these teachers' actual practices were based on their actual lessons, their recall interviews conducted after the observations, and relevant documents (such as teaching textbooks and handouts). At the time of

the study, ET02 was teaching Year 2, upper-intermediate, CE2 and ET03 was teaching Year 3, advanced, CE3. During my fieldwork, I was able to observe five of ET02's lessons and eight of ET03's. Each lesson lasted for approximately 70 minutes, and the subject-matters were largely determined by the textbooks being used, respectively the New Headway Upper-Intermediate and New Headway Advanced student books by Oxford University Press (Soars & Soars, 2011). In Table 7.2, I outline the lessons I observed for each of these two teachers and the foci of the lessons.

Table 7.2 Observation schedules for ET02's and ET03's lessons

ET02'S OBSERVED LESSONS	OBJECTIVES ("THEME")	MAIN ACTIVITIES	MATERIALS
LESSON 1 (06 MAR 2014)	Listening and speaking skills – "Getting Married"	Listening comprehension questions and answers Group discussion about "pros and cons of getting married"	Textbooks (p.65) CD player Whiteboard and markers
LESSON 2 (10 MAR 2014)	Reading and speaking skills – "Meet the Kippers"	Group reading activities Reading comprehension	Textbooks (pp. 66-67) Whiteboard and markers
LESSON 3 (10 MAR 2014)	Reading and speaking skills – "Meet the Kippers"	Vocabulary work Class discussion about "being Kippers"	Textbooks (pp. 66-67) Whiteboard and markers
LESSON 4 (14 MAR 2014)	Speaking skills – "Arguing your case–for and against"	Group discussion about the good and bad things about (using) emails	Textbooks (p.118) Whiteboard and markers

LESSON 5 (14 MAR 2014)	Speaking skills – "Arguing your case–for and against"	Class discussion about the pros and cons of emails Student sharing and discussing their ideas	Textbooks (p.118) Whiteboard and markers
ET03'S OBSERVED LESSONS	OBJECTIVES	MAIN ACTIVITIES	MATERIALS
LESSON 1 (24 FEB 2014)	Introducing Semester 2 course objectives Interpreting quotes of wisdom	In groups of four, students discussing the meanings of the quotes of wisdom (e.g., "A journey of a thousand miles begins with a single step.") Class discussion about the meanings of the quotes	Textbook (p.63) Handouts CD player Whiteboard and markers
LESSON 2 (24 FEB 2014)	Reading and listening skills – "A letter to a newborn son"	Students reading the text individually Students listening to the recording of a man reading the text	Textbook (p.64) CD player Whiteboard and markers
LESSON 3 (27 FEB 2014)	Reading and listening skills Vocabulary in context	Students continuing reading and listening to the same text Class discussion about the meanings of certain vocabulary from the text	Textbook (p.65) CD player Whiteboard and markers
LESSON 4 (27 FEB 2014)	Grammar – "Modal auxiliary verbs"	Class discussion about the meanings and usages of modal auxiliary verbs Teacher explaining grammatical and vocabulary points	Textbook (p.66) Whiteboard and markers

LESSON 5 (03 MAR 2014)	Grammar – "Modal verbs"	Class discussion about the meanings and usages of modal verbs	Handouts
LESSON 6 (03 MAR 2014)	Listening and speaking skills – "Words of wisdom"	Students listening to different people talking about wisdom Students sharing personal experiences about "words of wisdom"	Textbook (p.68) CD player
LESSON 7 (10 MAR 2014)	Listening and speaking skills Vocabulary and pronunciation – "rhyme and reason" Vocabulary and pronunciation – "extra"	Students in pairs reading a poem and filling in the gaps with one of three words provided for each gap Class discussion about the meanings of the words used to fill in the gaps Students working on 15 words the teacher selected from Unit 7 Students practising the pronunciation of 61 individual words selected by the teacher	Textbook (pp. 68-69) CD player Handouts
LESSON 8 (10 MAR 2014)	Writing and speaking skills – "breaking the rules of English" Pronunciation	Students reading a number of "prescriptive rules" of English sentence structures Class discussion about the rules being "good" or "bad" The teacher focusing on the students' pronunciation of certain vocabulary	Textbook (p.70) Whiteboard and markers

Table 7.2 provides an overview of the lessons I observed. As it shows, over the period of my observation, all the lessons' contents were determined largely by the textbooks the teachers were using. These contents were organised in terms of language skills (the 'Objectives' column) including also grammar, vocabulary and pronunciation–and "themes". Vocabulary instructional activities were also observed during the lessons whose main objectives were to enhance the students' performances in language skills, as well as when vocabulary was itself the lessons' objectives. While the former instance was found to be spontaneous, unplanned vocabulary instruction, the latter was generally pre-determined, thus being planned vocabulary instruction. Planned vocabulary instructional activities were more evident in ET03's lessons than in ET02's. To appreciate such differences, I present the analysis of the teachers' approaches to teaching vocabulary based on the individual teachers' data sets.

7.3.1 ET02's Approaches to Vocabulary Instruction

In ET02's lessons vocabulary instruction was handled considerably briefly, in a form of spontaneous, unplanned activities. In other words, ET02's vocabulary explanations were swift and limited to the context of the reading or listening. Pre-teaching vocabulary before reading and listening activities was also observed but it was spontaneous, at least during the lessons I observed, in that only when ET02 believed certain words were "key" to reading or listening comprehension did he pre-teach the words to his students. During Lesson 3, for instance, ET02 wrote on the board a number of words selected from the reading text the students were going to read, reproduced verbatim as follows:

> Excerpt 7.58
>
> eroding = slowly or gradually reduce
>
> on sb's [somebody's] nerve = irritate; annoy sb
>
> sponge off sb = to ask for money from sb and make no effort to turn (sic) it back
>
> forfeit (v) give up
>
> titbit (n) small piece of food (ET02-TR02@00:56:00)

When asked why he did that, ET02 explained during the recall interview that:

> Excerpt 7.59
>
> The words on the board=I feel like [they are] the key words which help the students to understand the text. So when the students are familiar with these

key words, we don't have to understand EVERY single word from the reading text. So they can get the concept of the text by reading without stop to check the difficult words. Yeah (ET02-ReINT03@00:00:31).

The fact that he was being observed by me as I researched vocabulary instruction could have contributed to such spontaneous decision-making. Nonetheless, interestingly, ET02's reason seemed to be to manage the flow of the reading activity, rather than to purport to enhance his students' vocabulary knowledge or to support his students' reading comprehension, and for this same reason he also discouraged his students from using dictionaries for any possible difficult words.

Excerpt 7.60

I: When you asked the students to read the text, you told them that they did not need to check the dictionary=

ET02: =OK

I: Why did you tell them so?

ET02: Uh because I want them to read faster and get the meaning from context. And they can guess some uh unfamiliar words from the reading. Yeah that's why. OK! (ET02-ReINT03@00:00:02)

From my observations, it was in ET02's interest that vocabulary should be learnt from either reading or listening and not by being pre-taught before these language skills. That is, ET02 believed that his students would be able to understand the vocabulary by themselves as they read or listened to the text. The following extract was taken from his recall interview after the observation of Lesson 1 where I asked him about the prospect of difficult vocabulary in the listening text:

Excerpt 7.61

I: In the listening activity, did you think there could be difficult words in the recording [for

ET02: uh]

I: the students?

ET02: Um I, I don't know what [their] difficulty [was] but we have a first listening and try to ask them to predict [the answers to the questions] and uh if they can answer the questions (...) then if they can answer the questions probably they can get the ideas [from] what they are listening. Yeah. And I think=Ok. And then we have the chance to listen for the second time. If they can answer the questions, [it means] they

can get the gist. Yeah. So, that's the reason. Ok (ET02-ReINT01@01:21:33).

The way ET02 rationalised his acts of teaching exemplified in Excerpt 7.61 indicates that, to him, vocabulary was embedded so deeply in the listening comprehension task that explicit instruction of vocabulary did not have to be enacted. For ET02, as the task at hand was for his students to comprehend the listening passage (i.e., "the gist"), he did not seem to think it was necessary to pre-teach certain vocabulary. However, consistently, ET02 invoked the notion of guessing words in context both during his pre-observation and post-observation interviews, as well as while teaching as he made clear to his students. ET02 strongly believed that his students would be able to "guess" the meanings of most of the words in the text. During the second lesson I observed, when he was walking around monitoring his students' group reading activities, ET02 told a group of his students as follows:

Excerpt 7.62

So when you do your own reading, you may come across these words yeah, you may come across these words (pointing to the words written on the board reproduced in Excerpt 7.57). And [for] the other words, you can guess. OK! Yeah.

That ET02 chose to draw his students' attention to certain vocabulary items in the reading passage during Lesson 2 may have been influenced by my questions during the recall interview after Lesson 1 (Excerpt 7.61). Nonetheless, it is striking that despite this possible influence which could have led ET02 to focus on vocabulary more explicitly, ET02 appeared to uphold his conception of vocabulary instruction. That is, his emphasis on vocabulary learning from the context of the reading or listening text as his students would be able to "guess" the meanings of certain vocabulary. The most logical interpretation of this finding is that ET02 realised his own beliefs about learner autonomy in vocabulary learning, reported in Section 7.2 above. However, this interpretation may not be the case as will become clear shortly.

As I mentioned earlier, ET02's ways of dealing with vocabulary were consistently brief. For instance, the presentation of the "key" words, reported in Excerpt 7.60, was the limit of dealing explicitly with vocabulary. There was no further explanation from ET02, nor did he appear to try to check the students' comprehension of the words. Besides, the way he explained vocabulary was less dynamic, in comparison with those of the pre-service and novice teachers reported

in Chapters 5 and 6, as well as with those of ET03 reported later in sub-section 7.3.2 below. For example, during the second lesson I observed, a student called on to him to ask for his explanation of the phrase "open fire" and ET02 dealt with the inquiry as follows:

Excerpt 7.63

S1: Teacher?

ET02: Yes?

S1: What is the open fire mean?

ET02: Hmm? An open fire? It's like you have a fire where you=people can get the warmth from it. It's like they have an oven. They burn a stove, you know. Yeah. It's an open fire. Uh we say bonfire in an open place. But this one, open fire, is like they got the place where they can burn=so you make decision on who read what? Ok. Good. Probably you come across those words (pointing to the words on the board, reported in Excerpt 7.60). Yeah (ET02-TR02@00:43:52).

Following this explanation, ET02 moved on to another group of students and explained the same thing to them.

Excerpt 7.64

You may come across some other unfamiliar words but pay attention to those words (the ones on the board) and [for] the others you can guess, I think. You can understand [them from reading]. Read, yeah, and then you can understand the text (ET02-TR02@00:45:41).

As can be seen from these extracts, ET02 did not seem to be able to handle extended vocabulary instruction. From my observations and based on what he told me during the interviews, ET02 seemed to find it hard to teach meaningfully to his students. During the fourth lesson I observed, there was a vocabulary section in the textbook, so ET02 focused on it quite extensively and explicitly by asking his students to complete the exercise and write their answers onto the board so that the words could be checked together as a class activity. The vocabulary exercise, extracted from the textbook, is reproduced here in Excerpt 7.65.

Excerpt 7.65

Vocabulary work

Complete the sentences with words to do with money from the text.

Who does each sentence refer to?

1. She isn't able to r_____ a flat.
2. He couldn't a_____ to pay o____ his d_____.
3. Her friends are always s_____ for c_____ because they have to pay h_____ rents.
4. She c_____ to the phone b_____.
5. She doesn't c_____ him r_____ because he wouldn't pay it.
6. He a_____ debts £4,000.
7. He sponges o____ his mother in many ways.
8. He can s_____ all his s_____ on enjoying himself.
9. He believes that m_____ isn't e_____.

(ET02-WR01@10/03/14_p.66)

The students were asked to write their answers on the board. I reproduce them below, with the corrected answers in parentheses. The names in the parentheses answer the question "who does each sentence refer to", those people mentioned in the reading text. The question was designed to test the students' reading comprehension.

Excerpt 7.66

1. rent (v)
2. able (corrected answer: afford)... pay off... debt (Martin)
3. strapped, cash, high (Vicki)
4. contribute (corrected answer: contributes)... bill (Vicki)
5. charge... rent (Martine) (corrected answer: Sandra)
6. accumulated (Alan)
7. off (Alan)
8. spend; salary (Martin)
9. money, everything (Bill)

(ET02-TR04@00:53:43)

ET02 briefly checked the answers and made the corrections as shown in the parentheses, and then moved on to the next activity of speaking. I followed up on this section during the recall interview to see how ET02 viewed his teaching of vocabulary at this point. The following extract is taken from that interview conducted after the observation of Lesson 4:

Excerpt 7.67

I: When you checked the answers=

ET02: =through the book

I: Which one? The vocabulary?

ET02: Yeah

I: That one. You asked the students to write their answers on the board. Why did you decide to do that?

ET02: Uh because I want to check whether the students can get the right word from the text they read. Ok. Just want them=to see whether they understand or not (?). So when they can get the right word from the text or they can fill in the right word, it means they understand. so it proves me that.

I: But why did you=why did they have to write on the board?

ET02: Uh they have to write on the board because we have to check them randomly (?) and uh we would see if anyone have made a mistake, something like that one. OK?

I: What do you think about teaching this section to your students?

ET02: The vocab here?

I: Yeah what do you think about it?

ET02: Um in this one, we want to like=to get the students [to know] how to use the word or to express their using what we can say phrasal verb. Ok. So they may have the time to practise this. And the other one [is to] encourage them to uh guess the word because like the word is picked up here (?). They don't have to know the exact meaning of the word. But they can take a risk. They learn to take a risk. So when they're familiar with this kind of technique [i.e., guessing meaning from reading] they feel comfortable.

I: How do you find teaching this? Do you enjoy teaching vocabulary and things like that?

ET02: Um this one yeah. Vocabulary is very interesting but uh sometimes we need a lot of explanation. So, for example, for this lesson some students, they get most answers correctly. And the others, they [do not]. They need the teacher to give them more explanation because phrasal verbs could have different meanings or could have different uses, so it's quite difficult yeah challenging for this one. Yeah (ET02-ReINT04@00:00:03).

It is not always possible for a teacher to articulate his or her rationale for certain instructional decisions, especially when he or she is asked a series of questions in the manner I did in Excerpt 7.67, for example. As a result, it is understandable that ET02 found it difficult to rationalise his teaching operations. Nonetheless, ET02's explanations about his vocabulary instructional methods appeared tentative, and despite his continuing emphasis on guessing word meanings from context, based on the observational data, he did not actually teach his students how they could 'guess' or work out the meanings of lexical items from the context of reading or listening. The revelation came later at the end of Excerpt 7.67. He finally admitted that teaching vocabulary, especially fixed expressions such as phrasal verbs, was challenging to him, and my observations indicated that ET02 did not appear comfortable in teaching this language area. This finding led me to revisit the 'logical interpretation' I mentioned earlier. It appeared now that ET02's invocation or reference to the notion of 'guessing word meanings from context' was less of a conceptual tool for him to draw on in teaching vocabulary, but rather a form of safeguarding him from teaching vocabulary. His references to the notions of guessing words in context and learner autonomy appealed to an imagined 'ideal form' of instructional approaches, which in this case did not seem to guide his teaching actions.

7.3.2 ET03's Approaches to Vocabulary Instruction

In contrast, ET03, whose teaching experience was in fact not as extensive as that of ET02, appeared to use more dynamic ways of teaching vocabulary and was more articulate in terms of his own rationale for vocabulary instruction. These characteristics were similar to those found among the pre-service and novice teachers. Referring back to Table 7.2, most of ET03's lessons covered more contents, because, unlike ET02, ET03 also incorporated into his lessons extra materials such as grammar and vocabulary exercises, reflecting his higher agency and possibly his greater effort in teaching, compared to that of ET02. As Table 7.2 also shows, there were a number of vocabulary focused activities in the eight lessons I observed. The activities reflected ET03's spontaneous, unplanned and pre-planned instruction, exhibiting both explicit, stand-alone vocabulary teaching and that which was embedded in reading or listening comprehension tasks. The analysis presented below is therefore organised in terms of these two vocabulary instructional activities: unplanned and planned vocabulary instruction.

7.3.2.1 ET03's Unplanned Vocabulary Instruction

ET03's unplanned vocabulary instruction can be said to be associated with his beliefs about learner autonomy (presented in Section 7.2). His approach, as was observed, was student-oriented, allowing them to decide for themselves what vocabulary was difficult and, at the same time to keep the flow of his lesson. In the first lesson I observed, for instance, ET03 started off with Unit 7 of the New Headway Advanced Student Book, asking his students to interpret some quotes of 'Words of Wisdom'. As he did not pre-teach any vocabulary to help his students understand the quotes, I followed up on this matter during the recall interview, the portion of which is reproduced in Excerpt 7.68 below:

Excerpt 7.68

I: When you discussed these quotations, there could be some words that might be difficult to the students but you did not focus on those words. Could you explain that?

ET03: Uh because uh I was walking around and I uh thought that if my students had any question with the difficult words, they would ask me during my walking around. Yes. And uh there were a few words they asked me when I was walking around.

I: What were those words?

ET03: Uh 'quicksilver'.

I: Ok.

ET03: 'Contentment'. 'Eye for an eye'. Still I think that there are some students who did not know the [other] words, but they did not ask. And uh I do not emphasise those words. I know they are difficult words but if I emphasise or focus on those words, I don't think I have much time for the lesson (ET03-ReINT01@00:00:23)

As the excerpt shows, ET03 tried to strike a balance between vocabulary teaching and finishing the lesson's contents, but also important was how ET03 prepared himself to be spontaneous. That is, vocabulary would be focused upon explicitly when the students asked, for example in the manner illustrated in the following extracts taken from the first teaching record–Lesson 1.

Excerpt 7.69

S1: Lecturer, what is quicksilver?

ET03: Quicksilver is like uh is like ជាវ៉ែត (translation meaning 'mercury'). That one, you cannot catch it. Right. If you try to catch it, it goes away. We call it quicksilver. Here we are comparing 'love' to 'quicksilver'. We cannot control it (love) (ET03-TR01@00:18:52).

Excerpt 7.70

S2: (xxx)

ET03: Eye for an eye. Do you know 'eye for an eye' everyone? [It's] a law, about 'eye for an eye'. If that person killed someone, that person should be punished by being killed. That's eye for an eye. Do you think it's crazy? If you kill someone, when we catch you, you will be punished by being killed. Is it crazy? [Can't] we find another better solution for that? We don't need to do that, right? We can have a different punishment. Ok (ET03-TR01@00:44:36).

Excerpts 7.69 and 7.70 also illustrate the ways ET03 explained vocabulary to his students, but I will return to discuss these ways in more detail later.

Unplanned vocabulary instruction was enacted in almost all ET03's lessons that I observed. It was embedded in the lessons' main foci such as reading or listening comprehension tasks. In Lesson 2, for example, where the main objectives were reading and listening skills (as indicated in Table 7.2), vocabulary instructional activities also occurred, but this time it was ET03, rather than the students, who initiated the discussion; as in the case of ET02, the underlying reason might have been influenced by what I asked him during Lesson 1. The following extract taken from Lesson 2 shows how ET03 pointed out various vocabulary when he introduced the lesson's activities, which was reading and listening to Part 1 of a letter written by Fergal, a BBC foreign correspondent (the letter can be found from ET03-WR01@p.64).

Excerpt 7.71

ET03: What do you understand by the word 'correspondent'? Yeah. Correspondent.

S1: A news reporter?

ET03: A news reporter? What do you mean a news reporter? Foreign correspondent? [It] means you get the news and report to your TV like [the] BBC. That's called a correspondent. And do you think you get the news from foreign countries=let's say Fergal is from England and he's a

foreign correspondent, so [as] a foreign correspondent, he goes to foreign countries, many countries he's been assigned to, in order to get the news. Do you think he needs to come back to England in order to give the news [to the TV]?

S1: No (answering in chorus)

ET03: No. Right. You can be in that country and [report] the news to the BBC. That's called a foreign correspondent (ET03-TR02@00:00:26).

Embedded activities such as this one and the ones illustrated in Excerpts 7.68 and 7.69 were observed in most of the ET03's lessons; they were spontaneous and embodied before the students embarked on a main task of the lesson (such as reading or listening comprehension), when the students were performing the task, and/or when the class was discussing the answers to the task's questions. In another example of how this was done, Excerpt 7.72 presents how ET03 selected the word "cradle" and explained it to the class.

Excerpt 7.72

ET03: So let's read the lines from the letter and answer the questions below. Yeah. 'You are asleep cradled in my left arm and I am learning the art of one handed typing'. You know 'cradle', everyone?

S1: No

ET03: I think it's because you do not have the experience, the experience of being a father, you know (chuckles)

SS: (laughing cheerfully)

ET03: Yeah being a father, you know, when your baby is asleep cradled in your arm, you try to do like this (The teacher mimics his arm cradling a baby), ok, because if you keep the baby still, the baby does not sleep, so you need to move a little bit. Yeah. One arm holding the baby and the other arm (he paused before continuing to read the rest of the sentence from the textbook)='I am learning the art of one handed typing'. You can imagine. You try to imagine. Number 2 (ET03-TR02@00:04:37)

These examples illustrate how vocabulary instruction was realised in ET03's lessons, which in this case focused mainly on reading and listening comprehension. There were also sessions where vocabulary instruction was pre-planned and more extensively focused on in ET03's lessons. I now turn to this aspect of vocabulary instruction.

7.3.2.2 ET03's Planned Vocabulary Instruction

This aspect of vocabulary instruction was evident in his Lesson 7 during which ET03 drew his students' attention to the vocabulary (and pronunciation) exercise in the textbook (ET03-TR01@p.68). The vocabulary exercise in the textbook was integrated with pronunciation practice, called 'Rhyme and Reason'. The students first read and completed a poem entitled 'You are old, Father William by Lewis Carroll'. There were blank spaces or gaps in the poem, and the students were supposed to fill them out with one of three words provided for each blank. As the book suggested, after the gap-filling activity, the students would listen to the recording to check their answers. I reproduce a portion of the poem in Excerpt 7.73 below:

> Excerpt 7.73
>
> 'You are old, Father William,' the young man said,
>
> 'And your hair has become very white;
>
> And yet you incessantly stand on your _____. head/hands/bed
>
> Do you think, at your age, it is _____? smart/right/bright
>
> (ET03-WR01@p.69)

The purpose of the task at hand, according the teacher's guide book, involves "guessing which words can be used to complete a poem [...] students have to guess missing words in a text, based on context, 'feel', pronunciation, and rhythm" (ET03-WR02@pp.63-69). An interesting observation, however, was how ET03 went about introducing and checking his students' comprehension of certain words that were not among those targeted in the poem. For instance, as ET03 began the lesson, he introduced the task to his students. Below is an extract from his classroom exchanges.

> Excerpt 7.74
>
> ET03: Alright. We go to our lesson everyone. We go to the vocabulary and pronunciation: Rhyme and Reason. Work with a partner. (The teacher continued to read the instructions of the section on page 68. As he encountered the word 'justify' he stopped and checked his students' understanding.) [Name], what does it mean when you say 'justify your choice'? Justify.
>
> S1: (xxx)
>
> ET03: Very good. Ok. We give [the] reason why we choose a particular word [out of the three]. Alright? Justify. Yeah. (Then the class proceeded to

do the vocabulary task, filling in the gaps with words.) (ET03-TR07@00:07:26)

After about ten minutes, noticing that the students had finished the task, ET03 began to elicit the answers from his students and ask them to justify their answers. Then he played the recording of the poem for the students to check their answers. Throughout the process, ET03 focused on a number of the words, explaining their meanings. The following extract illustrates how he went about teaching these words:

Excerpt 7.75

ET03: Right. You see one word. Uh [name], 'incessantly' what does it mean, incessantly?

S1: (xxx)

ET03: Constantly. Yeah that's right. Very good [S1]. Yeah. Incessantly, everyone. (The teacher wrote the word onto the board.) Incessantly means constantly. And what does it mean, 'constantly', [S1]?

S1: Non-stop

ET03: Non-stop. Ok. Yeah very good. Incessantly. Constantly. Unceasingly. Right? There are three synonyms (ET03-TR07@00:21:30)

As the lesson went on, instances such as this were observed to reflect ET03's approaches to vocabulary instruction. They reflected how ET03 made decisions to capitalise on certain words he believed his students needed to learn. It was observed that even if certain vocabulary items were previously planned as the lesson's main focus, there were a number of other embedded vocabulary that were spontaneously enacted. In other words, these two modes of instruction were intertwined, reflecting ET03's dynamic strategies in teaching vocabulary.

As the lesson moved towards the end, ET03 handed out to his students extra materials for vocabulary and pronunciation. A sample of these handouts is reproduced below to illustrate how ET03 capitalised on vocabulary instruction in his teaching.

Excerpt 7.76

<u>Pronunciation Practice</u>

10. contentment
11. faith
12. luxury

13. luxurious
14. contradict
15. tyrannize
16. interference
17. honor
18. pleasure
19. intelligent [...]

Vocabulary Review

Choose the words from the table above (Pronunciation Practice) and complete the lines below according their meanings.

1. _____ any infectious disease that kills a lot of people
2. _____ (disapproving) a person who is too concerned with small details or rules especially when learning or teaching
3. _____ (of memories, a description, etc.) producing very clear pictures in your mind SYN graphic
4. _____ a poor condition of health caused by a lack of food or a lack of the right type of food
5. _____ a situation which makes problems, often one in which you have to make a very difficult choice between things of equal importance SYN predicament

(ET03-WR02@10/03/14)

ET03's approaches were diverse and resembled those of the pre-service and novice teachers; they included teaching pronunciation, using synonyms, supplying key words, and translation. The first three of these approaches have already been illustrated, so I now report below how translation was used to teach vocabulary in ET03's lessons.

Despite his negative attitudes towards using L1 translation to teach vocabulary, reported in Section 7.2 above, ET03 noted later during a recall interview conducted immediately after my observation that "I use Khmer translation because uh I want my students to understand the words better and more clearly, because if I do not use the synonym or translation, I don't think they're very clear with the meaning" (ET03-ReINT04@00:00:15). At least for that particular occasion, to ET03, the use of translation (or synonym) was essential because he believed that it fostered his students' comprehension of the lexical items being learnt. As observed in ET03's lesson, translation was used as a prominent strategy in teaching either

individual words, idiomatic expressions, or modal verbs. For example, in Lesson 7, when ET03 was checking his students' answers to the vocabulary exercise, he used translation to help explain the meaning of the phrase "standing up side down".

Excerpt 7.77

ET03: [...] You stand up side down. In Khmer we can say uh? Yeah? Someone said it.

S1: អាឡាត

ET03: អាឡាត? No. Someone said ដាំ?

S2: ដាំដូង

ET03: ដាំដូង Very good. Ok. ដាំដូង Yeah. But it doesn't mean "plant coconut". Ok! (ET03, chuckling, jokes with the homonym of the Khmer word, the literal meaning of ដាំដូង or 'standing up side down' means planting coconuts.) (ET03-TR07@00:28:22).

As the lesson went on, the class encountered the word "limbs" and ET03 provided the Khmer translation.

Excerpt 7.78

S1: (After reading a statement)

ET03: Arms and legs. Right? Yeah. Limbs. Arms and legs [are] limbs. We say=limbs [are] ដៃជើង ok? How about "supple" [student's name]? (ET03-TR07@00:31:33)

Instances such as this were evident not only in ET03's Lesson 7 but also in his other lessons recorded for the analysis. The class was also observed to occasionally use Khmer language in discussing language points. ET03 commented that "Khmer translation also makes the meaning clearer and [it] also makes the lesson fun by using Khmer translation. They (students) find it fun" (ET03-ReINT04@00:00:50).

However, as mentioned, evidence of ET03 using Khmer translation and L1 and his positive comments about this particular teaching strategy ran counter the arguments he made during in-depth interviews. Excerpts 7.49 and 7.50 presented earlier indicate his negative attitude towards the use of translation and L1 in learning English, a strategy he cautioned could possibly "distort the meanings" and could cause the students to rely heavily on translation. This latter case would make it "annoying" for him. The sharp contrast between ET03's stated conceptions and

his actual practice and cognition-in-action, as reflected through his recall interviews, indicated the dynamic, unstable nature of his cognitions. At the same time, however, that ET03 used Khmer translation to teach vocabulary, despite his expressed comments against it, might indicate that, like the case of ET02, the concept of 'Teaching English in English' was referred to not as a conceptual tool but as an 'ideal form' of how English should be taught and learnt. In other words, during his in-depth interviews, ET03 appeared to be orienting towards this concept (i.e., using English, and not translation, to teach vocabulary) in making sense of his own vocabulary instructional practice, but in actual practice it was not referred to as a basis on which his teaching operated. However, unlike the case of ET02, whose conception about vocabulary instruction tended to safeguard him from teaching vocabulary, ET03 seemed to create a new conception while teaching. That is, while teaching as well as during the recall interview, he operated his teaching based on his classroom conditions such as making word meanings "clearer" for his students and allowing his students to have "fun". From the CHAT perspective adopted in this study, conditions or circumstances such as these are crucial determiners of operations that are automatic and routine-like. Choosing a particular language (i.e., English or Khmer) to explain vocabulary seemed an automatic reaction of ET03 given the particular conditions he had at the time. In turn, this reaction means that social contexts (for example, for ET03, the context of the in-depth interview, the classroom context, and the context of the recall interview) shaped how he acted both mentally or psychologically and physically.

The preceding two sub-sections (7.3.1 and 7.3.2) outline ET02's and ET03's actual approaches to vocabulary instruction, focusing on how the instructional activities were enacted and how they were interrelated with the individual teachers' conceptions of vocabulary instruction. An aspect of vocabulary instruction in the present context is vocabulary testing and assessment for academic performance. In the final part of this chapter, I move on to analyse documents that reflect these teachers' practice of vocabulary testing and assessment.

7.4 THE PRACTICE OF VOCABULARY TESTING AND ASSESSMENT

In this last section of Chapter 7, I present the analysis of the teachers' approaches to vocabulary testing and assessment based on the documents I collected. Again, only ET02's and ET03's data were available. ET01, despite her verbal promise, did not provide any documents that could shed light on her (reported) approaches to vocabulary testing and assessment. Moreover, while ET02 was teaching CE2, the

documents he provided were those he used in his CE3 class. Nonetheless, they still reflected his approaches to vocabulary testing and assessment. Assessment policies for CE2 and CE3 were presented in Chapter 6–respectively, in Excerpts 6.69a and 6.69b.

The documents used in this analysis included quiz, test and semester examination papers. As in the case of the novice teachers (Chapter 6, Table 6.2), I analysed these documents to reveal (1) the assessment weight given to vocabulary (as a language component) and (2) how vocabulary assessment was approached. I summarise the findings in the following table:

Table 7.3 Experienced teachers' approaches to vocabulary testing and assessment

ET02	TESTING FORMATS	DOMAINS OF VOCABULARY FOCUS	RAW SCORE	% SCORE
QUIZ101	• Devising words (total-control) • Gap-filling (total-control) • Matching (total-control)	• Randomly selected words • Phrasal verbs • Adjectives	35/50	70%
QUIZ102	• Identifying words (total-control) • Categorising words (total-control) • Matching (total-control)	• Pronunciation (words that rhyme) • Adjectives (positive vs. negative meanings) • Phrasal verbs	20/40	50%
QUIZ201	• Gap-filling (total-control) • Matching (total-control) • Categorising words (total-control) • Identifying words (total-control)	• Randomly selected words • Verbs of movement • Extreme adjectives • Intensifying adverbs and adjectives	37/60	61.6%
QUIZ202	(Listening comprehension test)	NA	0	0
TEST101	• Gap-filling (total-control) (listening test)	• Randomly selected words (news broadcast)	25/25	100%

TEST102	• MCQ (total-control) • Defining (semi-control) • Devising words (semi-structure)	• Intensifying adverbs • Randomly selected words • Compound nouns and adjectives • Synonyms and antonyms	24/80	30%
TEST201	(Listening comprehension test)	NA	0	0
TEST202	• Devising words (total-control) • Gap-filling (total-control)	• Synonyms and antonyms • Compound nouns • Verb forms	40/65	61.5%
EXAM 101	• MCQ (total-control) • Devising words (total-control) • Gap-filling (total-control)	• Randomly selected words • Metaphors and idioms • Intensifying adverbs • Compound nouns and adjectives • Adjective order	30/100	30%

ET03	TESTING FORMATS	DOMAINS OF VOCABULARY FOCUS	RAW SCORE	% SCORE
QUIZ101	(Grammar test)	NA	0	0%
QUIZ102	• Devising words (total-control)	• Randomly selected words	30/30	100%
QUIZ103	• Matching (total-control)	• Randomly selected words	30/100	30%
TEST01	(Listening comprehension test)	NA	0	0%
TEST02	(Listening comprehension test)	NA	0	0%
TEST101	• MCQ (total-control) • Gap-filling (total-control)	• Randomly selected words • Synonyms • Phrasal verbs • Verb forms	50/100	50%

TEST102	• Matching (total-control) • Devising words (total-control) • MCQ (total-control)	• Randomly selected words • Synonyms • Antonyms • Proverbs (memory-based test) • Noun phrases (verb + prep.)	30/60	50%
TEST201	• Matching (total-control) • Devising words (total-control) • MCQ (total-control) • Gap-filling (total-control)	• Randomly selected words • Metaphors and idioms • Homophones	30/80	37.5%
TEST202	• MCQ (total-control) • Devising words (total-control)	• Randomly selected words • Expressions with 'body' • Compound nouns and adjectives • Adjective order	35/77	45.45%
EXAM 101	• MCQ (total-control) • Devising words (total-control) • Gap-filling (total-control)	• Randomly selected words • Metaphors and idioms • Intensifying adverbs • Compound nouns and adjectives • Adjective order	30/100	30%

As reflected in the table, nine testing documents were provided by ET02 and ten by ET03. The analysis shows that vocabulary was assessed in most of the tests with the average of 44.7% for ET02's class and 34.29% for ET03's. These percentages are somewhat surprising given the fact that, as shown in sub-section 7.3.2, ET02's vocabulary instructional activities were observed to be less frequent than those observed in ET03's lessons. This finding indicates that while vocabulary had a high stake in the assessment scheme, it was not extensively and dynamically focused on in ET02's lessons.

Compared to the novice teachers' findings, the weight given to vocabulary in the language assessment schemes of these experienced teachers was within a similar range of between 34% and 52%. Recall that, like the novice cases, these experienced teachers' figures reflected only 'discrete-point testing', where vocabulary was explicitly labelled as a "Vocabulary Section" in the testing documents. 'Embedded' vocabulary assessments especially those related to

reading comprehension were not included in these calculations. If taken these into account, the weighting for vocabulary would have been heavier. Besides, it is worth noting here that the classification of what counted as vocabulary was arbitrarily made by the teachers; that is, they sometimes classified 'verb patterns' or 'verb forms' (as indicated in Table 7.3) as vocabulary and at other times as grammar points. Only when these linguistic aspects were explicitly labelled as 'vocabulary' in the testing documents were they included in the calculations to reflect the vocabulary assessment as seen from the teachers' emic perspectives.

Table 7.3 also indicates how vocabulary assessment was realised. In general, the approaches and techniques used in these tests were similar to those used by the novices. A notable difference, however, when compared to the novice cases, was the fact that all of the testing techniques or strategies (i.e., using MCQ, gap-filling or devising words) were found to be 'total-control' limiting the freedom of the students taking the test to produce their most effective linguistic output. To illustrate I provide an extract below from one of the tests analysed, where 'devising words', generally found to be a semi- or free-control exercise in the novice teachers' assessment schemes, was used as a total-control testing technique by these experienced teachers (cf., Laufer & Nation, 1999).

Excerpt 7.79

Section 2: Vocabulary (Synonyms and Antonyms)

A.Write the antonym of these words. The first and last letter is given.

(5 marks)

20.	real	b_____s
21.	admiration	c_____t
22.	wild	t_____e
23.	love	l_____e
24.	accidental	d_____e
25.	excitable/temperamental	c_____
26.	successful attempt	v_____ attempt
27.	lenient punishment	s_____ punishment
28.	overcast sky	c_____ sky
29.	vivid memory	d_____ memory

(ET02-WR09@15/07/14)

Excerpt 7.79, reproduced verbatim, is extracted from a test ET02 administered as part of his overall assessment. As it shows, the students were asked to devise

antonyms of words or phrases provided, but they were limited in terms of what they could write because of the given first and last letters provided. The test was followed by a sub-section that asked the students to devise or supply a synonym to a word bolded in a sentence, as illustrated below:

30. A number of American presidents have been murdered while in office. Kennedy was a_____ in 1963.

Instances such as these reflected how ET02 approached vocabulary testing, tapping into the students' productive vocabulary knowledge, in a controlled manner. To a certain extent, this approach measures particular frequency types of vocabulary items (Laufer & Nation, 1999). Similar approaches were found in ET03's practice. In Excerpt 7.80 is an extract from a test ET03 used to measure his students' English language progress. It shows, as an example, how vocabulary was tested.

Excerpt 7.80

2. Synonyms (5 marks)

Complete the word below with the first and last letter given.

Example: 0. a famous person c e l e b r i t y

31.	forced	t _____ t
32.	great respect and admiration	r _____ e
33.	examine	s _____ e
34.	compassion, sympathy	m _____ y
35.	considered	d _____ d
36.	weird	b _____ e
37.	random	h _____ d
38.	fetch	r _____ e
39.	lost for words	d _____ k
40.	a famous person's signature	a _____ h

(ET03-WR08@30/06/14)

Control testing techniques such as the one illustrated in 7.80 reflect the type of testing Read (2000) refers to as discrete-point vocabulary test items criticised for their lack of focus of the communicative knowledge of the test-takers. As reported in sub-section 7.2.4, these testing techniques were criticised by the teachers themselves as inadequate in assessing their students' productive vocabulary knowledge in a freer manner. Nonetheless, it is clear that these experienced

teachers' vocabulary assessment practice was still limited to testing the students' receptive vocabulary knowledge, based on the teachers' accounts, because of the contextual constrains such as time. The testing papers analysed here also included the institutionally developed examination papers, all of which functioned as physical tools mediating the acts of teaching. As one may expect, testing contents can drive classroom contents. However, as is found in this study for these experienced teachers, particularly ET02, this expectation was not the case.

An aspect of vocabulary testing of these experienced teachers dealt with the domains of vocabulary being tested. As Table 7.3 shows, they were to a great extent similar to those found in the novices' testing schemes, which were randomly selected words, synonyms/antonyms, phrasal verbs, verb forms, noun phrases (verb + preposition), homophones, metaphors and idioms, compound nouns and compound adjectives, adjective order, extreme adjectives, intensifying adverbs, and pronunciation (words that rhyme). However, while it was observed that these linguistic aspects, as test contents, were considerably focused on during the lessons of the novices, they were scarcely focused on and much less extensively dealt with during the lessons of ET02 and ET03. From the teachers' perspectives, the fact that they did not teach what were included in the testing papers may indicate their high sense of agency, for example in deciding on what and how to teach according to their own beliefs. However, as briefly discussed the teachers' conceptions of vocabulary instruction as giving students control over their own learning (i.e., learner autonomy) through guessing word meanings from context appeared to be a safeguarding concept rather than a conceptual tool in guiding their teaching. In this sense, the fact that these experienced teachers, particularly ET02, enacted vocabulary instruction scantily was worrisome and called into question the implications their practice could have for the students' learning process, and for the tests and examinations analysed here, of which vocabulary was a large part, was high-stakes and was a pedagogical reality in their teaching context. Nonetheless, as these teachers' actions were situated within a cultural and institutional context (an activity setting), it is imperative to interpret these findings in this broader situation to shed light on the teachers' actions. I pursue the analysis at this activity level in the next chapter, but what follows is a summary of the findings related to the experienced teachers with brief comparisons with those of the pre-services and the novices.

7.5 SUMMARY

This chapter describes the experienced teachers' sociocultural backgrounds including their histories of learning English, professional training experiences and teaching experiences and reasons to become a teacher of English in the first place. In a similar fashion to both the pre-services and the novices, these experienced teachers reported that their motivation to become a teacher of English had been shaped by their learning experiences at the university where they now taught. The teachers' undergraduate learning environments together with the then-socioeconomic and socio-political situations created a kind of experience that effected their decisions to do what they had never thought of doing as a career. However, for these experienced teachers, their decisions to take up the teaching career were more pragmatic and extrinsically motivated than those of the pre-services and the novices. In terms of their teaching experiences, this chapter has shown that the experienced teachers exercised a considerable degree of agency, however controversial that may be, making decisions on certain course contents they found convenient to focus on in their academic courses. Part of these contents was reported to be vocabulary, but they remained largely determined by the textbooks they used.

Teacher identity also emerged as a prominent theme. While ET01 and ET02 appeared to embrace their NNES teacher identities, recognising their own limited vocabulary knowledge and variant pronunciation, ET03 was inclined to identify himself with the NES ones, stating that English learners and teachers alike should aim for the pronunciation or accent of the Inner-Circle English varieties (e.g., the American, British or Australian English). In discussing their identities as NNES teachers, they also pointed to challenges they faced, one of which was teaching vocabulary and pronunciation for their working contexts. As has also been shown in this chapter, the challenges the teachers faced in their classroom instruction stemmed from vocabulary. They included teaching polysemous words, words with associated meanings, and the phonological features of the words. Particularly for ET03, it was difficult for him to teach his students to use learnt vocabulary meaningfully. Interestingly, while the teachers reported they believed vocabulary was more important than other language areas (such as grammar), it was grammar (for ET02 and ET03) and reading skills (for ET01) that they focused on (or reported to focus on) more in their class. The teachers expressed that they felt more confident in teaching these language areas than teaching vocabulary, citing the difficulties mentioned above.

This chapter has also shown that these experienced teachers all upheld negative attitudes towards the role of L1 and/or translation in vocabulary instruction although the use of L1 and translation was observed during ET03's lessons. As pointed out, ET03 seemed to have drawn on different, even contrasting, conceptual tools (for instance, teaching vocabulary in English versus Khmer) when discussing vocabulary instruction, which were shaped by the contexts in which such a discussion occurred, for example during an interview or immediately after teaching. The experienced teachers also believed in the role of learner autonomy as the key to successful vocabulary instruction, and when vocabulary was dealt with during the lessons, they believed that vocabulary should be presented in context, rather than in isolation, to the students. An important notion emerging from the concept of learner autonomy was guessing word meanings from context. However, given that the teachers did not actually teach their students 'how' to guess words in context, this notion appeared to be just an imaginative or idealised schema the teachers drew on to safeguard or to make sense of vocabulary instruction.

Also described in this chapter was the teachers' actual approaches to vocabulary instruction. For ET02, spontaneous, unplanned vocabulary activities resonated in his lessons although his decisions to focus on vocabulary could have been influenced by my presence during his teaching. For ET03, on the other hand, both planned and unplanned vocabulary instruction was more evident and more dynamic than those observed in ET02's class. Compared to the less experienced teachers who participated in this study, however, their vocabulary instructional activities were less extensive. In other words, linguistic aspects of vocabulary such as grammatical parts of speech, phonological features and lexical associations (e.g., synonyms and anonyms), which also made up the content of the tests their students sat as part of the language assessment schemes, were scantily focused on. In terms of vocabulary testing and assessment, like the cases of the novices, vocabulary made up a fairly large component in the test paper (between 34% and 44% of the total assessment scores). Testing techniques included MCQ, gap-filling in sentences and passages, devising words, and matching words with definitional statements, which characterised discrete-point vocabulary test items (Read, 2000).

What has been described in this chapter and the previous two (Chapters 5 and 6), within the analytic framework adopted in this study, reflects the 'action' and 'operation' dimensions of the ELT activity in which the teachers participated. While the former dimension was mediated by psychological tools such as conceptions

about vocabulary instruction, the latter was mediated by physical tools such as teaching and testing materials and by symbolic tools such as the language used, and how it was used, to explain vocabulary. At the action level, based on their verbal accounts, all the teachers appeared to hold similar concepts about vocabulary instruction, for example vocabulary is best learnt in context, which were intricately interrelated with classroom operations. Conceptual nuances lay in how such conceptions were drawn on by the teachers in teaching vocabulary. In other words, for the period of this study, while the pre-services and the novices seemed to consistently draw on the same conceptual tools (such as teaching vocabulary in context) when discussing vocabulary instruction during their in-depth interviews, while teaching and during their recall interviews, the experienced teachers (particularly ET02 and ET03) tended to be subtler in how their conceptions were drawn on. That is, for ET02, his conception of guessing words in context appeared to be his vocabulary instruction 'safeguard' rather than 'enactment'. For ET03, contrasting conceptions were formed according to different situations to guide both his sense-making and actions. The analysis at action and operation levels highlights the individual nature of the teachers' cognitions about vocabulary instruction.

However, their cognitions could only be understood more fully within a broader realm, the (cultural) institutional context in which such cognitions were situated. In the next chapter, I report the analysis at the 'activity' level (see also Figure 2.3). It was at this level that the collective nature of the teachers' cognitions was illuminated. Since the analysis at this level moved beyond the operation level (i.e., classroom instruction) in order to capture a holistic view of activity (i.e., English language teaching as a social practice), what featured were the teachers' perceptions of their work and their workplace (or the practicum context in the cases of the pre-services). These perceptions revealed how these teachers navigated their way into the communities of their situated practice in space and time. The analysis at this level also reflects the interpersonal dimension of the ELT activity in the context under study.

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8 | ACTIVITY SYSTEMS ANALYSES

The preceding three chapters (5, 6 and 7) have dealt with the analysis of goal-directed actions and operations of vocabulary instruction (i.e., how vocabulary was conceived of and taught by the teacher participants in the study). In this chapter, I move the analysis a level up (within Leont'ev's analytical framework) to deal with the concept of 'object-oriented activity', identified in this study as English language teaching (the settings of which were described in Chapter 4). In order to analyse the teachers' activities or activity systems, I adopted Engeström's (1987, 1999) activity systems analysis model (also known as 'second generation' CHAT) that allowed mapping interrelationships between key players in the system of an activity. As indicated in Chapter 2, an activity as a system is defined as a life unit embodied by a series of actions that are further realised by "operations" or "methods" (Leont'ev, 1978, p. 102). By participating in networks of interconnected activities, human beings are oriented to the world they live in. There are activities in which an individual engages him- or herself with more than with which they could possibly be identified. In effect, it is certainly not feasible to analyse all activities of an individual in any given time, let alone attempt to analyse these nine teachers' activity systems in the present study. Having said that, however, it is possible to focus on a particular system as a collective activity realised by a group of individuals who share a common object or motive. In the present investigation, I focused on two activity systems, one of which was English language teaching in a practicum program realised by the case of the pre-services, and another in the BEd in TEFL realised by both the novice and experienced teachers, the in-services. The analysis of the pre-services' activity system is referred to in this chapter as Activity System I and that of the in-services as Activity System II.

Theoretical considerations of the model were taken into account in Chapter 2, but, as will be encountered throughout this chapter, some important points are reiterated so that the analysis presented can be appreciated. As noted, a significant feature of Engeström's (second generation) activity systems analytical model that visualises Leont'ev's theory of object-oriented activity built on Vygotsky's key concept of tool-mediated action (Engeström, 1987, 2015) is mapping the interconnections between various factors that shape human activities, thus

offering a holistic perspective in understanding and explicating complex, social phenomena such as language teacher cognition (LTC) and English language teaching.

8.1 AN ANALYSIS OF ACTIVITY SYSTEM I: THE PRE-SERVICES

Engeström's model uses a triangular diagram to illustrate the interrelations between components which are labelled as subject, tools, object, rules, community and division of labour. Figure 8.1 below represents the pre-services' activity system under study.

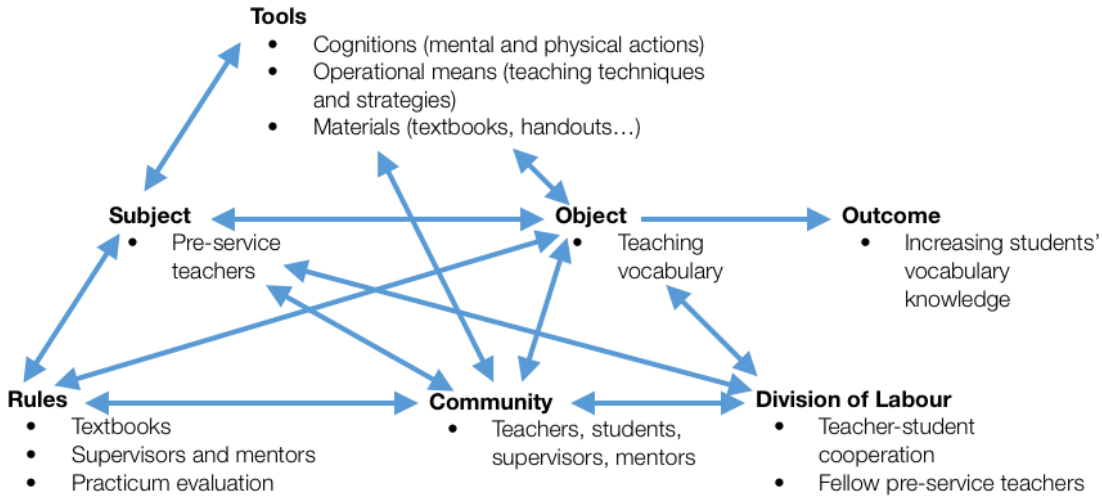

Figure 8.1 Pre-services' Activity System I

Activity System I was defined by the nature of its central object, English language teaching for practicum purposes. The analysis of the subject and tools of this activity was presented in Chapter 5. These three components or constituents (subject-tool-object) of the activity system reflected the 'intrapersonal' or individual aspect of agentive subject (i.e., the pre-services themselves) (Wertsch, 1985, 1991). The lower half of Figure 8.1, on the other hand, deals with three other components: rules, community and division of labour. (Definitions of all these constituents are laid out in sub-section 2.4.3 of Chapter 2.) The analysis of these latter three components revealed the 'interpersonal' or collective aspect of the activity system (also captured in Figure 2.3). Seen holistically, the interconnections between the interpersonal and intrapersonal aspects reflect a number of the significant features of activity theory (Wertsch, 1981): the concept of 'internalisation' (Leont'ev, 1981; Zinchenko & Gordon, 1981), 'tool-mediated action' or 'mediation' (Wertsch, 2007), and 'goal-directed actions'–through the use of mediating conceptual, symbolic and physical tools (Vygotsky, 1978). By scrutinising such interconnections, I aimed to provide a broader context to explicate how the

teachers' cognitions were originated from, or even contained by, the sociocultural situations in which they lived and worked and at the same shaped the situations which gave rise to the teachers' cognitions themselves.

As Figure 8.1 shows, the subject component was identified as the pre-services who were the activity initiators or active agents (of Activity System I). The object was the motive of the activity and in this case was identified as English language teaching to a group of non-English major undergraduate students for practicum purposes, as opposed to such classes as handled by the in-services. The object was integral to the whole system because without it the system would cease to exist. Tools were both physical and psychological. The physical tools, also known as (cultural) artefacts, included textbooks, printed handouts and worksheets, posters, whiteboard and markers, among other tangible objects that the pre-service teachers used to assist in their teaching activities. The psychological tools referred to the teachers' mental or cognitive processes including also the use of symbols and signs such as language, for example, the use of either English and/or Khmer to teach English. Both physical and psychological tools are historical and cultural in character. They can also be symbolic, such as teaching procedures that had through time gained value (Engeström, 1987) among the teachers who, as a result, adopted such procedures for their teaching routines.

The community component of Activity System I included relevant members of a social group (Leont'ev, 1978) who took part in the system, identified as the learners, the teachers' supervisors and practicum mentors, and the teachers' fellow teacher trainees. School administrative staff members could also have been part of the community of these teachers' activity system; however, they did not emerge from the teachers' accounts or from the observational data and as a result were not included in the analysis. However, given the circumstances as described in sub-section 4.2.3 of Chapter 4, the lack of administrative discussions in the pre-services' data was not surprising, and as discussed briefly therein, the practicum activity of the pre-services was contained by the setting constructed through triadic communication between the pre-services, their practicum mentors and supervisors. This form of communication fed back into their teaching operations, marking certain forms of division of labour.

The division of labour component of Activity System I signified the distribution of responsibilities among the community members (including also the teachers), which helped maintain the existence of the activity system. For the case of these pre-services, the responsibilities that gave rise to the teaching of English

for their practicum arrangement were shared among the teachers, mentors, supervisors and of course the students themselves. The level of contribution or engagement of these key players given to the activity system shaped the whole system. In other words, the more consistence there was, the smoother the activity would be. On the contrary, if the level of their engagement was low and inconsistent, it was likely to create contradictions resulting in the object being either transformed or unachievable (Yamagata-Lynch, 2010). The last component of the system was the rules including both individuals and materials that exerted influence over the teachers' decision-making oriented towards their object. For the present case, the rules were identified as the teachers' supervisors and mentors, the textbooks and the practicum evaluation policy. They were authority figures mediating the teachers' actions. An important aspect of the identification of these elements is that it was data-driven. That is, the same factor (for example, a textbook) could be both a (physical) tool and a rule restricting a teacher's decisions on lesson contents (as also indicated in Figure 8.1).

Following the identification of the Activity System I components, I now move to present the interrelations between and among them.

8.1.1 Dialectical Relations within Activity System I

The relations between the subject and object were clear: the pre-services were teaching English to the students intending for the latter to effectively use the language to assist in their university course work. From both their interview accounts and their observed classroom practices, it was revealed that the teachers set teaching vocabulary as one of their goals to realise teaching English for this purpose. They also viewed vocabulary instruction as one of the most important aspects of their teaching. For example, Excerpts 5.18–5.20 presented in sub-section 5.2.1 (Chapter 5) indicate that the three pre-services shared a common, collective goal in teaching vocabulary, which was to provide their students with necessary vocabulary knowledge for them to learn and perform language skills meaningfully.

For the teachers to achieve their goal geared towards the object, they used certain tools (both physical and psychological) identified in Figure 8.1 above. As already shown in Sections 5.2 and 5.3 in Chapter 5, these tools were enacted through the teachers' operations or vocabulary instructional strategies. Various physical tools were used in this regard, including the textbooks from which vocabulary items were selected as the teaching contents, and printed handouts

and worksheets with which the students learnt and practised their knowledge about the vocabulary items. How these physical tools were employed in their lessons was also related to how they viewed vocabulary instruction, a dialectical relation between (mental) actions and operations. Such uses of physical and psychological tools also reflected the intertwined subject-tool-object relations in (the top part of) Activity System I, characterising the teachers' vocabulary instructional activities as tool-mediated actions.

When the teachers' tool-mediated actions interacted with the rest of the activity system components, Activity System I was accordingly shaped. However, such interactions were limited to the classroom context in which teaching operations occurred. Although classroom discourse was itself a form of social practice, for example illuminated through teacher-student relationships, the activity of practicum teaching enacted by these pre-services was also shaped by broader social relations between the pre-services and their mentors and between the pre-services and their supervisors. Emerging from the analysis, such complex interactions gave rise to two characteristics of the dialectics of Activity System I. These two characteristics, referred to as positive and troubled relations, are the subject of the next sections to which I now turn.

8.1.1.1 Positive Relations within Activity System I

Positive relations were identified through the teachers' verbal reports reflecting their positive experiences or satisfactions towards their participation or engagement in the setting they worked. From their interview accounts, the teachers reported that they had consulted with and received support from both their practicum supervisors and mentors. For instance, PT01 found that his supervisor and mentor were helpful, giving him comments on his teaching abilities, which he claimed he later used to improve his subsequent teaching acts. Moreover, PT01 viewed his relationships with his supervisor/mentor as a positive experience, for they gave him "freedom" in deciding what and how to teach. The following excerpt extracted from his second interview during which he reflected on his practicum experience shows how he felt about his relationships with his supervisor and mentor.

Excerpt 8.1

I: So when you decided not to follow the teacher's book did your supervisor and associate teacher [that is, mentor] say anything about that?

PT01: My supervisor she did not uh say anything about it. But my associate lecturer she gave me advice 'just use the techniques that could work with the students' yes but she gave me freedom. If I don't want to use [a technique she suggests] so just make sure that the students learn something from the sessions. Yes.

I: So during your practicum I understand that you also received comments from your supervisor and associate teacher. How useful were those comments to you during the practicum?

PT01: I think the, the comments were very useful because I, I did=I have planned the lesson beforehand but after the lesson they could draw my attention to the point that I have overlooked. Yes. Like uh teacher-student interaction, sometimes I talked too much. Yes (PT01-INT02@00:06:14)

Similarly, for PT02, her consultation with her practicum supervisor and mentor also helped shape her classroom instruction. She described her positive feeling about it as follows:

Excerpt 8.2

I actually consult[ed] with my supervisor beforehand and she said that it was a good idea to, to give them such a fresh start [i.e., pre-teaching vocabulary] before moving on to the major macro-skills. What is the point if you give them a text to read and they need to you know like keep opening their own dictionary uh (...) and to understand those words and before answering each of the questions that you gave to them. And besides because we have very limited time so we have to like make a better use of it (PT02-INT02@00:23:35).

As for the case of PT03, her positive relationships with her supervisor/mentor helped to some extent to transform her ways of teaching vocabulary. She reported that while observing one of her mentor's lessons, she witnessed the use of Khmer translation as a means to teaching vocabulary: "also I observed her technique at that time. Actually my associate lecturer, she, she, she actually translated from, [for] the vocabulary, from L2 to L1 at that time" (PT03-INT02@00:15:16). Although PT03 did not explicitly state that this had influenced her ways of using translation to teach vocabulary during her practicum lessons, it became clear that during her actual teaching PT03 comfortably switched between using Khmer language/ translation in teaching vocabulary items (as has been shown in sub-section 5.3.3.4). A possible reason was, like PT01, PT03 reported that her mentor was kind and

allowed her to decide on the teaching content and how to teach it. In her words: "[m]y associate lecturer, she=actually she helped me a lot you know with the materials and all this stuff. And, and most importantly she is really kind. You know I, I can teach everything that I like" (PT03-INT02@00:15:59).

Social relations that shaped these teachers' Activity System I, as mentioned, also occurred in the classroom discourse, realised by the relationships between the teachers and their respective students. However, it appeared that the students, as members of the community of Activity System I, were the most influential key player characterising the nature of the division of labour in the classroom discourse. In many ways, the students affected the pre-services' pedagogical decisions, for example, the teachers reported they at times had to adjust their beliefs and approaches to suit their students' English proficiency, needs, and willingness to participate in the class activities. For this reason, I discuss how the teachers defined their relationships with their students in the next sub-section, together with their troubled relationships with practicum mentors and supervisors.

8.1.1.2 Troubled Relations within Activity System I

Troubled relations in Activity System I were reflected through the teachers' verbalised complaints and expressions indicating their frustrations and tensions. Such relations were generally referred to as contradictions within CHAT perspectives. The concept of 'contradiction' was discussed in Section 2.4 in Chapter 2; however, it is reiterated here. According to Engeström (2015, p. 66), "[t]the fundamental contradiction arises out of the division of labor", and four types or layers of contradiction are identified: primary, secondary, tertiary and quaternary contradictions (see also Figure 2.2). However, the concepts of these levels of contradiction are essentially developed as part of the 'third generation' of CHAT to be used in developmental work research, an interventionist approach to change, and learning and development (Engeström, 1987). As mentioned, the CHAT perspective used in this study is of the second generation, associated more closely to Leont'ev's works (for example, Leont'ev, 1978), and 'contradiction' or 'inner contradiction' is an inherent concept in the analysis adopted in this study. In other words, I do not aim to identify different types of contradictions, rather to explore different aspects of contradictions as they were "reconstructed anew through data-driven historical and empirical analyses of the specific activity system under scrutiny" (Engeström, 1996, p. 72). Exploring the nature of the teachers'

contradictions (and thus tensions) is "the first step toward resolving [such contradictions]" (K. E. Johnson, 2009, p. 82), and the significance of pinpointing contradictions in an activity system, as Engeström (2015, p. 73) remarks, is that:

> Contradictions are not just inevitable features of activity. They are 'the principle of its self-movement and ... the form in which the development is cast' (Ilyenkov, 1977, p. 330). This means that new qualitative stages and forms of activity emerge as solutions to the contradictions of the preceding stage or form. This in turn takes place in the form of 'invisible breakthroughs'.

Before I move on to present the findings of the teachers' contradictions, there is, however, another important feature of contraction that needs to be pointed out, that contradiction is "historically accumulated [...] rather than more surface expressions of tensions, problems, conflicts, and breakdowns" (Roth & Lee, 2007, p. 203). The analytical approach adopted in this study to identify the teachers' contradictions, nonetheless, started off with these surface expressions of tensions, conflicts, problems, disturbances, breakdowns and dissonances that the teachers reported they had experienced in their work. Interpreted within their sociocultural contexts, such expressions revealed themselves as historically accumulated, socially emergent and cognitively situated, as shown below and discussed further in Chapter 9.

The discussions laid out in sub-section 8.1.1.1 above were conducted around (perceived) consistent contributions of the members of the activity community, reflecting positive interactions or relationships within Activity System I. At the same time, however, the interactions between the various components of the activity system were found to be disproportionate and contradictory, causing tensions on the part of the subject, the teachers. PT01, for instance, based on his interview data, appeared to have encountered contradictions between his own beliefs and the contexts of his works even before he commenced his practicum. These contexts involved the (imagined) school policy, the textbooks, the supervisor and the practicum mentor who had authority over his teaching decisions, especially given PT01's status as a student teacher. Before his practicum, PT01 pointed out what he thought could be possible "inconsistency" between teachers' teaching styles and the institution's expectations (i.e., imagined policy) when he oriented his thinking towards his teaching practicum. The following excerpt extracted from his first interview captures his view on this matter as PT01 prepared himself for the practicum:

Excerpt 8.3

The thing is, for example, every teacher has their own teaching philosophy and if the institution sets a particular task for them to do, maybe what the institution expects is far from what the teachers expect and it's a little bit hard for the teachers. For example, I say for me, for my class I uh focus more on communication. Maybe my students will be=what they learn needs to be put into communication, but if, let's say, the school focuses on accuracy, maybe they (the students) need to learn how to do the test or they do not focus on communication, so there will be inconsistency between teachers' styles [of teaching] and institution's expectations, yes (PT01-INT01@00:22:39).

PT01 was particularly concerned with incompatible expectations between what he wanted to teach his students and what the school expected of him. In this case, it was communication-oriented versus test-oriented teaching. As he reflected on his practicum experience, such constraints became evident. He said, during his second interview, "we needed to follow the course book as suggested by the supervisor and associate lecturer" (PT01-INT02@00:13:11). Instances such as this indicated the nature of the troubled relations between subject, tool, rules and object in his activity system.

Another tension PT01 seemed to have experienced during his practicum period was how he felt he was not encouraged to try "different theories" in his class, theories he claimed to have learnt from his professional training program (i.e., BEd in TEFL program). He felt that he had to follow the same teaching procedure, a form of symbolic tool, that had been practiced in his context. PT01 described this teaching procedure, laid out in the lesson plan, as "the tradition" he could not simply change. Excerpt 8.4 below captures this particular tension:

Excerpt 8.4

[...] what I learnt [from the training program] are just the theories [suggesting] to us some techniques and use of particular approach or methodology. But in real (actual) teaching I think this is a major problem here. We... we are not encouraged to try new things but we are encouraged to follow the tradition (...) like we go there and observe our associate lecturers (practicum mentors) and then we will go=we are going to design the lesson plan, to make it similar to the lesson provided by the associate lecturers. But while we are learning, we get exposed to many different theories and how [each] works in the classroom. But

> we are not encouraged to try it and no one dares to try it, I think. Yeah (PT01-INT02@00:53:51).

"And no one dares to try it, I think" was a conviction PT01 held, reflecting the pressure he felt during his teaching practicum. It was the pressure to follow the "tradition" no one including PT01 dared to challenge, even if he wanted to. As far as teaching vocabulary was concerned, this tradition, being a powerful cultural tool, stretched its influence over PT01's decision to minimise his use of Khmer language while teaching even though, based on my observations, he was struggling to make his students understand his explanations in English. During the recall interview after my observation of that particular lesson, I followed up on this matter and learnt that PT01 perceived teaching in English, and not using the Khmer language, as a "conventional" way of teaching. In his words:

> Excerpt 8.5
>
> It is so conventional that teacher trainees [such as himself] conduct the lesson in English. Yes, it is like our habit, and our supervisor will take that into account [when making evaluation of his teaching]. So we need to be mindful of that point (PT01-ReINT01@01:46:09).

The last two sentences reflected PT01's concern about the teaching evaluation he would receive from his supervisor. That is, if he used the Khmer language to teach, his evaluation score could be affected in that regard. This kind of influence reflects also how teachers' thinking is shaped by their circumstances, which subsequently feeds into their teaching operations.

PT03 experienced similar tensions caused by contradictions between her beliefs and those of her mentor, particularly about when it was best to conduct a vocabulary instructional activity in a lesson. During her second interview, PT03 reflected on this experience as follows:

> Excerpt 8.6
>
> [...] the technique, she (PT03's practicum mentor) said that my technique, my vocabulary technique, the game one, the game technique which I put at the end of the session, she said that it is supposed to be moved to after I taught them vocabulary so I pre-taught them vocabulary and then I taught them=I gave, gave them the game. Yeah. She said that the technique should be switched. But I, I still think that the extra technique [i.e., the vocabulary game activity] should be

> at the end of the session (laughs) yeah. Um (...) that is what she advised to me [otherwise] (PT03-INT02@00:16:10).

The game activity PT03 planned as an "extra technique" reflected a common practice in this context for pre-service teachers to write up lesson plans. It was what the pre-services were taught during their teacher preparation program. That is, essentially there needed to be an "extra technique" prepared in case there was "extra time" left during the lesson. This sort of practice applied also for ET03 whose case will be presented later in this chapter. Anecdotal evidence also supported this claim. Speaking from personal experiences (having myself taken up a range of roles including being a pre-service, in-service, practicum mentor, supervisor, and teacher trainer in this very context), I understand that PT03's tension derived from the apparently different perceptions held by PT03 herself and by her practicum mentor vis-à-vis the "extra technique". In other words, while PT03 planned the activity as an extra activity to be enacted "at the end of the session", her mentor appeared to believe that it was better used for vocabulary practice, as reflected in PT03's expressed comment in Excerpt 8.6.

Different conceptions occurred not only between PT03 and her practicum mentor, but apparently they also existed in a triadic relationship between PT03, her supervisor and practicum mentor. Like PT01, PT03 was advised by her supervisor not to use Khmer translation when teaching vocabulary even though PT03 observed that:

> Excerpt 8.7
>
> Actually my (...) associate lecturer [mentor] she, she, she actually translated from, [for] the vocabulary, from L2 to L1 at that time, but I'm not allowed to (laughs) [...] because my supervisor said 'try your best to explain them in English. If they still don't understand it, ok your last resort is to translate it into Khmer' (PT03-INT02@00:15:16).

This evidence suggests that pre-service teachers such as PT03 are at times caught between two opposite thinking systems: one of their university supervisor and another of their practicum mentor. Smagorinsky (2010) uses the concepts of "setting" and "arena" to explain how individuals construe the same situations differently. However, what seemed to be important for PT03 was how she actively (both cognitively, socially and materially) participated in her community, teaching English in the practicum program, by reconciling seemingly two opposing suggestions.

PT02 also experienced a similar tension to that of PT03, although PT02 recognised it as a good experience. PT02's tension occurred when her belief about teaching vocabulary contradicted with her supervisor's. PT02 believed that vocabulary should be taught holistically and that her students should decide for themselves which vocabulary to learn (see also Section 5.2, especially Table 5.2). To the contrary, PT02's supervisor suggested that she herself select the vocabulary items and pre-teach them, which understandably she did, given the high stake of her practicum evaluation from the supervisor. PT02 described such a contradiction during her second interview, reported in the following excerpt:

> Excerpt 8.8
>
> Um (...) it (pre-teaching vocabulary) did not occur to me. I mean I didn't think about that point beforehand, not until my supervisor suggested it to me like to help them (the students) understand [reading]. And besides, she mentioned about the level of understanding of the students which taps, taps on the right point. I mean I just thought 'could it be achievable if I did not pre-teach them vocabulary and go straight to the, you know meaning like the bigger picture, the holistic thing? [...] Looking back the lesson went smoothly as my supervisor and I expected. Uh when I practiced it [pre-teaching vocabulary] later on-on listening part it was um effective. It was somehow effective as well. I think it= yeah it could work. It's just that I want to change some technique by not pre-teaching the vocab, by not making an assumption for them, but yeah make them explore by themselves (PT02-INT02@00:23:38).

From the last sentence of Excerpt 8.8, it appeared that PT02 still believed that teaching vocabulary needed to be student-oriented. That is, the teacher should not decide for the students what vocabulary they needed to learn. This meant that although she ended up following her supervisor's suggestions, there was still tension in her own belief about how vocabulary items should be determined as the teaching contents.

Another tension that the pre-services all seemed to have experienced stemmed from the relations between the textbooks and the students. The teachers reported on teaching challenges stemming from the perceived mismatch between the levels of difficulty of the tasks set out in the textbooks and the students' observed levels of English proficiency. All three teachers recalled such an experience as one of their major challenges during their practicum. Excerpt 8.9, for instance, illustrates PT01's reflection on the experience. It was extracted from his

second interview during which I asked him about his use of the textbooks and the teacher's guide book.

Excerpt 8.9

I: So you did consult the teacher's book?

PT01: Yes, at first. But then after a few sessions I needed to uh design my own lesson.

I: Without consulting the teacher's book?

PT01: Yeah without consulting the teacher's book because it was, it was not helpful. It was helpful if the students' ability matched with the book. Yeah.

I: Could you give me uh or try to be more specific because we had procedures in the teacher's book and you decided not to follow them and you designed your own=

PT01: =yes let=I think uh like one particular listening, listening material. In the teacher book they uh suggested us to let the students take note, listen and take note and then discuss. But the students at [name] they couldn't even understand. Some words they didn't understand so we need to pre-teach vocabulary and sometimes I need to type those recording out [transcribe, that is] and I just let them do the gap filling instead of note taking. And also in speaking sometimes we could not ask them to speak freely. We need to give them control like the structure to use. So the teacher's book didn't help much (PT01-INT02@00:04:26).

He pointed out later that the textbooks were limited in terms of vocabulary teaching.

Excerpt 8.10

The books themselves, they did not provide vocabulary work, but for reading we also focused on vocabulary. We had the section called Academic Vocabulary, but only 10 words per one unit. So basically we wanted to teach them skills, like writing skills, how to write properly, so we focus on grammar and accuracy. We did not focus much on vocabulary because the book did not provide us with the input, and we could not design our own material just to add new vocabulary (PT01-INT02@00:12:37).

As suggested in Excerpt 8.10, textbooks were important teaching materials for PT01. They were syllabus-like, determining the contents of his teaching. More importantly, however, as indicated in Excerpts 8.9 and 8.10, PT01 displayed a high sense of agency modifying tools such as textbooks in order to fit the goals of his teaching, one of which was teaching vocabulary.

PT02 had the same view about the textbooks she used during her practicum. While she believed they were important materials for her to teach her students vocabulary, "the nature of those books did not concentrate much on the vocab or on the grammar. They tend to focus [too much] on the four macro-skills uh like reading, writing, listening" (PT02-INT02@00:22:54). In addition, PT02 also observed the perceived mismatch between the difficulty levels of the textbooks and her students' English proficiency levels. Her observation is captured in Excerpt 8.11 below:

> Excerpt 8.11
>
> Um sometimes I find it hard to uh (...) adapt the material in the book. It seems it is about uh (...) the level of the (...) the material and the level of the students like um (...) when you like extract the data [i.e., content] from the book and teach the students, it seems like the, the=only the active and the outstanding ones can catch up and the rest seems to you know seems to be like on the flow (?). And it takes a lot of time in order to inject those things into them. I think that that might be the point that consumed a lot of time in presentation so I could not finish the production stage (of her Presentation-Practice-Production lesson). For example, I (...) I expected that I would need to spend only 20 minutes on presenting the new language point, the grammar or the vocab. Um (...) like I would spend extra 10 to 15 minutes yeah on explaining those things to them. Uh (...) sometimes uh it seems like I have to explain the same thing like three times or even four [times] because they=in terms of the whole class and the individual I explain them as a whole class for 2 or 3 times and sometimes I need to go directly to uh certain individuals during [the] practice [stage] to explain them the same thing again (PT02-INT02@00:06:51).

As can be seen in Excerpt 8.11, PT02 was tense about planning and teaching her lesson based on the textbooks she was given, which she observed were only suitable for her outstanding students. Her other students required her to spend extra time explaining the lesson points (i.e., vocabulary). As a result of this extra

time spent, part of her planned lesson (i.e., the "production stage") was not embodied. PT02's frustration as expressed in Excerpt 8.11 also reflects how she was concerned more about the flow of her lessons, moving from one stage to another, than about the student learning itself.

That the textbooks contained language learning tasks not suitable for the students was also a source of tension for PT03 who observed that:

> Excerpt 8.12
>
> I think the course book is=they [the course books], they were well organised. It's like they're divided into parts like vocabulary, grammar, listening, writing and so on. But I still believe that the books are=well the books are for intermediate students. And I still, I still think the books [do] not really suit the students' ability at [name] at that time. Yeah (PT03-INT02@00:40:18).

As has been shown so far, a contradiction these pre-services appeared to have experienced originated from clashes or differences in teaching beliefs espoused by the pre-services, their respective supervisors and/or practicum mentors, which subsequently shaped their relationships. Another contradiction emerged out of what these teachers observed to be the mismatch between the textbook task difficulty and the observed differences in their respective students' English proficiency, consequently rendering their practicum experiences challenging. These two themes of contradictions in Activity System I characterised how these pre-services learnt how to teach in their context or how they participated in their community of practice, in a number of ways. First, they appropriated the cultural expectations in their working context, for example using 'conventional' method of teaching as PT01 called it and adopting teaching procedures in the order as suggested by their mentors/supervisors insofar as practicum evaluation was concerned. Second, the pre-services made sense of cultural tools (textbooks, for instance) and modified such tools to suit the needs and language levels of their students. These processes of participating in the community of teaching practicum reflected the intertwined interactions between the classroom discourse and the practicum 'setting', which in turn constituted Activity System I. I will discuss this finding in more details in Chapter 9. In the section that follows, however, I move the analysis to the cases of the in-services. As can be seen later, the in-service teachers' activity system was more dynamic and complex.

8.2 AN ANALYSIS OF ACTIVITY SYSTEM II: THE IN-SERVICES

In this section, I present the analysis of Activity System II identified from the novice and experienced teachers' data, and because of their close resemblance, they are represented in one diagram in Figure 8.2. However, the findings of these two groups are separately dealt with. For Activity System II, the setting was bound to English language teaching in the DoE of the Dream University (as has been described in Section 4.2 in Chapter 4). Because of this setting (which differed from that conceived of by the pre-services), the analysis of Activity System II revealed more dynamic and complex (social) relations between the system's structural components.

8.2.1 Dialectical Relations within Activity System II

The object of the activity in question dealt with English language teaching. As these in-service teachers were oriented to teaching English to their students, the subject-object relations were realised. This realisation also concerned the use of tools.

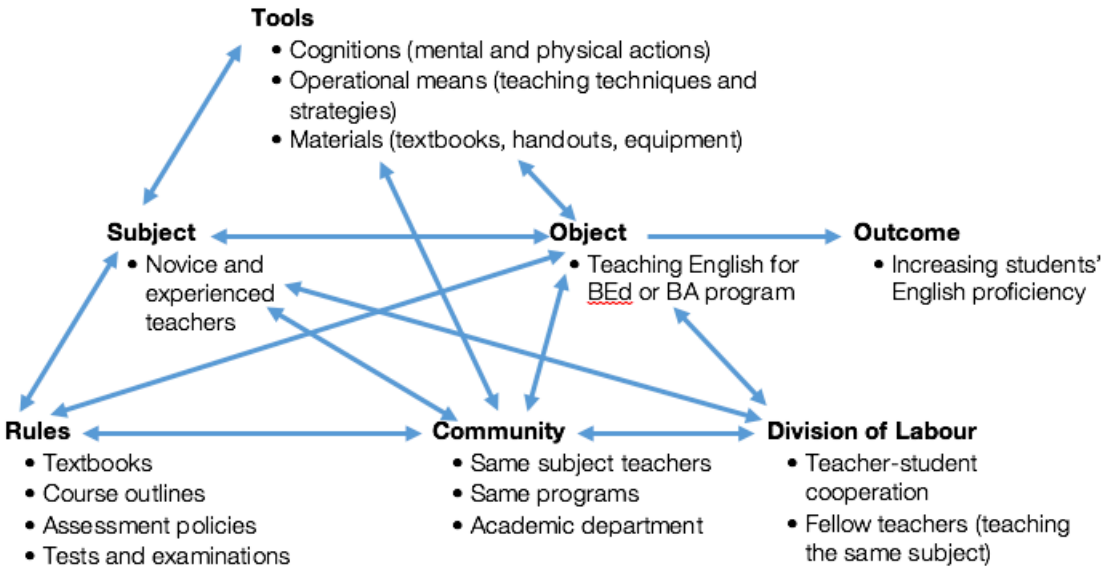

Figure 8.2 In-service teachers—Activity System II

Figure 8.2 indicates the teachers' uses of such tools including both psychological tools and physical tools, just like those identified in Activity System I. However, in Activity System II, the uses of the tools were more complex in a sense that the teachers also reported the uses of vocabulary tests to assess their students' learning of vocabulary. The uses of such tools (as already presented in Section 6.4 in Chapter 6 and Section 7.4 in Chapter 7 respectively for the novice and experienced teachers) mediated the ways these in-services went about teaching

vocabulary, thus reflecting their teaching as tool-mediated actions. For example, a cognitive tool was reflected in the teachers' verbalised beliefs. In the case of vocabulary testing, for instance, ET01 commented that in addition to classroom instructional tasks "then we have tests. And I think that [tests] can remind them (her students) to [learn] and to remember the definitions" (ET01-INT01@01:06:37). Tests, to her, were also a form of tool that helped her students learn vocabulary. The uses of psychological tools and other physical tools to mediate the activity of teaching were illuminated when Sections 6.2 and 6.3 in Chapter 6, as well as Sections 7.2 and 7.3 in Chapter 7, were read together, reflecting the nature of tool-mediated actions. Such actions involved the intrapersonal dimension of the teachers' activity system, materialised at the operation level (conceptualised in Figure 2.3). On the other hand, the interpersonal dimension of the teaching activity was reflected when the analysis moved beyond the operation level dealing with the lower-half of Figure 8.2. The analysis of the interrelations between the intrapersonal and the interpersonal dimensions revealed the dialectics of the activity system, which in turn shaped the teachers' cognitions, as well as the activity itself.

Similarly to the cases of the pre-services, I identified from the analysis two characteristics of the dialectical relations between and among the components of Activity System II. They are positive relations and troubled relations. I present the positive relations first.

8.2.1.1 Positive Relations within Activity System II

The analysis revealed several aspects of positive relations that shaped Activity System II. These aspects were identified from the teachers' verbal accounts obtained through interviews and from their classroom actions through my observations, as well as from documentation collected and field-notes produced through the period of the investigation. In this section, due to its complexity, I present the analysis of the novice cases before that of the experienced ones.

The Novice Teachers

The analysis of the novices' data revealed that the teachers positively conceived of the textbooks they were using in their classes and that they could, if they chose to, modify or adapt the textbook tasks in ways they believed would help them to achieve their goals (e.g., teaching vocabulary). Such a decision power afforded to the subject component exemplifies positive subject-tool-object-rules relations

within Activity System II. It also illuminates the level of agency these novices had at the time. For example, in commenting on the contents of the textbook she was using, NT01 (teaching CE2 using the Upper-Intermediate Headway textbook) put it as follows:

> Excerpt 8.13
>
> I like the book because it provides us general topics so that after we learn some vocabulary in the unit related to that topic I can introduce other vocabulary that is related to that general topic. So it opens a way for me to choose vocabulary for them (the students) that are related to what they have to study and improve their vocabulary as like a tree. I think that yeah it provides very good branches so that I can provide other elements (?) (NT01-INT01@00:25:59)

From what she said, NT01 considered the textbook as a starting point for her to teach vocabulary. The use of the simile, the textbook being like a tree with good branches, reflected NT01's use of the cognitive or conceptual tool on the intrapersonal plane of her activity. For NT01, using only the textbook by itself was not considered a very meaningful practice in teaching vocabulary as she believed it required additional, supplementary contents designed in such formats as "[word] puzzles [and] games" (NT01-INT01@00:26:55). NT01 further explained how she went about designing such vocabulary learning activities that gave rise to the 'operations' of Activity System II. Her view on this matter was captured in the following extract taken from her first interview:

> Excerpt 8.14
>
> First I look at the vocabulary [in the textbook for its theme/topic]. For example, if it's about travelling hmm the textbook provides specific=only a very good amount of vocabulary so I have to consider other vocabulary [items] that they (the students) need to know [for example] frequently used vocabulary, common vocabulary. So I included other vocabulary that I think would benefit them in studying English, so I would choose the words myself and then design an activity for them that can be fun and encouraging for them to study the words (NT01-INT01@00:27:16).

NT01's reason for adding more vocabulary items, as Extract 8.14 indicates, was oriented towards her students' learning needs.

Producing additional teaching materials (or tools production) to teach vocabulary signifies tool-mediated actions, as well as the appropriation of cultural tools, and NT02 called such actions "creativity". He said "I think teaching requires a lot of creativity. Um I can introduce games that involve vocabulary. I can introduce so many things [in my class]" (NT02-INT01/P1@00:18:13). Like NT01, NT02 believed that additional vocabulary was needed because "there wasn't enough vocab in the textbook" (NT02-INT01/P1@01:08:21). Moreover, similar to NT01, who rationalised her decision to add more vocabulary in terms of her students' learning needs, NT02 said that by introducing additional vocabulary he showed his students "that I care about them. I care about their learning. I care about their personal growth". This particular rationale, in a way, reflected the subject-tool-community relations. NT02, however, stressed his "intrinsic motivation" as the reason why he decided to add more vocabulary in his lessons. The following extract taken from the first part of his first interview illuminates his reason:

> Excerpt 8.15
>
> Even I myself as a new recruit and a young teacher I have my own ego. I feel excited when I um search for materials, make handouts, go to photocopy room [...] it's personal rewarding in that I'm fulfilling my duty here. I'm doing more than required. If you follow the textbook, you're doing what is being required. But I'm doing more here so it's rewarding. It's (...) it's the intrinsic motivation (NT02-INT01/P1@01:10:32).

NT01's and NT02's decisions to modify their main teaching materials (i.e., the textbooks) by including additional vocabulary in their lessons for the benefits of their students not only reflected their positive relations with the tool and community component, but also indicated how the agentive role of the subject component was invoked in such relations.

NT03, on the other hand, who taught a content-based subject (LS2) believed that "the curriculum" did not give her "much freedom" to deviate from the syllabus, commenting that "we kinda need to follow what is uh already designed". More importantly, she conceived of it positively. In terms of vocabulary instruction, for instance, NT03 reported that she just needed to focus on those difficult words contained in the stories the students read. She felt that there was already plenty of vocabulary in the stories from which her students could learn. She went on to report that when she felt there were vocabulary items in the stories that needed to be explicitly taught, "we always have this one particular 10 or 20-minute session to

talk about the vocabulary and the use of it" (NT03-INT01@00:47:18) and sometimes the students "need to actually write down the definitions from their own understanding" (NT03-INT02@00:45:49). NT03, unlike NT01 and NT02, did not feel she needed to add extra vocabulary to her LS lessons.

On the interpersonal plane of Activity System II, I scrutinised these novices' relations with their community members. I first approached this issue by seeking for their views about the workplace in which their experiences 'lived'. NT02, for instance, described his institution as "unique" and "prestigious". He went on with the following favourable descriptions:

> Excerpt 8.16
>
> There is something about this organisation. It's unique [...] We know that we treat lecturers equally. Here lecturers even if you are new recruits uh, in terms of status you are equal, but in terms of the social side to it, we (new recruits) have to respect the elder (seniors) (NT02-INT01/P1@00:38:17).

NT02's conceptions about his workplace, as Excerpt 8.16 shows, also reflected how he cultivated knowledge about the institutional culture that, as will be shown later in sub-section 8.2.1.2, shaped not only his teaching activities but his decision to leave the profession.

NT01, likewise, conceived of her workplace as a "very friendly place [with] people who are cooperative and helpful, especially the seniors". Coincidentally invoking the term "unique" NT02 used to described the workplace, NT01 continued that:

> Excerpt 8.17
>
> [...] When I wonder anything, I ask the questions [to my colleagues] and they answer me. You know this is a very, very unique place. I love this place and I love the environment. I love the class. The students are very active, different from other schools (NT01-INT01@00:16:24).

The acts of seeking advice from colleagues with intention to learn, reflecting what Lave and Wenger (1991) calls 'legitimate peripheral participation' in a community of practice, also revealed the teachers' interpersonal dimension of Activity System II. NT01, for example, reported that she found it favourable to seek advice from her (senior) colleagues in dealing with student issues although she stressed that pedagogical matters (defined strictly to mean "teaching techniques") were not normally discussed during her consulting of her colleagues. In her words:

Excerpt 8.18

I always discuss [with my colleagues] normally not about [teaching] techniques, but I always discuss the way to deal with the students like uh if the students say this, how can you respond to that! Mostly we talk about how you interact with the students, not about techniques because I'm aware of what I do, in terms of techniques and methodology. But sometimes I need to understand the students more and I seek their suggestions [to see] whether they have some comments for me to [apply] in my teaching (NT01-INT02@00:49:10).

NT01 went on to report that sometimes her senior colleagues also shared with her their teaching "documents" such as handouts and worksheets, an act which she viewed as "very kind" (NT01-INT02@00:50:14). Such a comment reflected how NT01 and her colleagues, by sharing their self-produced teaching materials, worked collectively in the pursuit of their teaching goals. Such a collective approach was even more evident from the teachers' verbal reports on how they regularly met during school semesters. The meetings included subject technical meetings, convened by the subject coordinator[18] and staff meetings (held monthly and annually). The latter were organised by the department but convened and chaired by assigned lecturers (on a rotation basis throughout each academic year). In a technical meeting, the teachers teaching the same course normally worked collaboratively to decide on the structure of the course and determine the assessment schemes. During a monthly and annual meeting, administrative and educational issues were generally discussed.

NT03 also expressed her desire to get advice from senior colleagues. The following excerpt is taken from her second interview:

Excerpt 8.19

I think uh because I'm still like a novice teacher, you may say, so there are certain things that I want to put it out there and discuss how to deal with such problems, because I have also met a lot of problems with my LS classes. So I wish to get the suggestions or advice from senior lecturers yeah of what to do (NT03-INT02@00:48:32).

These novices' descriptions of their positive experiences with their school and colleagues and with using textbooks to the benefits of the students reflected their

[18] In sub-section 4.2.1.3 of Chapter 4, the role of a subject coordinator was described.

positive dialectics within their Activity System II, also shared by the experienced teachers mentioned below.

The Experienced Teachers

Descriptions of positive relations in Activity System II were also found in the cases of the experienced teachers. Regarding teacher-student relations, for example, ET03 commented that whether or not extra vocabulary items were added to the teacher's lessons, it "depends on the teacher. If the teacher wants their students to learn more, they can give extra materials related to the vocab" (ET03-INT01@00:44:49). He reported that to maximise his students' learning experience he added "vocabulary games" as follow-up activities, rationalising his decision as follows:

> Excerpt 8.20
>
> I want them to remember those words. Yeah. I want them to learn more seriously so that they can remember those words. [That's] number 1. Number 2, I want to have an interesting activity for my students. And number 3, the activity in the course book here is short. So we can finish it in no time. I mean we still have plenty of time. We still have time left so that's why I have another activity so that we do not finish the lesson before the time (ET03-INT01@01:27:05).

ET03 argued that time availability was the most important condition determining whether or not additional materials or activities could be enacted during his lessons (i.e., 'conditioned operations'). In his words, "if we don't have much time, it's hard to come up with the activities" (ET03-INT01@01:35:06).

On the other hand, while ET02 himself believed that he had "a lot of academic freedom where we can integrate or adapt the lesson for our students [...] to meet expected learning outcome" (ET02-INT01@00:14:51), the observational data from his actual practices showed that ET02 did not produce any additional teaching materials. Nonetheless, he reported that "we sometimes use the [supplementary materials] available in the Teacher [Resource] Centre (TRL) of the university where they mainly focus on vocab related to the themes of our units or lessons" (ET02-INT01@00:19:40).

While the production of additional teaching materials (or the lack thereof) reflected these teachers' complex relations with the tools in the material form, the teachers' interpretations of such tools indicated dynamic interactions between

subject, tool and object. In other words, as they made sense of and negotiated the meaning of the materials they used in their teaching activities in order to achieve their teaching goals (e.g., teaching vocabulary), the teachers exhibited their tool-mediated actions. As mentioned, these actions touched upon the intrapersonal dimension of activity system.

The analysis of these experienced teachers' data also revealed their positive experiences that reflected the interpersonal dimension of Activity System II. In conceptualising her workplace, identified in this study as a form of the rules component, ET01, for instance, seemed to hold a very positive view about her department. She expressed her feeling about it as follows:

> Except 8.21
>
> I like the environment. I think compared to other institutions, public institutions in Cambodia, I think we're one of the best which means that we have a friendly environment. We have uh=it's not a hierarchical department (sic). I mean I'm talking about [DoE] alone ok. I'm not talking about the Dream University [as a whole]. It's not a hierarchical leadership uh you know type of system. Ok. I can approach my director easily. I mean I can talk to him about my issue (ET01-INT01@00:46:45).

Notably, ET01's use of the phrase "not a hierarchical department" did not refer to the administrative structure. Rather, what she meant, as Excerpt 8.21 shows, was the social (relation) structure between the employee and the employer, the latter being "approachable". As will be seen later in sub-section 8.2.1.2, where contradictions in Activity System II are presented, ET01 used the same term once again to describe the change in not only the institutional administrative structure but also the social relations.

Positive perceptions about the workplace were also shared by ET02. In his words, the department was described as "the best institution where English language is taught". He furthered that:

> Excerpt 8.22
>
> I think we have a lot of qualified people over there and plenty of teaching resources and our students are very competent [...] So, at that place I can say that the quality [of education] is not compromised. Yeah. It's a good place (ET02-INT01@00:14:00).

In this similar vein, ET03 viewed the institution as a "good school". Quite interestingly, ET03 also described how his teaching was interrelated with the school environment and the students themselves, thus emphasising the interactions between all the components of his activity system. Excerpt 8.23, and those that follow, taken from his first interview, illustrates his perception about such interactions:

> Excerpt 8.23
>
> I think uh the school is good. I mean good in terms of the students because if we talk about the students' abilities, they're similar [...] so it's not because of our teaching is good but also because of the students themselves. I mean we can say that our lesson is very effective, our lesson today is very successful [but it] is not about our teaching [alone] it's also about the students, I mean, the students' abilities, the students' cooperation that can make the lesson effective. So I think the best thing about the school is the students, the students' abilities or the students' competences (ET03-INT01@00:30:57).

ET03 went on to talk about his students' good discipline and how it was shaped by the school community.

> Excerpt 8.24
>
> I want to talk about the discipline. The discipline [at the school] is very good because we're very strict. We lecturers set good examples for the students. They cannot cheat. They cannot talk I mean during the class something that is not related to the lesson. So they have to stay focused [on] the lesson [...] They're inspired by the other students [also]. Their peers are also competent so they look at their peers, and they also inspire them to learn. So because of the inspiration from the teachers and because of their peers, the students tend to I think concentrate. I mean they put their effort and time in learning. And that's why we can teach effectively. But if we compare [these students to those] I taught 10 years ago, I don't think I can teach as effectively as I teach these students right now (ET03-INT01@00:32:45)

ET03 appeared to hold quite a holistic view of his teaching activity. He analysed, as reflected in Excerpt 8.24, some possible factors that he claimed had influenced his acts of teaching and his students' learning. He later pointed to these factors: "the student factor", "the discipline factor", "the teacher factor" and "the inspiration factor" as "the important factors" to make his lessons effective (ET03-

INT01@00:34:32). ET03's emphasis on the student factor indicated how significant the division of labour of his activity system was, and perhaps most importantly how necessary ET03 perceived it to be for the students to actively participate in the teaching process. Such concepts show how the teacher interacted with his contexts: the students, the classroom and the school.

Sub-section 8.2.1.1 above has presented the descriptions of positive experiences the in-service teachers lived through in their participation in Activity System II. However, there were also troubled relations the teachers reported they had experienced in their working contexts revealing contradictions and tensions on their part. It is this theme to which I now turn.

8.2.1.2 Troubled Relations within Activity System II

From the analysis of the teachers' verbal accounts, contradictions which gave rise to tensions on the part of the teachers were found to be so ubiquitous that they resonated in every in-service teacher's reports. However, it appeared that as a novice NT02 was overwhelmingly affected by the system in which he partook, and for this reason, I began the analysis with his case.

At the time of the study, NT02 had been teaching for less than a year at Dream University, but as he reported his experiences were overwhelmingly negative. (Recall also that NT02's data were the largest in volume, both his interview and observational data.) As early as when we went into the first 15 minutes of his first interview (Part 01), NT02 began to lament what he believed to be the "controversy [...] about the nature of Literature Studies and Global Studies" (two other academic subjects NT02 was also teaching but which were not observed in this study). His elaborated complaints are captured in the following extract:

> Excerpt 8.25
>
> [...] There have been debates about the nature of Literature Studies and Global Studies. Since they're content-based teaching, it's English teaching through content. It's been a controversy. The thing is [for Global Studies] since [Name] is the founder of the course, he has his own idea. Oh yes I think he focuses less on general knowledge and more on the language aspect and that is attested in his um assessment criteria and his tests. So in his exam [papers] you would have heavy emphasis on vocab matching, on parts of speech, identifying parts of speech [...] so for him there's a heavy emphasis on the language aspect. For me I wouldn't say that I care less about language but I would say I care a little more about concepts, about

> general knowledge because this is teaching English through content, through a medium. It's not Core English [...] I don't think it (Global Studies) does the students any injustice because I focus a little more on general knowledge (NT02-INT01@00:15:59).

As Excerpt 8.25 shows, there appeared to be contradictory ideas as to how NT02 and the Global Studies (GS) course convenor interpreted the course objectives, learning English through a content subject or learning English as a language in itself. Within the context of NT02's work, the objectives of an academic course were determined by two regulating instruments (identified as a form of the rules component in Activity System II). They were the course outlines developed by the teachers who collectively handled the same academic courses and the course descriptions institutionally developed by the management team. (The GS course convenor NT02 was pointing to in Excerpt 8.25 was a member of the management team who developed the course descriptions.) Regardless of the truth about the nature of GS, what was important here was how the teacher's interpretations and negotiations of meaning of the courses he taught illuminated the nature of NT02's participation in the community in which he worked. NT02 went on to criticise the quality of the GS textbook as follows:

> Excerpt 8.26
>
> We have a management team that comprises of one person who's really strict, structured but also a little egoistic. Well, he compiled the textbook and you know who he is, he compiled the Global Studies textbook, and he's really recalcitrant. He's really obstinate. Um I think that a number of lecturers, of our lecturers here, including Lecturer [Name] (who was also a management team member) have proposed the replacement of the GS book because it's not a standard textbook, because you've compiled a book you don't have time to update it. If you adopt a real textbook, you will have [several editions]. And he says that if we replace the book with the [actual] textbook, we would lose a lot of important themes. I think it has to be replaced really (NT02-INT01/P1@00:49:01)

Tensions mounted on the part of NT02, who went on to also criticise other management team members and how they handled problems during the monthly staff meeting. His criticism is represented in the following extract:

Excerpt 8.27

We have a lot of conflicting interests here. We have a lot of personal interests here. During the meeting we have two management team members who don't voice a word. They don't ask questions. They don't respond to anything. The reason is they want to stay out of trouble. And they want to be here just to grow in terms of career seniority yeah. We're not establishing initiatives for reform. In each meeting, we would have initiative but the leader, the deputy head [of the department] would say 'go back home and think about it' (a problem raised during the meeting) which was the nature of our BC (Bridging Course). We're preparing the students for the entrance exam but why do we have speaking in there when we do not test speaking? Yet, in the next meeting, it's over. We don't have any policy or solution here (chuckles) (NT02-INT01/P1@00:50:25).

Again, NT02 debated over the nature of another course (i.e., a Bridging Course) and lamented the lack of solutions to problems raised by the teachers themselves. Examples such as this continued to show that NT02 actively (cognitively) participated in the community that gave rise to his activity system. His participation was observed in relation not only to the policy level but also the administrative one, which in many ways appeared to affect his ways of teaching in the classroom. For instance, when asked specifically about vocabulary teaching, NT02 expressed his disappointment over how his vocabulary instructional decisions were curtailed by the syllabus. His beliefs about vocabulary instruction that went against his actual 'practice' are illustrated in the following excerpt:

Excerpt 8.28

NT02: (A big sigh) That's a big problem.

I: Hmmm

NT02: Well, I don't have the course outline with me (now) but if you look at the course outline you would have the units divided and the number of weeks that are allocated to specific units. And at the back you will have a table which describes extra materials and a reference of the vocabulary book. So for Core English Advanced, the vocabulary book that most teachers take the materials from and are advised to take them are the, I think his (author's) name is Michael I think you know him (sic). It's Advanced Vocabulary in Use. It's free.

I: Is it the Cambridge one?

NT02: Yes. Yes. The Cambridge one. It's freely downloadable online. But instead of making it compulsory for the students to do it as separate [or] a second workbook, we're asking the teachers to bring in extra materials and only when the vocabulary is related to the theme (of the units) can we do so. So I think that we have=we don't have limited resources. [But] we do have limited courage and will to do something different (NT02-INT01/P1@00:51:16)

As indicated in Excerpt 8.28, NT02 was arguing for the inclusion of more vocabulary into the existing syllabus but which was not realised given disagreement from the other colleagues who co-taught the course. When I asked him particularly about whether he could discuss teaching vocabulary during the meetings, NT02 had the following to say:

Excerpt 8.29

I: Have you ever had any chance to talk about teaching vocabulary specifically?

NT02: Teaching vocab, that is the problem Lecturer. I'm a new recruit right? Once you start talking about how I do this and how I do that people perceive you in a different way. I don't know if that is just my personal opinion or what. I don't know. But here we share our best practices like I teach GS right! And even if Lecturer [name] is not the subject coordinator [because] [name] is the subject coordinator, but I don't know, Lecturer [name] handles everything. He dominates everything. He's the one running vocabulary workshop and stuff like that and you don't want to share it sometimes because you feel that you're a little bit overwhelmed by others (NT02-INT01/P2@01:02:38)

The colleague NT02 pointed out as "dominating" the meeting was the same person he referred to in Excerpt 8.25. It became clear that NT02, who identified himself as a "new recruit" was face-threatened by the presence of this particular colleague who was a management team member. As he suggested in Excerpt 8.29, discussion topics including teaching vocabulary seemed to have been limited by his colleague's dominance.

For NT02, as has been shown so far, contradictions appeared at various levels in his professional life. There appeared to be contradictions regarding (1) his lesson contents in relation to the selection of what he believed were appropriate materials for his students (thus contraction vis-a-vis the tool component) and (2)

his relationship with his colleagues, especially with one whom he perceived as dominant and face-threatening, illuminated through his participation in the meetings at the course level and those at the department level (thus contradiction via-a-vis the community, rules and division of labour components). These contradictions were intertwined in complex ways shaping his teaching decisions and actions which in turn gave rise to his own activity system.

Similar contradictions were also observed in the cases of NT01 and NT03, as well as in the cases of the experienced teachers, ET01, ET02 and ET03. For NT01, for example, in her experiences of teaching English in the BEd in TEFL or BA in English programs, contradictions appeared to stem from her relations with her students (i.e., subject, community, and division of labour relations). When asked if she had anything to add to the end of her first interview, NT01 recalled an experience that seemed to have affected how she defined teacher-student rapport. The following excerpt is taken from the last minutes of her first interview:

Excerpt 8.30

NT01: I also have something to share. I think I talked [about it] before but not with you. [It's] about respect with the students. So there is an experience for me when I was teaching and the student, one student was not happy with the way it goes um I don't know but then==he's more than 30 years old, so he's kinda old. He has grey hair yes. And when he's not happy [with the way I teach(?)] he'd complain loudly to the class like 'I don't like this or that because of this and that'. And then he decided to walk out of [class

I: OK]

NT01: =when I was teaching so it's kinda a new experience for me, and I did not expect that. And (...) and everybody knew [about] that. So yeah I=so the first thing the teachers have in mind is to talk to him directly right? to talk to him directly so yeah um I did it and said to the class that 'I don't wanna see that again. No more because that behaviour depicts different things, can be interpreted [differently] by different people, so I don't want to see that again. But if you leave early, well you tell me first. Just tell me why you wanna leave' [...] but since he's old I don't know whether it's the problem of age. Young and old? (NT01-INT01@01:30:54)

There was so much tension and emotional experience in NT01's recall of the incident, and the fact that she chose to tell that particular event voluntarily highlighted the significant role of teacher-student relations in shaping her teaching activities. As she told it, recaptured in Excerpt 8.30 above, NT01 viewed the experience as humiliating and disrespectful for her as a teacher, a kind of student behaviour she did not expect to encounter. However, NT01 also pondered on the possibility that such a behaviour could have originated from the difference in age between herself and the student. Recall that NT01 was at the time in her early twenties and was in her first year of teaching experience. For her to teach someone older than her could already be daunting. Experiences such as this demonstrated how NT01 negotiated her teaching through her relations with the students, relations that appeared to have been shaped by various factors such as student behaviours, student age, teacher expectation, among others.

In her second interview, when I asked her to reflect on how her teaching experiences had contributed to the development of her teaching career, NT02 said being "flexible to teach" was important. The following excerpt provides her elaborations on this metaphor:

> Excerpt 8.31
>
> The thing is what happens in the classroom is not what we expected all the time. Um being flexible means thinking of new, thinking of ways to respond to that outcome immediately when we need to change it. For example, I plan from home that I will divide them (the students) into groups of three so that there are nine or ten groups and then I will hand them the paper (a worksheet) for them to work in group and we will have some competition. So when it comes to the real (actual) teaching, sometimes they say 'No Teacher. We don't want to work in group. We want to work individually'. And that's, that affects our plan because we want them to have a competition at the end (of the activity), so in order to be flexible, I have to think about all the opinions, the class opinions. And if it's ok, fine, you can work individually and then I will keep the competition at the end but this time I will let them compete individually, for example (NT01-INT02@01:13:39).

Juxtaposing NT01's comments such as the ones in 8.30 and 8.31, I came to understand that her negative experiences could dramatically affect the ways NT01 taught, which in turn shaped her own teaching activity. They also affected in many ways NT01's personal and professional identities. I was able to follow up the

incident with her later during the second interview asking how that might have influenced her perception as a teacher. The following exchange includes her responses:

Excerpt 8.32

I: How might that [incident] have influenced your perception as a teacher?

NT01: Uh actually I expect that there's such problem [while teaching] but not very specifically as such. So yeah it changed the way I deal with my students. I tend to be a little more serious in terms of rules, in terms of how they [should] treat the lecturer and their roles as a student.

I: So has it been influencing you in a bad way or in a good way?

NT01: I would say in a good way because I don't, I don't take it seriously. I don't take it personally. It's just because I feel that when I come to class I'm a performer. It doesn't affect me personally that much (NT01-INT02@01:17:01).

Although NT01 claimed it did not affect her personally, it was quite clear from her interview accounts (also indicated in 8.30) that she cared about her self-image, that "everybody knew [about]" the incident could affect her credibility. More critically, in part as a result of the incident, her revised self-image to being a 'performer' might be worrisome.

Moreover, as NT01 reported, she sought to have the matter rectified so that such disrespectful student behaviours could be prevented. She said she was able to report the matter during "the monthly [staff] meeting" but what she could get out of it was a promise to "create a committee, the rule and regulation committee, like working on the [student] uniform, on how the students should respect the teacher and behave in the class (chuckles)" (NT01-INT02@01:18:32). NT01 went on to lament that such a promise was "just an idea". Instances such as this exhibited how NT01's classroom experiences were interrelated with broader contexts such as her colleagues and the school administration itself.

The analysis of NT03's interview accounts also yielded her own contradictions in Activity System II, in a way similar to those of NT01 and NT02. One such contradiction dealt with NT03's relations with her teaching materials and with her students, particularly the latter's diverse learning needs and English proficiency levels. NT03 referred to this contradiction as "one of the main problems" she faced

in teaching. The following excerpt illustrates how NT03 found it challenging for her to design appropriate teaching materials for her students:

> Excerpt 8.33
>
> This is one of the main problems I am having right now because [in] every class I teach there're a lot of students, there are a lot of different needs. Really they really need it in very different ways. Some like=for example in one CE class that I teach uh their proficiency levels are like very different (from one another). Uh [students] have very high level of proficiency and some others have very low, and some are in the medium level. So when I=it's really hard to design the materials that satisfy everybody's need or level. That is one of the main problems but I'm really trying to tackle that. It didn't really work that well though (laughs) (NT03-INT01@00:27:51).

It became clear that NT03 was originally concerned about reaching out to every student in her classes, but, according to her, it proved difficult given the students' diverse levels of proficiency. The analysis of her interview accounts revealed also that her concern was related to one of the school evaluation mechanisms, the student evaluation described in sub-section 4.2.1.3 of Chapter 4. At one point during her interviews, I asked her to comment on the nature of such an evaluation mechanism and how it might have influenced her ways of teaching. The following excerpt taken from her second interview reflects her attitude towards it:

> Excerpt 8.34
>
> NT03: Hmm it's good to have it (the evaluation) actually. It's good to=it's like a way that we ask for the ideas from our students in order to get certain opinions from them so that we teachers as well as the school could improve. But, based on the evaluation I've got so far it seems like the students, they just did it for=they took it for granted. They just did it for the sake of doing it because they are=it seems like they are forced to do it as well. So=um sometimes the students, they don't really give the right thing. I mean their opinion is just biased, sometimes. That what I mean. Uh I don't know. Sometimes it could be like a revenge to teachers as well. It's possible. They don't really feel good [about] certain teachers, so they sort of like write [bad] things [about] them. I really don't get it.
>
> I: When you say they might take revenge, what have teachers done that made the students take revenge?

NT03: I think we cannot please all [students], of course. Sometimes, in class we sort of like unconsciously like to pay attention to one student or something like that. It's not like we did it on purpose. Sometimes, if they don't participate, if they don't ask, if they don't really show their willingness to learn, then we kind of like=of course, we cannot really just pay attention to that one student. So yeah there was one student of mine who was like that. He seems like always not participate in the class [activities]. And then when it comes to evaluation (xxx). I don't get it. I talked to him and everything about that too, but then it seems that he doesn't want to participate. So, I don't know what else to do. And when I don't do anything, they say that I ignore them (NT03-INT02@00:11:36).

NT03 was concerned about how she could involve her students in the learning process and how to be seen as appropriately caring for her students, and not ignoring them, the consequence of which would affect her student evaluation scores. In effect, as she reported, NT03 tried not be "strict" and to be "close to" her students in her class. Her desire to be seen as doing the right thing appeared to be a challenging psychological battle NT03 faced in her teaching career. In her discussions about her professional identity, NT03 seemed to experience a dilemma. When asked if she considered herself to be a 'professional' in her field of teaching, she was wary, not only because of the abstract nature of the concept (of being a professional) itself but also because of how she saw herself and how she wanted "others" to see her.

Excerpt 8.35

I: You said you're not yet professional. Ok. But I don't know what you mean by that. So, what can you do to become a professional, by your own standard, by your own definition of being a professional?

NT03: Well if talking about my own standard, I mean well I really can't [use] the word 'professional'. I don't know. I just feel like I'm not up to that level yet. But I've done everything I want myself to do, actually. But I don't know (chuckles).

I: What has that been that you did so far?

NT03: Um about ELT of course, so regarding my teaching, that is one thing. And also like the behaviours that we have as the teacher. That should

also be considered as the professionalism thing. Um I can't think of anything else.

I: About the behaviours, can you give or try to be more specific about what behaviours that can be considered [for a] professional?

NT03: That is um the thing that stops me from saying that I'm a professional because as a teacher I'm more of a, you may say, a [laid-back] person or [one that doesn't] mind much, something like that. So, whenever it comes to teaching, people may see me as not really professional but because um I don't want myself to be strict or anything like that=I mean being a teacher doesn't mean that you have to be strict, right? You can have some sort of like um=I sort of want to be quite close to my students [...] so that they will not be afraid of me [to] ask questions or something like that. So, I kind of like stay close to them. So, of course, sometimes we kind of like joke around [...] so then they will feel like I'm not that strict but still they have to remain um respectful and everything like that. But then this point it kind of like makes the others feel like I'm not professional so when I realise that, it kind of affects me and the way I think about myself as well (NT03-INT02@00:20:04).

Even in the way she expressed her points, I could feel the dilemma, a form of struggle she appeared to have gone through in the attempt to make sense of her own practice and of herself. As mentioned previously and as indicated in the last part of Excerpt 8.35, her self-image was also largely influenced by "the others" by whom she meant "probably some peers [...] colleagues" (NT03-INT02@00:23:24). I further asked her:

Excerpt 8.36

I: Ok. Is this something you just feel or something others have told you?

NT03: Uh more of how I feel because based on my, you know=how they look at us and something like that, you know. Of course, I feel certain things (NT03-INT02@00:23:29).

To be seen as a professional in her field of work seemed significant for NT03 even though she reported she did not have any problem with the ways she conducted her classes: "I don't really see any problem with it" (NT03-INT02@00:23:51). As a novice, it appeared that NT03 tried to navigate her way through the community in which she worked, not only through the 'looking-glass' self but also through her

interpretation of how her community worked. When asked about seeking support from her (senior) colleagues, NT03 commented as follows:

> Excerpt 8.37
>
> I always wanted to (seek support) but, like I said, we're pretty busy. Even I myself can't really have the time to actually discuss with them, and they're also really busy so we don't really have time to meet up and discuss. But, I really, really want it to happen. But probably, I'll suggest that. Well, we've always been suggesting that, but not much has been done (NT03-INT02@00:48:04).

Her understanding about how her workplace operated echoed NT02's criticism about the institution's lack of mechanisms to tackle problems.

Another problem NT03 reported she had encountered in her teaching career was, like NT01, her relationship with the students. NT03 also stressed on the importance of gaining students' respect. NT03 emphasised that:

> Excerpt 8.38
>
> There's a line that you couldn't cross too (referring to her students). You are the students and I'm the teacher. We can joke around. We can have a little bit of fun and we study at the same time, but still it doesn't mean that you and I are friends now. (Chuckles) So, there're few students who probably um kind of like cross that line a little bit and maybe they=people happen to see it that way, that's why they kind of like gave me 'the look' or whatever. Yeah. But to me, whenever the students cross the line, I kind of talk to them about it as well. What's the point of me being not so strict with them, something like that. But that doesn't mean that they have to cross the line (NT03-INT02@00:23:58).

It seemed that as young, female teachers working in a tertiary context, these novices (NT01 and NT03 particularly) tried to establish their legitimacy as teachers by drawing a boundary or territory between the teacher and the students, while at the same time needing to be seen as legitimate teachers. The teacher-student relations in terms of respect appeared more significant in the case of these female teachers than their male counterparts who participated in this study; therefore, the gender variable could possibly have been played out as a contributing factor in shaping Activity System II. (The case of ET01, another female teacher shown later below, also shows a similar role of gender in teaching.)

In the same school context as these novices, the experienced teachers (ET01, ET02 and ET03) also reported their conflicting experiences. For these last three cases, I will start my presentation with the case of ET03 because among them ET03 was the least experienced and youngest teacher. Then I will move on to present ET02's case. The decision to end with ET01 is in part because I find her data uniquely fascinating.

ET03's most significant contradictions were identified around his relations with the students in terms of the latter's involvement in the teaching and learning process. Although he described the students at his workplace as "good" with "similar levels" of English proficiency (exemplified in Excerpt 8.23), he later reported that "I feel I'm kinda guilty", for he believed he could not address the needs of all his students. The following excerpt taken from his first interview captures his more elaborated feeling:

> Excerpt 8.39
>
> Uh well usually we have in the class, we have quick learners and slow learners. But usually we have=let's say in one class we have around 30 students, and I think quick learners are around 5 [of them] yeah I think, around 5 [for] the class I'm teaching. And the medium around 10 or little bit more than 10 and the slow learners are around 10. I don't know but we=I don't know but when we teach we tend to focus on the medium learners. I tend to focus on the medium learners. I don't know. When I think again and again, I feel I'm kinda guilty you know when uh I do not focus much [on], when I do not help the slow leaners a lot when we should [actually] focus on the slow learners [...] That's what I think you know. I do not help the slow learners a lot (ET03-INT02@00:47:34)

ET03's emotional expressions of guilt such as this reflected his self-defined responsibility as a teacher who, as he implied, should be able to focus his attention on every student, regardless of the differences in the students' language proficiency. However, ET03 justified his decision not to focus on "the slow learners" as follows:

> Excerpt 8.40
>
> I do not help the slow learners a lot because I believe that uh [even if] I focus on them, or I explain to them more, I feel a bit negative that they still wouldn't understand. They still don't understand. And that's why I just try to focus on the medium[-level] learners. And being a teacher we seem to feel guilty. And

> because I think some teachers say that good teachers, good teachers should focus on slow learners. Good teachers can teach the slow learners [to] learn better. But I believe that if I focus on the slow learners, they still do not learn. I don't know but=I don't know about other teachers but uh that's my story. That's my context. That's what I've been doing so far. I don't know, but that's my belief, you know. Yeah that's my belief. I don't know but I feel like if we focus on the slow learners we waste a lot of time and the lesson might be slower and slower and they do not learn. I feel that they do not learn. Why? Because they do not have the foundation. They do not have the basic knowledge of that. They do not have the prerequisite knowledge of that. If I explain to them, still they don't understand, I think. And that's why I focus on the medium[-level] or quick learners (ET03-INT01@00:48:49).

It seemed to be quite a daunting experience for ET03 to express his thoughts and emotion about how he conducted his teaching activities for students with diverse levels of proficiency. I also noticed his repeated uses of the phrase "I don't know" signalling his internal contradiction. It appeared that ET03 was highly conscious about such a contradiction, which, according to Roth and Lee (2007, p. 203), can "become the primary driving forces that bring about change and development within and between activity systems". As ET03 went on to talk about his students, he began to identify what he believed as the root cause of (most of) his students' failure to learn: their lack of inspiration or passion to learn the language.

> Excerpt 8.41
>
> [...] If we don't ask them to learn, they don't learn. If we don't push them, they don't learn it. I don't know, but one=I think the problem most students, the problem with most students is that they are not inspired. They tend to lose their passion when they come to Year 2 or Year 3. I don't know. As they are moving [up to] a higher level, their passion seems to fade [away]. They don't have the passion [anymore]. And when they don't have the passion, I believe that it's hard. It's very hard, extremely hard, you know, [with] no passion. [No matter] how hard we try, it's still very, very hard [to get them to learn] (ET03-INT01@00:58:38).

This particular concern, the students' lack of inspiration or passion to learn English, was also shared by NT02, who pointed to his students' lack of motivation. Students' lack of inspiration was a recurring theme in the case of ET03, who reiterated during his second interview that "I also believe in inspiring the students, but I think it's too

hard to inspire the students. Yeah. The students these days are hard to inspire" (ET03-INT02@00:28:05). When asked why he believed so, ET03 pointed to a number of possible factors, recaptured in the following extract:

> Excerpt 8.42
>
> I: Why do you think so [that inspiring the students is hard]?
>
> ET03: I don't know but it seems=we seem to have a new trend right now when it comes to Year 3 [students]. I think it's a long story why they are not inspired. There are many things that we need to take into consideration. They can be the students themselves, their personality, their goal; or it can be the environment. Yeah. I mean our school environment, the classroom environment, the care with them from Year 1 to Year 2 [and on to Year 3] (ET03-INT02@00:28:14).

ET03 was reflecting on his observations and experiences and evaluating his own teaching and his students' learning. Even more interestingly was how ET03 suggested a need for a more collective effort among the teachers to "inspire" their students, using a metaphor of "story".

> Excerpt 8.43
>
> [...] Some students, they're inspired by [their] surrounding [environments], their teachers. So, during Year 1 and Year, [if] they do not have inspiring teachers, then in Year 3 their inspiration decreases. Usually it goes down. But if we have a lot of inspiring teachers from Year 1, Year 2, I mean [if] we work hard consistently, yeah we work hard together, I think the story would be better (ET03-INT02@00:29:23).

ET03 further commented that despite his continued effort to inspire his students, "sometimes I lost my [own] motivation because my students are not inspired". Most importantly, he said that:

> Excerpt 8.44
>
> That's why I lost my inspiration in teaching, you know. I try my best, but it's like you know the students seem to also affect our teaching inspiration. We work hard. We try to inspire them but it doesn't work. I mean, what for? Why do we do it? Why do we still continue doing it? (ET03-INT02@00:29:45)

It was clear that ET03's relations with his students affected to a great extent his whole activity system, teaching English, and possibly his future career prospect.

The nature and reactions of his students shaped his teaching actions. Towards the end of his second interview ET03 articulated such influences as follows:

> Excerpt 8.45
>
> I think uh I have been teaching CE3 for a few years now. And from year to year I seem to teach in different ways because of the different contexts, because of the different contexts of the students. The students seem to have different personalities, different aspirations, motivation, OK, yeah. That's why my teaching seems to be shaped by the contexts, the environments, their personalities, their levels of motivation. I don't follow exactly the same [procedures set out in the teacher's book]. I just change them. Even two classes, they seem to be different, somehow different (ET03-INT02@01:03:24).

ET03 seemed to have a great deal of self-knowledge about his teaching: the contexts of teaching, particularly. Nevertheless, it appeared that such a body of knowledge did not allow him to improve his teaching situations. As Excerpt 8.44 shows, for example, the prospects for his teaching career did not seem to be promising.

Moving on to another experienced teacher, ET02 also seemed to have exposed to the same aspects of contradiction, which was challenges in getting his students to focus on their study. However, ET02's contradictory experiences were more particularly originated from the differences between the nature of the course he taught and his students' perceived learning goals. In other words, while the course aimed to teach general English, ET02 observed that his students needed English for specific purposes. Consequently, he described his students as "not real students", those who did not have adequate time to study because "they're working students, so they work and they study. They don't have much time" (ET02-INT02@00:20:31).

Unlike ET03 (as well as NT01, NT02 and NT03), however, who through their interview accounts showed that in a sense they struggled to rectify the problems they reported in their teaching, ET02 did not seem to show any sign of tension, at least from the way he responded in his interviews. When asked how he went about teaching his students, who he reported intended to learn English for specific purposes, ET02 indicated that he chose to follow the course syllabus, trying to achieve "the objective of the lesson" and that he let the students take it from there by themselves. The following excerpt illustrates his view:

Excerpt 8.46

I: And understanding the students' [learning] goals, when you plan your vocabulary teaching, how did you decide on you know what vocabulary to teach in order for them to achieve what they need?

ET02: The preparation uh what we can say is the preparation is to achieve the objective of the lesson but [...] for the knowledge the students can [use to] apply in their work, I think, does not really come from the lesson [...] (ET02-INT02@00:28:18)

ET02 acknowledged that "it's very difficult to [reconcile] those kind of situations", teaching situations where students had "heterogeneous backgrounds [and needs]" (ET02-INT02@00:28:35). In Chapter 7, I have shown that ET02 seemed to use the concept of learner autonomy to safeguard, rather than to guide, his teaching. The finding presented here supports my previous interpretation. That is, ET02 appeared to let his Activity System II take its own course whereas, as an agentive subject, he was supposed to steer it towards achieving the object of the activity. As will become clear shortly, the passive role ET02 seemed to take was due to the fact that he was participating in two activity systems simultaneously.

A more compelling contradiction ET02 seemed to have encountered was his own object-oriented activities in which he simultaneously participated, as observed in the analysis of his data. It was evident from his interview accounts that, besides teaching English (i.e., Activity System II), ET02 also engaged in another activity system. He reported that:

Excerpt 8.47

Currently I'm [also] working as a quality assurance (QA) officer and uh my role is related to quality management. What I'm working on is how to manage the quality and compare it in other countries and try to enhance the quality in my university (ET02-INT01@00:09:03)

ET02 commented that because of his QA role, he felt less engaged in teaching and he became less active, even though at the time of the study, he was recognised as a full-time, tenured lecturer at the university. He said he seemed to have "neglected [the knowledge about] the teaching methods" required of him in performing his teaching activity. This particular experience of ET02 showed how two 'neighbouring activities' interacted with and influenced one another, but in ET02's case his QA activity appeared to be more powerful and shaped his Activity System II creating

what has been referred to as a quaternary contradiction (Engeström, 1987, 2015), also discussed in sub-section 2.2.3 in Chapter 2.

ET02's experiences were interestingly complex. The analysis of his interviews and field notes produced during my field visits helped illuminate such a complexity. It showed ET02's conscious decision-making to focus on one particular activity system more than another and how such decisions were made as he participated in various sociocultural activities. For instance, at the beginning of his second interview, ET02 pointed to financial needs as the main driving force for him to engage in simultaneous activities, thus setting his priorities. He used Khmer to talk about this issue, so the following excerpt is re-produced here in its original language with the English translation below each utterance:

Excerpt 8.48

ET02: រិទ្ធិអើយ ឥឡូវហ្នឹងគ្មានទេរឿងប្រជុំថ្ងៃសៅរ៍អីហ្នឹងនោះ

You know what Rith? Now I can't attend the meeting on Saturday anymore.

I: អត់បានចូលទេ?

You can't?

ET02: ដើរកលុយ

Busy to earn money

I: ពិបាកដែរ

Yeah it's difficult.

ET02: អាទិត្យក្រោយមិនបាច់រកបងទេ។ បងរវល់ចង់ងាប់ហើយ។ [...] បើជីវភាពយើងចឹង បើអត់បង្រៀនមានអីស៊ី?

Yeah what we do with our livelihood such as this. [...] I've been deadly busy. Next week you don't bother to find me. I'll be busy next week. I'm teaching [but not at the university in question]. If I don't teach [elsewhere], what do I eat?

I: ត្រូវហើយ។

Right.

ET02: នោះផ្លាក។ ចឹងបិទប៉ារូ។

The [QA] office will be closed. There is the sign (pointing to the notice of office closure on the back of the office door) (ET02-INT02@00:00:03)

Financial needs had emerged as a determining factor for ET02's decisions in choosing his career(s). Chapter 7, particularly sub-section 7.1.2, already described ET02's reasons to become a teacher of English; they were for pragmatic ends, especially given the opportunities he had had at the time. That is, ET02 harnessed the opportunities that allowed him to secure a job that was financially promising. The analysis showed that ET02 had been struggling to keep himself afloat in terms of his career development and financial gains, but he chose not to hide the struggle and reported that he found the experience difficult. The fact that during the interview he addressed me by my shorthand name (i.e., "Rith") indicates that our close, informal relationships which apparently contributed to ET02 being open and revealing about his working situations. My field notes also collected evidence showing that ET02 was at the time busy juggling different demands, which was not itself a great experience for him. Rather, he complained about it while at the same time tried to work to the best of his ability, a characteristic of contradiction of any given activity system (Engeström, 1987). The following extract taken from my field notes, written in a narrative form, relevant to ET02 illustrates his laments about this experience:

> Excerpt 8.49
>
> On 7 Feb at 14:40, I ran into ET02 on my way to the school office. I prompted a quick question for confirmation of our first interview scheduled to take place on 11 Feb. ET02 confirmed the date he had set and sent through in an email to me. And before running off to where he was about to go, he commented briefly in Khmer that 'បងដូចផ្ទួតចឹង' [meaning 'I'm like crazy']. I took it to mean that he intended to let me know how busy he was and, and how much workload he had (ET02-FieldNotes@07Feb14).

In fact, not until I performed the analysis of ET02's data set did I realise that ET02 was complaining about his life, experiencing psychological stress or anxiety. Research within CHAT frameworks also looks into individuals' emotional experiences and how they affect the person's motivation and his or her life trajectories. Russian terms used by Vygotsky in research on emotional experience are "perezhivanie" (singular) and "perezhivanija" (plural) (Vygotsky, 1994, p. 339). In this sense, ET02 can be said to have gone through perezhivanija.

In the remainder of this section, I will present the case of ET01. Contractions were also identified in her interview data (a total of three and a half hours of

interviews). As will be shown below, ET01's tensions were related, in a complex manner, to her motivation and confidence (or the lack thereof) to teach English and, like ET02, financial issues and her future prospects. She discussed these problems in relation to the perceived changes in the workplace (in terms of administration, organisation and academic) and to her personal health and her real life. It was not until ET01 and I met for the second interview did she reported that "the thing is that this year I don't have motivation to teach" (ET01-INT02/P1@00:08:30). As I sought for her elaborations, ET01 commented as follows:

Excerpt 8.50

I: Why so?

ET01: I, I, I don't know. I kind of feel that we're losing our pride in this institution. We used to be like uh you know very proud of Dream University. We have a unique thing. We're very special [...] but right now it's like all the important tasks, all the things are like=yeah the reform process at Dream University makes me feel um I mean it makes me feel relaxed (?) (less active) and not motivated [to teach], I think. It's like you know somebody from somewhere [was] appointed to be the [university] rector. Ok. He's got a PhD but we also have many PhD lecturers who are teaching, professors who are teaching here. Why somebody from somewhere? And when they reform they try to uh you know=it sounds like the policy seems like=sounds beautiful, perfect. But I mean now it's like nepotism, I think. Most, many of them, because the rector, he's kind of uh to me I think he is uh, because he's graduated from Japan, so many of his subordinators, close subordinators who work with him, many high ranking persons in this [university] at this reform stage come from Japan, yeah the PhD from Japan and things like that. And uh I don't know. I just feel uh we used to be like=you know to me it's become more hierarchical. They're untouchable between the top and the staff (ET01-INT02/P1@00:08:35).

What seemed to have affected ET01 the most in her participation in Activity System II, as Excerpt 8.50 indicates, was her feeling of being alienated from those in the authority. It was interesting that ET01 invoked the term "hierarchical" that she had used before to describe the positive aspect of the institution in which she worked (Excerpt 8.21). By that she meant the administration, in her beliefs, had changed

from being “approachable” to being “untouchable”. As can also be noted in Excerpt 8.50 here, ET01 used a politically charged term “nepotism” to describe the administration at her school, which reflected her struggle with power-relations at the workplace. This struggle appeared to have contributed to her becoming less motivated in teaching.

ET01 also complained about what she believed was a lost opportunity for her to learn from her colleagues. When asked for her perceptions about her collaboration with colleagues at her workplace, ET01 reported it as follows:

> Excerpt 8.51
>
> Um I think now we have less meeting, less meeting yeah because most of us are busy yeah and like this semester, Semester 1 that just finished ok, we met only [twice] for Core English. We talked about the course outline one time, and then we talked about the examination specifications. That’s the second time. So when we meet we have only about 15 minutes to 20 minutes because we try to catch up during the break time. So we could not share our experience, difficulties with each other because of the time limitation and difficulty to [have everyone on board]. I think we should have more meeting and share experience with each other as well, also [sharing] the teaching materials (ET01-INT01@01:02:32)

From her comments captured in Excerpt 8.51 above, ET01 showed her continued commitment to working collectively in order to improve professionally, but under the circumstances she described such a commitment could not be enacted. Unlike ET02, who stated that “we rarely, I think we never share those kinds of handouts or [teaching materials] with other class [lecturers] unless they ask for them” (ET02-INT01@00:19:40), ET01 seemed to expect this very kind of sharing from her colleagues. ET01 admitted that producing her own teaching materials was “one of my weaknesses”, furthering that:

> Excerpt 8.52
>
> I find it difficult to deal with IT (information technology) yeah. I don’t even know how to download (laughs). And I know that the young generation, they’re so good at that. They explore so they get more teaching materials from the internet and stuff. So uh for me it’s like I find it difficult. I think it’s something we should share. Yeah I mean we should learn from each other (ET01-INT01@01:03:54).

Her comments in Excerpt 8.52 exhibit her positive attitude towards learning from her colleagues, including the new recruits: "the young generation". However, it seemed that she found her working environment unsupportive in bringing about such 'learning'. Later during her second interview, she described it as "the problem now". ET01 went on to comment that:

> Excerpt 8.53
>
> I think when I first started teaching here [in 1999] it's (chuckles amusingly), our institution seemed to be small OK and our colleagues seemed closer to each other and sharing a lot, even the materials and things like that. But I feel that now our institution become bigger uh which means we have more students and we have more lecturers, and our gap of communication become bigger, not closer. Yeah (ET01-INT02/P2@01:00:47)

The 'here-and-now' versus the 'there-and-then' ET01 talked about reflected her sociocultural (including historical) contradictions in terms of the perceived change in the collective and collaborative nature of her workplace. That she chuckled amusingly when recalling her beginning years of teaching indicated also her deep disappointment of what she had become. ET01 continued to point out what she thought were possible causes that changed the working environment and, she believed, did "not give us the chance to be closer".

> Excerpt 8.54
>
> I don't know what other causes [could be] but maybe one is the physical size. I'm talking about the room and things like that. We don't have, I think, a place, common room where we have coffee and tea and things like that, that we can catch up [...] and say 'hello' and talk a little bit when we have coffee and tea so we [learn] from each other right? But we don't have it. What I mean is the environment do not give us the chance to be closer. We used to be close when we were in the past because we often had party together like BBQ or something like that. But now the relationship becomes [distant] especially [between] the female teachers and the male teacher (ET01-INT02/P2@01:01:35)

ET01's thinking was more complex than her observation of the purported change at her workplace. As briefly shown, it also involved her struggle with power-relations, but it became clearer that such a relation involved gender equality as well (a variable that seemed to play out in the cases of NT01 and NT03 described earlier).

In a trivial comparison, ET01 pointed to the university football club as a form of social gathering for the male teachers while she believed there was nothing of that sort for the female teachers. It was minor example but the theme underlying it seemed to run through ET01's accounts. Gender equality appeared to be a crucial concept for ET01 as a woman. Recall that when she retold her past English learning experiences, ET01 highlighted a female teacher of hers at Dream University whom she admired and looked up to as her "role model" (Excerpt 7.9 in Chapter 7).

Another aspect of ET01's contradictions was related to how her reported loss of motivation to teach was also interrelated with her real life and what she wanted for her future. She commented at one point that "I'm trying to think what other job I can do" before she weighed up her own qualifications, as illustrated in the following excerpt:

> Excerpt 8.55
>
> I'm trying to find another job to do. I mean I'm trying to think what other job I can do. But the thing is that it's very hard for me to find a job because I have been teaching more than 10 years so most of the experience is in teaching. So, it's very hard to find a job in a company [...] because it's irrelevant experience. So I'm thinking of [doing] business but at the same time, the market becomes more competitive. It becomes very expensive to start a business. I think a lot about having my own home, settling down and how=I'm thinking about my future. What am I gonna do? Because I'm right now very, very tired. I don't know. I can't teach like this. Ok. In the next two or three years I'm not sure [if I still can teach]. I'm so exhausted this year. I'm so tired. I feel like teaching is so [exhausting]. If I teach only 15 hours per week, it would be great. But too much is very hard. It comes to the age. I don't know about that. It's like my energy is very out (ET01-INT02/P1@00:10:20).

ET01 was at the time in her late thirties. Tensions mounted as she talked about her future prospects, the ones she did not seem to see as coming out of her teaching career. At the beginning of her second interview, ET01 complained about her busy life, capitalising on how her real life intertwined with her teaching life.

> Excerpt 8.56
>
> Basically, lately my life is so busy. It basically relates to the family reason. Sometimes, I have to pick up my daughter [from school]. Usually it's my dad who picks up my daughter, but sometimes he's not very well. And my sister is busy and things like that. So I have to pick her up. My family is very family-

oriented (?). It's like sometimes we have to go out together. I have to go out with them (ET01-INT02/P1@00:02:11)

Given such a circumstance, ET01 reported that she frequently cancelled her class recognising that it was "one of the problems that I have in teaching right now" (ET01-INT02/P1@00:07:50). As can be recalled, I was not able to observe her lessons meaningfully at all; therefore, her telling about this circumstance as exemplified in Excerpt 8.56 may be her way of justifying herself for failing to deliver her promise—to have me observe her lessons, that is. Nonetheless, as she continued to reflect on her career development, it became clear that balancing work and real life appeared to have contributed to her loss of motivation in teaching. I was interested to know if her loss of motivation could also possibly be the result of the challenging nature of the classroom in her context, so I asked her as follows:

Excerpt 8.57

I: Has it been more and more challenging in the classroom when you teach?

ET01: I think at one point yes. But at the same time I think I lost concentration. I lost my interest. It seems like I lost my passion. But I do try (ET01-INT02/P1@00:12:43)

A compelling account she made was what came afterwards: "I even do other job like voluntary job rather than=I mean I enjoy doing other volunteer job than I come to teach here" (ET01-INT02/P1@00:13:05). If she could do other jobs, why did she complain about exhaustion, about her energy running out? I was particularly struck by this comment, that she enjoyed doing voluntary work more than the teaching she did at her current workplace. Then, she explained that "because it seems like I [could] learn something new [from the voluntary work], because I feel like I get stuck and I can't learn anything new [from the current job]" (ET01-INT02/P1@00:13:20). What I made out of these comments was ET01's strong desire to learn and develop herself professionally, but she believed that her current working environment could not provide her with what she needed (as also exemplified in Excerpts 8.52–8.54, where her positive attitudes towards learning from her colleagues were illustrated).

ET01 continued to show her desire to learn. When asked to comment on the current practice of vocabulary testing and assessment at Dream University, besides pointing out the possible shortcomings of the MCQ testing design (concerns also

shared by the novice teachers who participated in this study), ET01 emphasised being "happy to learn new things". The following excerpt indicates such a feeling:

> Excerpt 8.58
>
> I have never done any research about the techniques and designing vocabulary test, so maybe there are more creative way of teaching vocabulary, more techniques in designing the test. Ok. And I think, not only me but also other lecturers, they would be very happy to learn new things, yeah, if they have somebody to introduce new techniques to them. Maybe other lecturers also know because some lecturers also [did] their master's degree and um I mean we have those with master's degree here but usually it's the young lecturers [...] But we don't have chance to let them [talk and] to talk to them in the meeting, to let them uh present like the techniques, new techniques and things like that. Or maybe just a meeting to discuss among the lecturers who are taking the same subjects so that they can learn from each other about techniques (ET01-INT02/P1@00:18:19)

She explicitly called for professional development to be provided to the staff: "I think Dream University needs to have staff development workshop more often, not only about vocabulary but also [about teaching] reading, also you know grammar". Institutional support has been found to be crucial not only for implementing curriculum change but also for (continuous) professional development of teachers (E. Edwards & Burns, 2016).

ET01 appeared to be very eager to learn and 'update' her pedagogical knowledge.

> Excerpt 8.59
>
> I was graduated in 1999. It was a long time ago. And my master's degree is in [Educational] Management and Leadership, so I'm kind of far away from the methodology. [It] was a long time ago [that I learned about] teaching methodology (ET01-INT02/P1@00:19:45).

As already pointed out, ET01's desires to learn new things did not seem to be fulfilled given the circumstances she was in. The analysis also showed that ET01's classroom was shaped by her limited knowledge about how to operate teaching equipment such as using speakers with a computer, for example. She commented on this particular experience as follows:

Excerpt 8.60

I don't like listening section (chuckles) [...] Listening needs a lot of instruments like uh speakers. I'm not good at IT stuff. And I'm not having like fancy iPhone (laughs). I have only computer. If I bring the computer [and the speakers to the class], that's a lot. I mean it's heavy. And I have my [personal] bag, and I have my other things, so I don't like [teaching] listening skill (ET01-INT02/P2@00:42:05)

Besides reflecting the current teaching situations at Dream University, Excerpt 8.60 also indicates how ET01's teaching contexts shaped her classroom practice.

One last significant contraction ET01 seemed to have experienced in her teaching life was her apparently diminishing confidence in her ability to use and teach English. The analysis suggested that her loss of motivation to teach was related to her confidence in using the language. It was arresting when ET01 expressed that "I seem to be less pressured when I speak [English] to a native speaker" comparing to when she conversed with "someone local who have had a PhD, someone [whose] English is very good" (ET01-INT02/P2@00:26:39). It seemed that ET01 experienced peer pressure, face-threatened by her colleagues whom she perceived as having better English than herself. As she discussed her working environment, it became clear also that she found it unsupportive, face-threatening, and judgemental. She gave an example of how she was criticised by a colleague, particularly in terms of her pronunciation.

Excerpt 8.61

I feel [pressured] when I talk to my colleagues. Ok. Yeah. Because I used to have experience. Ok. Someone said that oh my pronunciation is=like they criticised extremely [bad]. And I had that experience. They, the person like look down on me yeah in this institution (ET01-INT02/P2@00:28:21).

In my researcher journal regarding this particular portion of the interview, I noted that "the atmosphere becomes uncomfortable" for both of us; it was noticeably tense. The tension ET01 appeared to have endured seemed to explain why she strived to improve herself on the professional front. ET01's diminishing confidence in her own English was also signalled by her repeated comments about how good her students' English was and how it was better than hers, particularly in terms of pronunciation. As she put it:

Excerpt 8.62

I used to be more confident yeah uh before but not now. Now I have less confidence, less and less confidence in teaching English. I feel like uh the young generation, they speak English=their English become much, much better. Their pronunciation is much, much better. So, I think in the next 5 years I try to teach something=I try to find a way OK to exit from [being] English teacher to being like, for example, teaching introductory [courses] in English but not [about] English. I feel that they are more outstanding, the younger generation. In the next 5 years, 10 years [...] I [will be] less confident in the future (ET01-INT02/P2@01:05:01)

With her diminishing motivation and confidence, which as the analysis showed was shaped by the contexts in which she worked and lived, ET01 planned for an "exit" in her career path, just another sad 'story'—to use ET03's metaphor—for the ELT profession.

8.3 SUMMARY

This chapter used an activity system model to analyse two activity systems: Activity System I and Activity System II, respectively enacted by the pre-service and the in-service teachers in this study (among other teachers who did not participate in this study). As has been illustrated, the use of this model allowed me to map interconnections between various variable factors in the teachers' activity systems, for example, how the teachers used certain tools in their teaching in order to obtain their teaching objectives, thus reflecting their tool-mediated actions and the intrapersonal dimension of the activity, and how the teachers interacted with their communities of practices or social situations joined by such participants as the school itself, their colleagues and students, thus manifesting the interpersonal dimension of their activity systems.

The analysis in this chapter also shows that the intrapersonal and interpersonal dimensions interacted in many ways, and it was through such interactions that the teachers' lived experiences were illuminated: for instance, how the teachers conceptualised the activities in which they participated and the broader contexts which gave rise to such activities themselves. Their conceptions of their activities revealed both positive and negative experiences. For the latter, as has been shown, contradictions and tensions occurred which reflected not only how the teachers actively negotiated and navigated their involvement in their

community of practice but also how their potential professional growth was shaped.

In the next chapter, I take up the analyses presented in Chapters 5, 6, 7 and 8 and discuss them within the scope of the present investigation before I conclude this study.

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9 | A CHAT PERSPECTIVE ON LTC AND PRACTICE

The discussions laid out in this chapter respond to the research questions put forward at the beginning of the study, which investigated such phenomena as LTC and vocabulary instruction from a CHAT perspective. Specifically, the study examines the LTC of a group of Cambodian teachers of English in relation to vocabulary instruction, aiming to address the following research questions:

1. What are the cognitions of the NNES teachers in vocabulary instruction?
2. How are they interrelated with the teachers' classroom practices?
3. How do their cognitions differ with reference to their career stage: pre-service, novice, and experienced EFL teachers?
4. How are their cognitions and teaching shaped by the sociocultural contexts in which these teachers work and live?
5. How does a CHAT perspective to LTC show how these teachers participate in their communities of practice?

All these five questions are oriented towards the global aim of the study that seeks to contribute to the development of SLTE, an issue taken up later in the next chapter. The first question, however, has been addressed in Chapters 5, 6 and 7 with respect to the individual group of teachers. The remaining four have to a certain extent been dealt with in Chapter 8 and are further discussed in this chapter. The discussions are organised into two major sections. The first (Section 9.1) recapitulates the major findings about these teachers' cognitions and practices in a manner known within the case study research tradition as "comparative cross-case or collective analysis" (Duff, 2008, p. 164). The second part (Section 9.2) examines how the teachers participated in their community of practice (CoP) to realise the ELT 'activity', thus responding more directly to the fifth research question. With regard to the activity systems analysis model adopted in this study (represented in Figures 8.1 and 8.2), Section 9.1 deals with the upper triangle of the system or the "tip of the iceberg" while Section 9.2 touches upon the lower base of the whole (social) structure of the activity, or the "hidden curriculum" (Engeström, 2008, p. 90).

9.1 COLLECTIVE ANALYSIS OF THE CAMBODIAN TEACHERS' LTC

In Chapters 5, 6 and 7, readers can observe and appreciate the comparison among the individual cases of teachers, hence 'within-case' analysis. The analysis presented in this section, on the other hand, focuses on the findings collectively and compares them across cases. To achieve this purpose, I looked for patterns across thematic categories between the three sets of cases: the pre-services, novices and experienced teachers. The discussions of the identified patterns below are based on the tabulation of summary findings, a sample of which is provided in Appendix 12. Three patterns are identified, revealing how the socio-historical landscape shaped the teachers' early language learning experiences and their decisions to become a teacher of English in their context, how the sociocultural situations shaped their vocabulary instructional actions and operations, and how their self-ascribed social identities as NNES teachers were constructed in situ. I discuss these patterns under sub-section 9.1.1, the sociocultural construction of LTC. Sub-section 9.1.2 deals specifically with the teachers' LTCs about vocabulary instruction. In addition to relating the findings about vocabulary instruction to research and theory about 'effective' language learning and teaching, I also highlight how the teachers' actions and operations can be understood from the CHAT perspectives.

9.1.1 Sociocultural Construction of LTC

A clear pattern is reflected in the histories of the teachers' early English education. That is, the more experienced teachers tended to have had fewer learning opportunities than the novices and even more so than the pre-services during their early English education. This finding is supported from the socio-historical background of ELT in Cambodia. As described in Chapter 4, in the 1980s during which period the experienced teachers started learning English, the language was not officially allowed, thus its ELT activities were scarce. Early 1990s saw English reintroduced into the country as a formal foreign language; it was then learnt for its pragmatic reasons, to communicate with 'foreigners' who came to the country with international agencies providing aid and development support (T. Clayton, 2006). Towards the late 1990s and early 2000s, the popularity of ELT became heightened; there were private classes for those who could afford them (S. Clayton, 2008). The gradual increase of student intake during these periods in the present study's context also indicated this trend (as described in sub-section 4.2.1 of Chapter 4).

These socio-historical contexts seem to have influenced how the teachers in this study made their decisions to become a teacher of English in the first place. The experienced teachers' decisions were, as has been shown, essentially pragmatic and extrinsically oriented. The pre-services, however, were intrinsically motivated to take up their English teaching careers. The novices reported both types of motivation, but their decisions were more of the intrinsic nature. These patterns suggest not only the development of the Cambodian ELT for the last three decades, but also how such a development had shaped these Cambodian graduates' decisions to become a teacher of English.

Also interesting is how these socio-historical situations, as seen through the experiences of the teachers in this study, are seemingly homogeneous in terms of the instructional approaches found in the Cambodian ELT classrooms. That is, on the surface level, the approaches the teachers said they had experienced appeared largely similar. Based on their interview accounts, all of them said they had experienced grammar-translation, teacher-centred, communicative language teaching and student-centred approaches or principles, suggesting in a sense that not much had changed in the ways English is taught and learnt in this context. However, only the novices and the experienced teachers articulated their dissatisfaction over the 'traditional' approaches (such as grammar-translation), lamenting that such approaches failed to promote communication among learners. Particularly for the experienced teachers, word translation was reported as a prominent way of learning during their time, which contributed little to communicative ability, however. This seems to suggest that there was indeed some change in the ways English was taught in the present context; teaching approaches seemed to have changed positively since the younger teachers did not seem to have encountered negative English learning experience in the same way as the more experienced. It follows, therefore, that these teachers' socio-historical experiences had shaped the ways they thought about English language teaching and learning, particularly about vocabulary instruction, and the ways they enacted their cognitions in their classroom contexts, as illustrated below.

The comparisons of the findings across the three sets of cases have revealed an observable pattern in terms of how the teachers conceptualised vocabulary instruction and went about conducting their lessons. Despite general similarities, specific differences emerged. That is, while the pre-services tended to focus on the role of the teacher, the experienced teachers stressed the role of the learner, and the novices were somewhere in between, but leaning more towards the

pre-services. For example, the language used by the pre-services to conceptualise teaching included teaching as knowledge sharing, teaching as knowledge transmission, and teaching as teaching to communicate. These conventional teaching metaphors put the teacher in focus. Moreover, metaphors about vocabulary (instruction) such as giving a head start, teacher as resource person, teacher as role model, or teacher as motivator were used both by the pre-services and the novices. On the other hand, the experienced teachers tended to orient their thinking towards their students, placing a greater emphasis on learner autonomy as a concept in vocabulary instruction. Besides, although all the teachers seemed to share the same thoughts about the role of context in vocabulary instruction, the experienced teachers intended to realise that aspect by letting their students take control over their own learning process. It appears the more experienced the teachers become, the more attention they pay to their students, while the less experienced, beginning teachers seem to focus more on their own teaching (cf. K. E. Johnson, 1992; e.g. Tsui, 2003).

However, a precisely clear-cut pattern is not found in this study. That is, at least one pre-service (i.e. PT02) kept stressing the importance of having her students decide on what vocabulary was to be learned, and ET02, who had the most years of teaching experience and whose qualifications were closest to the field, was found to value the flow of his teaching more than to harness the opportunity for his students to learn vocabulary during his lessons. This incongruence calls into question the use of teacher qualifications and teaching experience as criteria to determine teaching expertise (K. R. Johnson, 2005; Tsui, 2003). The unique characteristics of teachers despite their similar qualifications and teaching experiences must be taken into consideration to further explain the role of context in shaping the teachers' cognitions and actions. From the CHAT perspective adopted here, such characteristics are specific conditions afforded to the individual teachers. It is these specific conditions that give rise to the subtlety of individual teachers' conceptual tools, for example the functions of such concepts as 'vocabulary in context' and 'learner autonomy' invoked by ET02 were all traced back to the fact that he was simultaneously engaging in two activity systems.

Another notable difference between these three sets of cases was how they perceived the role of L1 and translation in vocabulary instruction, and this difference can be attributed to their individual learning experiences. Both the pre-services and the novices spoke favourably about using L1 and/translation to enhance the students' learning experience in vocabulary instruction, and there were

instances where Khmer was used in teaching vocabulary in their lessons. The experienced teachers, however, condemned the use of L1 and translation in teaching vocabulary; they all reported that this approach had given them negative learning experiences as far as the ability to communicate was concerned. This difference reflects the way that teacher cognitions, at least for the ones participating in this study, are shaped by their socio-historical contexts. Nonetheless, ET03, one of the experienced teachers, was found to use L1 and translation in his lessons, despite his negative attitudes. He rationalised that it was for the benefit of his students. Such a dissonance between ET03's cognition and practice provides further indication that contextual imperatives such as the teacher's views of the students and their proficiency shaped his pedagogical decisions. Contextual factors have been found to exert powerful influences over teachers' decisions and practices. For example, Walsh and Wyatt (2014) report on a teacher whose stated cognitions and practices were not in harmony, but who explained that contextual factors such as the students' learning preferences and time availability were the reason for the contradiction. Both teachers' language learning experiences and their classroom teaching experiences are part of the sociocultural situations that shape their cognitions and actions.

Another sociocultural character of the teachers' LTC relates to their social identity as NNES teachers. This social identity is perhaps illuminated most clearly when pronunciation instruction in relation to vocabulary teaching was discussed, as the teachers framed it within their sociocultural context of ASEAN communication and the 'global' status of the English language. All the teachers favourably embraced their identity as NNES teachers and recognised their own limited vocabulary knowledge and English pronunciation, but more importantly, they exhibited their high self-efficacy beliefs in reference to pedagogical issues. They believed that intelligible pronunciation should be the target of instruction, thus downplaying the promotion of NES pronunciation and accents as the instructional goal despite their ambivalent cognitions as reported in Chapters 5, 6, and 7. Rationalising their self-efficacy beliefs in this way, the teachers legitimise themselves as capable NNES teachers in their own contexts, thus reflecting their sense of agency. As Cambodian teachers teaching a non-native language, the need to be seen as a legitimate language model (cf. Medgyes, 1992) was important for them, and this sense of being legitimate appeared to also depend on the context in which the teachers worked. NT02, for instance, was particularly articulate on this issue. He reported that he felt comfortable as an NNES teacher in his present

context where the majority of his colleagues were Cambodian, but would feel otherwise if he were to work at another educational institution where NES teachers were predominant. Attitudinal attributes such as this reinforce the role of social contexts in the construction of teacher identity (Duff & Uchida, 1997) as well as agency. That is, they also reflect the "primacy of [teacher] agency in identity formation" (Varghese et al., 2005, p. 23, emphasis original).

Although the identity construction found in the present study is not as complex as that reported in Duff and Uchida (1997), it offers support for the argument advanced so far that teachers' LTCs are socioculturally oriented and that they are shaped by the individual teachers' sociocultural experiences. Lortie's (1975) notion of the apprenticeship of observation is supported by the present study in line with others in the literature, for example Borg (2009), in that the teachers' views were clearly shaped by their own learning experiences. However, as found in the present investigation, teachers do not simply carry over what they have observed and 'apply' it in practice. Instead, they evaluate their own experiences, respond to their immediate classroom environments, and decide what is best for their students. This line of action reflects the agentive nature of teachers and their cognitions in practice (Lave, 1988), characterising a situated notion of teacher learning or cognition. In the following section, I discuss this notion further to make sense of the present findings.

In their pursuit of the collective activity of English language teaching investigated in the present study, the teachers enacted a series of interrelated, goal-directed actions, one of which was teaching vocabulary. Interpreting their ELT curriculum, the teachers perceived vocabulary (instruction) as an indispensable component and a considerable number of vocabulary instructional activities (including testing or assessment) were observed in their practice. Across the cases, there were many strong similarities in terms of how the teachers conceptualised and embodied vocabulary instruction. Although the pre-services were teaching for their practicum, and thus realising a rather different ELT curriculum (represented as Activity System I in Chapter 8), the ways they thought about and taught vocabulary closely resembled those found in the other two groups. All the teachers believed that vocabulary was best learnt in context and through language tasks such as reading and listening comprehension, speaking, and writing. In their teaching, vocabulary was dealt with simultaneously within these skills but also at times planned as part of the lesson's main objectives (as reported in Chapters 5, 6 and 7). Because all nine teachers are graduates from the same program, undertaking more

or less the same course work, this resemblance is understandable, but the fact that they differ in teaching experiences and professional qualifications (as well as age range) begs for further explanation. Thus, I refer to the CHAT concepts of situated and distributed cognition to shed light on how these teachers might have come to think the way they do and how they enacted such thoughts in action in their contexts.

According to Daniels (2008, p. 76), "learning, and cognition more generally, is either or both situated and distributed across people and things". Cognition can be distributed across time and space with mediating means, in teaching, such as textbooks, testing policies and instructional approaches. The analysis of the textbooks used by the teachers of the present study shows that they are of a similar nature, organised in terms of language tasks (reading, listening, speaking and writing). The testing policies and approaches, at least for the novices and the experienced teachers, appear to have acquired institutionalised status, that has gained cultural value among the practitioners (Engeström, 1987). The teachers refer to these cultural 'tools' as routines, the accepted ways vocabulary should be taught and assessed in their institutional context or interpreted setting. It is through such an interpretation—that tools (or how they are used) are routines—that cognition is distributed temporally within an activity setting, in turn shaping the activity itself. Cognition can also be situated in different individual contexts, thus explaining the uniqueness of each individual. In this vein, Lave (1988, p. 1), using the concept of 'mathematics activity', wrote that:

> The specificity of arithmetic practice within a situation, and discontinuities between situations, constitute a provisional basis for pursuing explanation of cognition as a nexus of relations between the mind at work and the world in which it works.

Although the present teachers' cognitions about vocabulary instruction (as a language practice) are found to be similar in general, there are variations in their individual actions due to their respective situations or conditions. For instance, as has been shown, the pre-services generally planned vocabulary instructional activities and implemented them prior to a reading or listening comprehension task, while the novices and the experienced teachers tended to deal with vocabulary issues spontaneously as the lessons went by. Such variations can be accounted for by the contexts of their work, the 'specificity of [language] practice within a situation'. The pre-services were conducting their practicum and being

observed and evaluated by their supervisors and mentors. Part of the requirements was for them to write up detailed lesson plans. Such was not required of the novices or the experienced teachers who were teaching their own classes, thus having more flexibility and control over when and how vocabulary should be dealt with. These contextual conditions greatly influence the ways teachers work, indicating further how the teacher's mind is at work and interacts with the environments in which it operates.

In the next section, I continue to draw comparisons across the three sets of cases, but focus specifically on the teachers' actions and operations observed in their lessons. I also relate their vocabulary instructional approaches to the literature of vocabulary acquisition, learning and teaching.

9.1.2 Teachers' Approaches to Vocabulary Instruction

At the action-operation levels of the CHAT framework adopted in this study, the teachers' actual practices were also explored. In this section, I discuss these practices or physical actions of vocabulary instruction with reference to related literature on vocabulary acquisition, learning and teaching. However, it should be noted that it is challenging to compare LTC related to vocabulary instruction as found in this study with the findings of other studies, for at least two connected reasons. First, there is extremely scant research in this area, and where studies have been conducted (cf., Macalister, 2012), the theoretical paradigms of the research are quite different, rendering any comparison rather superficial. Second, with different theoretical orientations come disparate research aims. For example, in LTC research, a particular aim is to build a normative knowledge base or best practice for classroom application, predominantly found also in mainstream teacher cognition research (Borg, 2006b). However, LTC research approached from a CHAT perspective tends to seek understanding about teacher learning process (discussed further in Section 9.2 below). Nonetheless, as Macalister (2012, p. 99) has proposed, "ideally teacher cognition should be informed by research and theory about effective language learning". Therefore, in the following sub-sections I discuss the unplanned and planned vocabulary instruction and the practice of vocabulary testing and assessment found in the present context in relation to research and theories of 'effective' vocabulary instruction. Before I do so, however, it is worth pointing out that the discussions laid out in the sub-sections below also reveal how the teaching operations were enacted according to the individual teachers' conditions or circumstances, thus reflecting the analysis at the

‘operation’ level of the CHAT framework adopted in this study (as conceptualised in Figure 2.3).

9.1.2.1 How Effective Are Unplanned and Planned Vocabulary Instruction?

Teachers can either prepare vocabulary items as part of their lesson objectives or deal with them as they arise during a lesson (Seal, 1991). The latter instance is known as unplanned vocabulary instruction, which, according to Hatch and Brown (1995), is the adjustment the teacher makes in dealing with an item that is unfamiliar to the students. Such an adjustment can be made by the teacher giving a more familiar synonym or a definition of the word, establishing “a possible source for vocabulary learning” (Hatch & Brown, 1995, p. 402). This strategy requires improvising skills on the part of the teacher, and Hatch and Brown (1995) refer to Seal’s (1991) three Cs’ method of improvising effective unplanned vocabulary explanation. This method involves ‘conveying’, ‘checking’, and ‘consolidating’ the meaning of the unfamiliar word. Some, if not all, of the unplanned vocabulary activities I observed in the participating teachers’ lessons more or less reflected this method: for example, PT01’s dealing with the term ‘conceited’ (Excerpt 5.54), PT02’s ‘democratic’ (Excerpt 5.55), NT01’s ‘chaperone’ (Excerpt 6.48), NT02’s ‘frown upon’ (Excerpt 6.51), and ET03’s ‘correspondent’ (Excerpt 7.71). As NNES teachers who share the same L1 with their students, the teachers in this study also made use of their linguistic knowledge to address unplanned vocabulary instruction. As has been seen in Chapters 5, 6 and 7, the teachers used L1 translation to quickly ‘convey’ the meaning of an unfamiliar word. For example, both NT02 and ET03 (who taught the same unit in their respective class) translated the term ‘quicksilver’ into Khmer as a vocabulary-adjusting strategy although, for NT02, a synonym (i.e. ‘mercury’) was first used to explain the meaning of the term. In this case it is possible to say that the strategy was used to positive effect. Like their more experienced colleagues, the pre-services were also seen to use this strategy to advantage (for example, Excerpt 5.60 exemplifying PT03’s use of translation to teach vocabulary items to her students). This particular linguistic knowledge supported the teachers’ improvising skills in handling unplanned vocabulary instruction, reflecting a special condition of NNES teachers teaching in their own national contexts.

Hatch and Brown (1995) comment further that the three C’s method deals both “with the getting of the meaning of the word” and “the using of the word”, two of the three aspects of the vocabulary knowledge model proposed in Nation (2001).

Table 2.1 (in Chapter 2) reproduces the model and as described broadly therein, for one to know a word, he or she needs to know its meaning, form and use; so the three C's method lacks the 'form' aspect of Nation's (2001) vocabulary knowledge model. Hatch and Brown (1995, p. 404) point that out as follows:

> What is not handled explicitly in this method is the getting of the form of the word and the connecting of the form and the meaning permanently in memory. The teacher might approach the former by writing the word on the blackboard, asking students to say the word, or perhaps spelling the word. The latter step may be more crucial for vocabulary that the teacher intends that the students learn. It would be helpful but perhaps difficult to do well in spur-of-the-moment vocabulary teaching.

Of course, it is difficult to realise all three aspects of this model for any particular word, and as already pointed out in Chapter 2, it might not be very practical (Read, 2000) or too laborious to achieve (Schmitt, 2000). Besides, at the same it is hard to imagine an item of vocabulary being taught that way. In fact, as found in the present study, different vocabulary items received explicit focus on different aspects at any given time; that is, while some vocabulary items were focused on for their meaning (as for those mentioned above), others were treated for their forms (for example, pronunciation, grammatical parts of speech and/or spelling). That only certain aspects of vocabulary knowledge attract instructional attention rests on the teachers' cognitions. It is the teachers who cognise which aspects require explicit instruction and it is they who believe certain aspects need capitalising on. Some examples of how the teachers in this study spontaneously focused on the form of certain vocabulary, along with their rationales for doing so, can be found in Excerpt 5.56 for PT01, Excerpts 5.57 and 5.58 for PT02, Excerpt 5.59 for PT03, Excerpt 6.51 for NT02, Excerpt 6.52 for NT03, Excerpt 7.49 for ET02, and Excerpts 7.50 and 7.51 for ET03. Again, the teachers' decisions to focus on particular aspects of vocabulary knowledge indicated the importance of conditions (i.e. disparate students' perceived needs at a given time) for 'effective' teaching operations in order to realise the goal-directed action (i.e. teaching vocabulary).

Explicit instruction on these aspects were even more evident in planned vocabulary activities. A number of words were generally selected by the teachers to be taught prior to or after reading or listening comprehension tasks; they were presented in such ways as word-meaning matching, gap-filling exercises, and multiple-choice items. These ways of presenting and practising vocabulary are what

has been referred to as 'discrete-point' vocabulary instruction (Nation, 2001, 2013; Read, 2000), which are common in classroom settings and standardised tests such as the Test of English as a Foreign Language (TOEFL) (Read, 2000). Planned vocabulary instruction was implemented by the teachers in this study as either a pre- or a post-reading/listening activity. While the former was designed to support the students in performing the reading or listening task, the latter aimed to realise intentional vocabulary learning itself. Pre-teaching certain vocabulary before reading can be a viable strategy, but "it should focus on high-frequency words that will be useful for other texts as well" (Nation, 2001, p. 158). Although some of the teachers in this study, for example PT01 and NT02, reported that they also prioritised high-frequency words in their vocabulary instruction, the selection of their planned vocabulary was to a great extent based on the textbook contents. It thus related to material design. Hatch and Brown (1995) suggest that teachers should have some knowledge about how their textbooks are developed and, in terms of vocabulary instruction, how words are selected as part of their teaching materials. It is an area from which the teachers in this study could benefit in order to help maximise their students' vocabulary learning experiences. It calls for continuing professional development for in-service teachers and the inclusion of material design content in the teacher preparation program for the pre-services.

Post-reading/listening vocabulary activities, on the other hand, were designed to practise words the students had encountered in the reading or listening passages. Thus, they were opportunities for the students not only to increase the number of encounters but also to extend the definitional and contextual information about the words in question. In the case of NT02, for instance, he used a vocabulary worksheet in which his students could work out the meanings of a large number of words taken from the previous reading and listening passages but which were presented in that worksheet in new contextual sentences (Excerpt 6.42, and also Excerpt 6.43 for his justifications for the activity). This type of approach has been suggested as a necessary practice (Read, 2000). From the CHAT perspective, how teachers use, make sense of or appropriate teaching materials reflects the 'production' and appropriation of tools, which illuminates the sociocultural conditions of an activity. By understanding their individual conditions (including the teacher's ability to produce vocabulary worksheets, for example ET01 pointing out her limited ability to use a computer to help her design worksheets), we can see how their actual approaches shape the whole activity (system). In other words, the practice takes shape pursuant to teachers' available conditions.

Consequently, effective vocabulary instruction can be realised if proper conditions, for example helping teachers design their teaching materials, are made available for teachers.

9.1.2.2 How Effective Are the Ways Vocabulary Is Tested in the Present Context?

Testing and assessment are unarguably an inseparable part of the curriculum in school settings such as the one in this study. The importance of this discussion, however, concerns the ways vocabulary is tested, how these ways respond to research and theory about effective language testing and assessment and how such practice shapes and is shaped by the context in which the teacher works. Tests were perceived by the in-service teachers in this study as part of their language instruction. That is, tests are not just assessment mechanisms; they are also learning platforms where the students recall, use, or revisit learnt knowledge. They are part of the teachers' daily instruction and the school's evaluation scheme. As found in this study, the way vocabulary was tested virtually mirrored how it was taught in class, suggesting the dialectical nature of actions and cultural tools (i.e., the practice of testing) in the present institutional context.

Discrete-point testing was found to be predominant in the testing documents (as shown in Table 6.2 and Table 7.3; see also Appendix 11). In the literature of language assessment, this testing method can ensure the construct validity of the tests in school settings. According to Read (2000) citing Bachman and Palmer (1996), this method is constructed based on the syllabus of the course. In the present study, test contents (of both the teacher-designed and the institutionally developed tests) were based on the textbooks in order to assess the students' vocabulary knowledge over a period of time. The ways vocabulary items were tested are associated with such testing techniques as recognition and recall. While in the recognition technique "test-takers are presented with the target word and are asked to show that they understand its meaning", in recall test-takers "are provided with some stimulus designed to elicit the target word from their memory" (Read, 2000, p. 155). Some examples of recognition testing techniques used by the teachers in this study are word-meaning matching and multiple-choice questions (MCQs). Devising words and filling in gaps with the students' own words are examples of a recall technique. These ways of testing students' vocabulary knowledge appear to have gained institutionalised status as testing practice, as the teachers themselves pointed out, thus having been transformed into a symbolic or

cultural tool which the teachers appropriated into their classroom practice. However, the teachers also expressed their dissatisfaction over the limitation of this practice, as shown below.

The way in which vocabulary is tested in the present context also concerns two key concepts in language learning: receptive and productive vocabulary knowledge. According to Nation (2001/2013), receptive knowledge is associated with the receptive skills of reading and listening, and productive knowledge is incurred through the productive skills of speaking and writing. The discrete-point testing found in the teachers' test papers was related more to receptive than to productive vocabulary knowledge. A noticeable limitation of the present practice is, therefore, the absence of production-based vocabulary testing, which was also admitted and recognised by the in-services themselves. In this respect, teachers' opinions differed about where the responsibility for such tests lay. While some of the in-services suggested that production-based tests should be made available at the institutional level, others (for example NT01) argued that they were committed to filling the gap by enacting such tests as part of their own in-class assessment scheme. The teachers' verbal accounts about the limitations of the practice which had already been transformed into a cultural tool highlight the role of teacher agency in their attempt to make sense of their curriculum, to appropriate cultural practice and to act (at least mentally) in their context. CHAT investigators have referred to this situation as the process of internalisation or the construction of setting (e.g., Smagorinsky, 2010).

In this section, I have discussed the teachers' cognitions about vocabulary instruction and how they were enacted, with reference to the sociocultural environment and to some of the research and theory about vocabulary learning and teaching. At this level of analysis, the conditions affording the teaching operations enacted to realise a certain action are revealed. The implication is that establishing proper conditions for teachers to embody their goals is crucial as it subsequently helps teachers realise what they believe is beneficial for their students. I have argued that language teacher cognition is essentially sociocultural in the sense espoused by the CHAT perspective adopted in the present study and in how individual teachers' actions are essentially shaped by their teaching contexts, but also how teachers' actions in turn shape the activity itself. The discussions laid out so far offer a collective analysis of the teachers' individual findings presented in Chapters 5, 6 and 7, and within the theoretical framework of CHAT, they reflect the 'action' and 'operation' embodied at the individual level. In the next section, I use

the 'activity' level of CHAT to discuss the collective analysis of the teachers' findings presented in Chapter 8.

9.2 THE HIDDEN CURRICULUM OF TEACHER EDUCATION

The analysis at this level attends to the lower part of the activity systems analysis model (represented in Figure 8.1 for the pre-services and in Figure 8.2 for the in-services). It reflects the collective nature of the operations, actions and the activity as a whole. Analysing this collective 'whole' allows one to discern not only teacher learning processes but also how such processes influence and are influenced by key factors in the system. More specifically, it reveals how teachers continually learn to teach in their working context and how such learning shapes and is shaped by the context in which they work and live. This ultimate aim moves beyond merely exploring teacher belief and practice commonly found in mainstream LTC research, such as those studies reviewed in Chapter 2 (Section 2.1). The (second generation) CHAT approach to LTC research stresses that by exploring the mental-physical and individual-collective aspects of teachers' LTC, the process of teacher learning, participation, growth, development, or change (hereafter, teacher learning) can be captured in practice. Teacher learning occurs at a "middle layer between the formal structure of school systems [i.e. codified laws, regulations, budgets etc.] and the contents and methods of teaching [i.e. the curriculum]" (Engeström, 2008, p. 86). This middle layer through which all teachers navigate their way in order to participate in their communities of practice is associated with Snyder's (1971) notion of the 'hidden curriculum'. By addressing this hidden curriculum, a CHAT investigation of LTC examines how teacher learning occurs in situ or in situated activity (Chaiklin & Lave, 1991) or in a community of practice (CoP) itself (Lave & Wenger, 1991; Wenger, 1998).

According to Wenger, McDermott, and Snyder (2002, p. 27), the common structural system of a CoP, despite the various forms it may take, is "a unique combination of three fundamental elements: a domain of knowledge, which defines a set of issues; a community of people who care about this domain; and shared practice that they are developing to be effective in their domain" (emphases original). The CoP of the present study's context is English language teaching (as a domain) in a higher educational setting in Cambodia (as a community) embodied by a majority of Cambodian teachers and administrators (as a shared practice). It is found in this study that the teachers navigated their ways through different forms of CoP so that they could become, or at least be seen as, participants—or to be part

of what Lave and Wenger (1991) call 'legitimate peripheral participation' within their community of ELT. The pre-services, as Chapter 8 has shown, encountered their hidden curriculum as they negotiated the methods and contents of teaching, not only with their respective practicum supervisor and mentor but also with their students. At the same time, their negotiation was constrained by the practicum evaluation policies. For example, in making decisions about whether to use L1 translation in teaching, PT01 referred to the institutional evaluation scheme that, inter alia, regulated how Khmer should be used in the classroom. He also referred to what his supervisor and mentor might think about his pedagogical approach. Becoming aware of such a hidden curriculum allows teachers to make sense of their actions, which in turn shape the activity whose object they are pursuing.

The in-services (both novices and experienced teachers) appear to have enacted more complex forms of CoP than the pre-services, for at least one obvious reason: they were more attached to a formal structure or system. Based on the findings presented in Chapter 8 (Activity System II), there are at least three different forms of CoP with identifiable but interconnected boundaries in which these in-services participated. Briefly, the first form is realised through the teachers' relations with their students, whose boundary is normally set by the classroom itself. The second one is embodied by the teachers' interactions with their colleagues, a kind of institutionally recognised communication process spearheaded by a so-called 'course coordinator' in the context of the present study (sub-section 4.2.1.3 in Chapter 4). This process allows those teachers teaching the same course to meet and discuss instructional issues including how teaching contents are organised, the number of tests to be delivered, what to include in the tests, and how scoring systems work for every class during each academic semester. The last form of CoP is materialised by the teachers' formal attendance at monthly and annual meetings with the institution's director and management team members. In some meetings, the university vice-rectors are also present. Sometimes, the teachers are invited to attend meetings with the university rector, together with other teachers from various departments and faculties of the university. In these meetings, especially the ones with the directors, administrative and general educational issues are normally discussed. I call these various forms of communication a dynamic set of social relations within a CoP. Although not as complex as the case of the in-services, this set of social relations were also found in the case of the pre-services.

The focus on these relations can encapsulate the complex 'whole' of an activity system. In other words, as already noted in Chapter 2 and reiterated in Chapter 8, the use of the activity systems analysis model is not simply to describe the elements of the model. As Engeström (1987/2015) emphasises, the analysis must capture the activity as a whole in order to illuminate the various interactions between the elements of the model, which in turn reflects the social structure or system of the activity under investigation. An inherent feature of an activity is the contradiction of its internal form, and as shown in Chapter 8 such contractions were revealed through troubled relations the teachers reported they had experienced in doing their work. Given that contractions are inherent features of the activity systems of these teachers and are social situations of teacher learning, I will discuss them further here; but before I do that, to visualise the relations that shape how the teachers participate in their situated ELT community, I present in Figure 9.1 a diagram modified from Figure 8.1/8.2 focusing on the hidden aspects of the process of teacher learning.

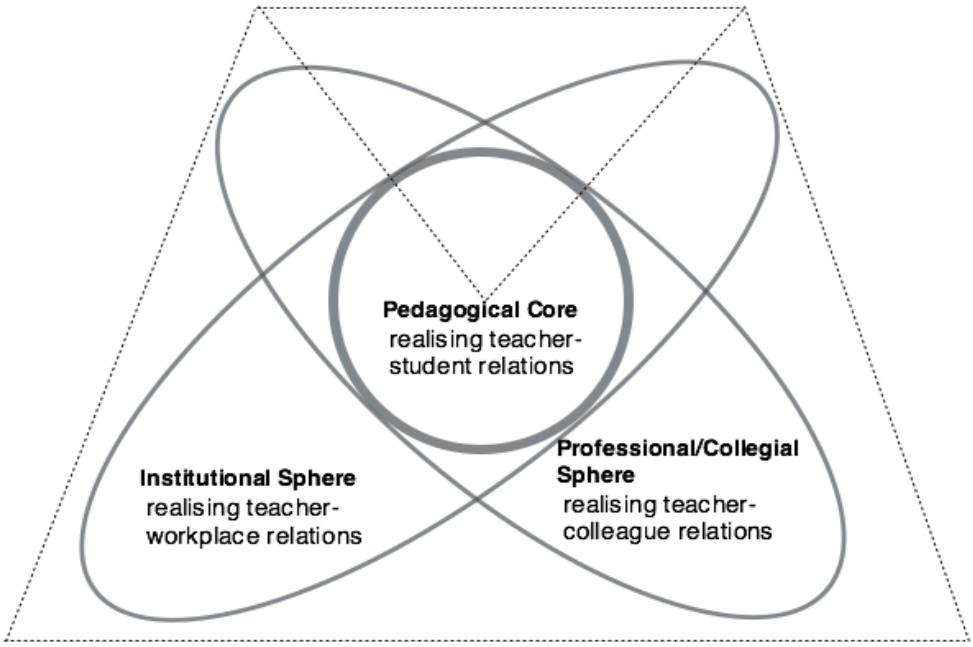

Figure 9.1 Teachers' spheres for learning within an activity system

The above figure reflects the dynamic and changing, non-static, character of the internal structure of teacher learning within a situated practice. It is essentially a modified version of Figure 8.1/8.2, but here it visualises the complex interactions between the various structural elements of the activity system. As can be seen in Figure 9.1, the top triangle of Figure 8.1/8.2 is now bent inwards to illustrate that the use of tools is most relevant in the pedagogical core sphere of the ELT activity system. The pedagogical core sphere is embedded within many possible other

spheres, but emerged from the data were what I refer to as the professional/ collegial and institutional learning spheres. The ELT activity is situated within a CoP, where teacher participation is key to teacher learning. According to Wenger et al. (2002, p. 29, emphasis original) the three underlying elements–domain, community and practice-need to co-occur to "make a community of practice an ideal knowledge structure–a social structure that can assume responsibility for developing and sharing knowledge". In other words, for the teachers to learn, they need to be able to participate meaningfully across the learning spheres illustrated in Figure 9.1, although in the case of the pre-services the institutional sphere was less relevant during their practicum activity. The professional/collegial sphere for the pre-services was realised through their communication with their practicum mentors and supervisors (as described in sub-section 4.2.2 of Chapter 4 and in sub-section 8.1.1.2 of Chapter 8).

However, no social structure can be ideal. As posited within CHAT frameworks, contradictions are inherent characteristics of any system or social structure, and as found in this study, such contradictions were prevalent in the ELT activity system. From the teachers' perspectives, they exist in all the spheres presented in Figure 9.1. However, contradictions can trigger teacher learning (K. E. Johnson, 2009), and as submitted earlier contradictions here refer to the complex relations between teachers and students, teachers and their colleagues (or practicum supervisor/mentor as in the case of the pre-services) and teachers and the workplace itself. In other words, the dynamic set of relations illustrated in Figure 9.1 is to be seen as the central focus of the teaching process and of teacher education more generally. These relations essentially invoke the notion of contradiction within an activity system because they characterise the teaching activity as a system as they shape, and are shaped by, the context in which they occur. When these relations are positively embodied by proportionate coordinating contributions from concerned stakeholders, the activity is geared towards the object set to be achieved. However, when they are negatively enacted, even in the mind of the teacher subjects, the path to realising the object is altered. Prolonged, systematic troubled relations in any or all the spheres would most likely produce attrition on the part of the teacher subjects jeopardising the whole activity, hampering also the process of teacher personal and professional development.

The (internal) contradiction of a given activity may have different forms depending on the socioeconomic formation within which the phenomenon being investigated is located. For example, in a macro system such as capitalism,

according to Engeström (1987/2015), the contradiction rests in commodity, the dependence and interdependence of 'use values' and 'exchange values' of a commodified item. However, the socioeconomic formation of L2 teaching or ELT more specifically, as well as teacher education more generally, is not so much about the use and exchange values in the capitalist sense. Rather, as mentioned, I argue that the socioeconomic structure of L2 teaching/learning and of teacher education more broadly rests in the relations between key actors in the system, such as teachers, students (and their parents), instructional materials and equipment, colleagues, the school, the curricular and the policies. The complex relations between these stakeholders that emerge temporally and spatially are the sociocultural apparatus of teaching as an activity system. They are historically cumulative, socially situated and culturally negotiated. Uncovering the true nature of such relations, which involve not only teacher cognition but also emotion, agency and identity, allows us to understand how teachers (be they novices or experienced, pre-services or in-services) negotiate their participation in the community of their situated practice, thus illuminating their learning trajectories. As a result, emphasis should be placed on the process of teacher learning or participation in their situated activity. It is this situated teacher learning in relation to the concept of participation in a CoP (Lave & Wenger, 1991; Wenger, 1998)[19] that I now discuss.

According to Wenger (1998, p. 7), "placing the focus on participation has broad implications for what it takes to understand and support [teacher] learning". He explicates that (emphases original):

- For individuals, it means that learning is an issue of engaging in and contributing to the practices of their communities.
- For communities, it means that learning is an issue of refining their practice and ensuring new generations of members.
- For organizations, it means that learning is an issue of sustaining the interconnected communities of practice through which an organization knows what it knows and thus becomes effective and valuable as an organization.

The teachers in this study, including the pre-services, learn by participating in their communities of practice. The pre-services participate in what Jahreie and Ottesen

[19] Wenger (1998, p. 7) who explicitly write that "CHAT has strong family resemblances and yet is distinct from situated cognition, distributed cognitions, legitimate peripheral participation, actor-network, and practice theories". However, as being used in this study, CHAT is an overarching theoretical and analytical framework of cognition and learning.

(2010) call 'spheres for learning'[20] where they negotiate the meaning of their practice with their practicum supervisors and mentors, as well as with their practicum students. Even though the practicum period was noticeably short, lasting for only six weeks, the pre-services appeared to have undergone incongruities in their planning and teaching, leading them to negotiate with authorities such as supervisor/mentor, textbooks and practicum (evaluation) policies, and with community members such as the students (i.e., the students' learning preferences and language abilities). PT01 and PT03, for example, negotiated whether to use L1 in vocabulary instruction while PT02 came to appreciate pre-teaching vocabulary before presenting reading and listening comprehension tasks. These kinds of negotiation are 'legitimate peripheral participation' in their learning to teach. As Lave and Wenger (1991, p. 109, emphases original) note: "For newcomers [such as pre-service teachers] then the purpose is not to learn from talk as a substitute for legitimate peripheral participation; it is to learn to talk as a key to legitimate peripheral participation".

With respect to Figure 9.1, at the time of the study, these pre-services were found to have participated in the pedagogical core and professional learning spheres. The institutional sphere was, however, either not realised or indirectly enacted due to their circumstances: teaching practicum period, policies and arrangements, for example. On the other hand, the in-services participated in all the three spheres, navigating their ways in order to make sense of their daily practices, their workplace and their activity collectively. Within the pedagogical core sphere, the teacher-student relations are realised. This sphere is a site where the teachers make sense of their daily practice, or come to pedagogical realisation, and it is through this sense-making process (understanding the students' learning preferences, tailoring interaction for their diverse language abilities, making use of available resources, for example) that the classroom instruction arises. Teacher-student relations are a crucial quality of effective learning, increasingly recognised in the field of TESOL teacher education (Farrell, 2015b). Practice at this level is further shaped by how the teachers interact with their colleagues, realising teacher-colleague relations (the professional/collegial learning sphere). Both positive and negative (emotional) experiences, or 'perezhivanija', feed back into the

[20] It should be noted that Jahreie and Ottesen's (2010) concept of 'spheres for learning' was realised by the analysis of oral conversations and discussions between concerned individuals. The concept I am using here is realised more abstractly as it refers to not only concrete verbal interactions but also mental reactions to the 'spheres' themselves.

teachers' classroom practice, as exemplified by the cases of the present study. As the teachers participate in the formal institutional meetings or discussions (Jahreie & Ottesen, 2010), they bring about the contact between the curriculum and the system, embodying the teacher-institution social structure. The nature of these relations within and across spheres, in turn, determined the kind of practice in question, the activity of English language teaching in this context. Highlighted in these relations were the teachers' critical experiences, for example: PT01's mindful thought about pedagogical decisions; PT02's evaluation of instructional procedures; PT03's sense of triadic relations between the supervisor, mentor and herself; NT01's and NT03's concepts of (re)defined relations with their students; NT02's critical perspective towards his (senior) colleagues and the institution; ET01's sense of being neglected; ET02's efforts to juggle different jobs; and ET03's admission of guilty feeling. Experiences such as these reflect how teachers negotiate their ways to participate within and across the spheres for learning. Therefore, it seems necessary to unravel such critical experiences so that teachers' learning trajectories can be determined and assisted along the way to ensure 'accountable teacher education'.

Teachers need to participate in their communities of practice, but affording them the opportunity to participate is even more important, especially when such an opportunity is constrained and limited by contextual factors just as this study has found. As Lave and Wenger (1991, p. 111) put it:

> Moving toward full participation in practice involves not just a greater commitment of time, intensified effort, more and broader responsibilities within the community, and more difficult and risky tasks, but, more significantly, an increasing sense of identity as a master practitioner [or in relation to the present context, identity as an NNES teaching professional in the ELT field].

What arises clearly from this analysis, therefore, is that institutional support for teachers is unequivocally needed if teacher professional and personal development are to be effective, moving towards what Burns (forthcoming) refers to as a form of 'being-based' transformative, rather than 'thing-based' transmissive, teacher education. The hidden curriculum of teacher learning, as has been shown, tends to deal with teacher identity, agency and emotion more than teacher knowledge that seems to illuminate clearly within the pedagogical core sphere conceptualised in Figure 9.1.

9.3 SUMMARY

The synthesis analysis presented in this chapter encapsulates the findings that respond to the research questions. As can be seen, despite some nuances, the teachers in the present study espoused and enacted similar cognitions and practices in relation to vocabulary instruction. In general, it can be said that their cognitions and practices appeared, to a greater and lesser extent, to 'answer to' research and theory about 'effective' language learning and teaching. The CHAT perspective adopted in this study allowed me to show also that language teacher cognition, and cognition more generally, is a social phenomenon; LTC is historically, socially, and (institutionally) culturally constructed. It can be said to be both situated and distributed. Based on the theoretical and analytical frameworks employed in the study, the findings indicate also that the central aim of LTC research should be teacher learning, conceptualised in terms of teachers' participation in their communities of practice. The inherent characteristics of teacher participation or learning are to be seen through a complex set of social relations, that is teacher-student relations, teacher-colleague relations, and teacher-workplace relations. Through their negotiation to (re)build such relations, opportunities for teachers to learn, grow or develop emerge; however, as shown, institutionally affording teachers such opportunities and granting them access to participation is even more important than recognising the necessity for them to participate itself.

In the final chapter, Beyond Cognition and Classroom Practice, I conclude this investigation, drawing on its findings to draw out implications at three levels: classroom pedagogy, teacher education and LTC research.

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10 | BEYOND COGNITION AND PRACTICE

> Teachers must be learners, after all, as they negotiate the multiple demands of their workdays, restlessly seeking more effective and satisfying paths. In so doing, they draw not only on distributed cognitions, but also on the distributed emotions that are scattered across the terrain of workplace and profession, key elements in the social constructions that continually go inward, eventually to constitute thoughts and feelings that are both 'ours' and profoundly shared.
>
> (DiPardo & Potter, 2003, pp. 326-327)

As signalled by the above quote, I conclude this study with the central theme of teachers-as-learners in their situated practice. In doing so, I first recapitulate the major findings of the present investigation upon which I draw to offer implications from three perspectives: classroom pedagogy, teacher education and LTC research. I also acknowledge possible limitations in relation to this research. At the end of the chapter, I outline a future research agenda that could advance this important domain.

10.1 THE STUDY'S MAJOR FINDINGS

As stated in Chapter 1, I set out to explore and understand the cognitions and vocabulary instructional practices of a group of Cambodian teachers of English in a tertiary context in Cambodia. Language teacher cognition (LTC) research in relation to the teaching of vocabulary, as has previously been pointed out in Chapter 2, is a scantily researched area within the LTC research domain. Therefore, this present investigation contributes not only to building the knowledge base of vocabulary instruction as it is operationalised by classroom teachers but also to filling a gap in the literature on LTC research in general. More specifically, the study aimed to understand how the participating Cambodian pre-services, novices and experienced teachers learned to enact their teaching activity, by exploring their cognitions and practices in the context of their work. This aim was guided by five research questions. In this section, I summarise the major findings in relation to these questions.

10.1.1 What Are the Teachers' Cognitions about Vocabulary Instruction?

This question set out to examine teachers' conceptions of vocabulary instruction and explore the dimensions of such cognitions. The detailed findings were reported in Chapters 5, 6 and 7. Here, however, I summarise the major findings. In general, the study found that all the teachers, except ET02, viewed vocabulary instruction as an indispensable element in their instructional operations. They were of the view that teaching vocabulary to their students was imperative because it helped enhance their students' language abilities to communicate in the language meaningfully. In this regard, they considered it important to embody vocabulary instruction in relation to four macro skills (reading, writing, listening and speaking). That is, to them, vocabulary was seen as a fundamental foundation for learning language skills. The teachers expressed their conceptions in metaphors and statements summarised as follows:

- Vocabulary is a base on which language is learnt.
- Vocabulary is a tool for students to enhance their linguistic knowledge.
- Vocabulary is power. As much as bullets are needed in a firearm battle, vocabulary is needed in written and spoken communication.
- Teaching vocabulary means giving students a head-start in communication.
- Vocabulary is a basic requirement for students to construct sentences in writing and speaking.
- Vocabulary and language skills go hand in hand.
- Vocabulary is best learnt in context.
- Learner autonomy is an effective way to enhancing students' own vocabulary knowledge.
- Vocabulary testing and assessment is part of vocabulary instruction.

These summarising statements indicate how important the teachers felt it was to enact vocabulary instruction in their daily lessons, thus reflecting their cognitions about vocabulary instruction. Since all the teachers believed that vocabulary instruction and language skills 'go hand in hand', as opposed to teaching vocabulary in isolation, their perspectives seem appropriately placed in relation to current literature and recommended approaches (e.g., Nassaji, 2003, 2012; Nation, 2013). In addition, they recognised that "vocabulary learning is only one sub-goal of a range of goals that are important in the language classroom" (Nation, 2013, p. 1). This

conception of vocabulary instruction as a part, and not the only part, of an ELT lesson is a positive finding.

Another noteworthy finding in this study is that teacher cognitions about vocabulary instruction were mediated by their own English learning, present teaching and, to some extent, their professional training experiences. In relation to the teachers' own learning experiences, the analyses in Chapters 5, 6 and 7 showed that they saw these experiences as both positive and negative, but in both cases they led the teachers to value interdependence between vocabulary teaching and instruction in language skills. That is, they recalled that learning vocabulary in isolation (for instance, translating lists of vocabulary items) was not an effective way for them to learn English to communicate. The role of previous language learning in the construction of teacher cognitions was also reported in other LTC studies, for example Borg (1999b). Thus, the teachers reported that they taught or would teach vocabulary "in context", a concept also reported in previous studies on LTC in vocabulary learning and teaching. For instance, as reviewed in Chapter 2, Macalister (2012) found that both pre-services and their trainers were against learning vocabulary in isolation. Similarly, in their study Gao and Ma (2011) reported that the pre-service and in-service teachers from mainland China believed it was better for their students to learn vocabulary in context than to memorise vocabulary items. Teachers' present teaching experiences were also a source of (continuing) development of teachers' cognitions. The teachers in this study, particularly through their recall interviews, were found to make spontaneous instructional decisions, supporting the proposition that cognitions develop through action (Derry, 2013; Lave, 1988). Tsang (2004) also showed that through their interactive decision-making, their decisions made while teaching, teachers formed cognitions about teaching. On the other hand, teacher professional training experiences, and the theoretical and practical knowledge they entailed, did not seem to play a significant role in shaping these teachers' cognitions about vocabulary instruction. The teachers made minimal reference to professional training experiences or theoretical knowledge when they talked about and rationalised their vocabulary instructional decisions (cf., Borg and Burns, 2008, who found that teachers barely referred to theoretical ideas in relation to their reported practices in the teaching of grammar). When reference was made, it featured most in the pre-service data, for instance PT01 contemplating how he could apply what he had learnt from his teacher preparation program in his practicum. This finding might indicate that teacher preparation programs did not have a significant impact

on these teachers' cognitions, thus supporting Ting's (2007) study, for instance. Moreover, it could be that the more experienced teachers become, the less relevant their initial teacher training might be. However, since the relationship between professional teacher training programs and teachers' cognitions were not extensively explored, this interpretation is inconclusive within the present study. Besides, given that such programs have been reported to shape teachers' cognitions (e.g., Borg, 2011; Busch, 2010; Farrell, 1999), it would be valuable for future LTC research in the same context as the present study to explore this relationship in more depth.

What this study has shown in terms of teachers' cognitions about vocabulary instruction is that vocabulary as well as vocabulary instruction is viewed as a crucial element to be realised in an ELT curriculum alongside and in the context of language skills. Previous language learning experiences, especially those that are negative, are also found to have a great influence in these teachers' cognitions. Not only does this finding invoke the importance of the widely known notion of the apprenticeship of observation (Lortie, 1975), it also supports a theoretical claim embraced in this study that cognitions are socioculturally and sociohistorically constructed (Burns et al., 2015; Valsiner & Veer, 2005).

10.1.2 How Are the Teachers' Cognitions Interrelated with their Classroom Practices? How Do Such Interrelationships Differ Across the three Groups?

In this sub-section, due to their close connections, I summarise together the major findings related to the second and third research questions, which dealt with the interrelationships between cognitions and practices. However, before I lay out these interrelationships, major findings about the teachers' approaches to vocabulary instruction are first summarised. As shown in Chapters 5, 6 and 7:

- Vocabulary items to be taught were determined largely by the lessons in the textbooks the teachers used.
- They were presented in such formats as word-definition matching, gap-filling, and/or multiple-choice questions as either pre- or post-reading or listening activities.
- These formats were also used in assessment schemes such as tests and quizzes.

- Certain vocabulary items were taught along with their grammatical parts of speech, synonyms/antonyms, L1 translation and/or phonological features.
- Receptive vocabulary knowledge was predominantly focused on while productive vocabulary knowledge was extremely limited, both in in-class activities and in test papers.

These forms of vocabulary instruction characterised these teachers' practices, some of which were reflective of the teachers' cognitions while some others were contradictory to their stated cognitions. In other words, both alignments and dissonances between cognitions and practices were noticeable, but what is more important was the complexities of the interrelationships between these two dimensions found across the cases.

In the cases of the pre-services and novices, and to a certain extent ET03, the interrelationships between cognitions and practices were illuminated in two areas. First, vocabulary instruction was an explicit goal-directed action in their ELT curriculum documents. Therefore, vocabulary was observed to be extensively focused on in their lessons, an orientation which was also connected to their stated beliefs. Vocabulary instruction was realised within the four macro skills as well as in its own right, organised as planned and/or unplanned vocabulary-focused activities. While the former were enacted through pre- and/or post-reading or listening comprehension tasks, the latter were carried out during reading/listening comprehension sessions. These realisations reflected the teachers' beliefs that vocabulary and language skills, in the word of ET01, "go along hand in hand". This finding can be lauded as good practice that deals with "comprehensible meaning-focused input [as learners] have the opportunity to learn new language items through listening and reading activities where the main focus is on the information in what they are listening to or reading" (Nation, 2013, p. 2).

Second, vocabulary instructional activities interrelated with the notion of 'vocabulary in context' that emerged in the data analysis. As shown in Chapters 5 and 6, both the pre-services and the novices enacted vocabulary instructional activities through teaching strategies that focused on grammatical parts of speech, pronunciation of the vocabulary items, contextual examples, synonyms/antonyms and/or L1 translation in order to make word meanings precise for their students. The teachers attributed using these strategies to their perceptions of linguistic and situational contexts of word meanings, thus realising the notion of 'vocabulary in context' in their sense of the phrase. Consequently, 'vocabulary in

context' appeared to function as the conceptual tool guiding their practices and mediating their material or physical forms of teaching. A question arising from this finding is how such material forms can be made sense of with reference to vocabulary instruction research. As discussed in sub-section 9.1.2, the teachers' explicit instruction of language items was designed, as they described it, to maximise the students' learning experiences. Also it was related to three key aspects of vocabulary knowledge enhancement: meaning, form and use of vocabulary items, as proposed in Nation's (2001) model of vocabulary knowledge (Table 2.1). This practice, therefore, seems laudable. However, since no evidence was found in the teachers' data that they were referencing their practices to this model, this finding is coincidental. It could perhaps be argued, however, that teachers' own implicit theories and beliefs about vocabulary instruction support theoretical premises, although theoretical premises are not always built on teaching practices.

In the cases of the experienced teachers, the relationships between their cognitions and practices vis-à-vis vocabulary instruction were realised through forms of practice (at least for ET02 and ET03) that were different from those found in the cases of the less experienced teachers, but were also intricate. First, while they also believed that vocabulary (instruction) was a crucial element in their instructional activities, it was grammar (ET02 and ET03) and reading skills (ET01) that they taught, or reported to focus on, more in their daily lessons. They stated they were more confident in teaching these domains than teaching vocabulary, where, they reported, they would be faced with challenges. This finding suggests that teachers may concentrate on confining their teaching to what they are good at. The fact that they conceived of the importance of vocabulary instruction at all could have been influenced by their participation in this research which studied vocabulary explicitly. For example, the analysis of ET02's data indicated that he used the notions of 'vocabulary in context' and 'learner autonomy' to reflect how he made sense of vocabulary instruction only during the interview. These conceptual tools were not, however, apparent in his teaching, which leads to the conclusion that he referred to them to safeguard, rather than to guide, his teaching, unlike in the cases of the pre-services and the novices. In other words, ET02's references to these conceptual tools can be said to signify an 'ideal form' of practice, but that ET02 himself was unaware that they were not realised in his classroom action.

As Ilyenkov (2009, p. 272) writes:

> The ideal forms of the world are [...] forms of activity realised in some material. If they are not realised in some palpable material, they remain invisible and unknown for the active spirit itself, [and] the spirit cannot become aware of them (emphasis original).

The reasons why ET02 and other teachers did what they did and how they rationalised their actions were subject to another layer of analysis, which I will summarise in sub-section 10.1.3. First, I discuss another dimension of the complexities of the interrelationships between cognitions and practices, the effects of which lead to the problematization of the notion of teacher/teaching expertise. As reported in Chapters 5, 6 and 7, even with similar formal qualifications, past language learning experiences, and past and present teaching experiences, the teachers differed in their ways of thinking and doing, at least as far as vocabulary instruction was concerned. However, those whose language learning histories, teaching qualifications and experiences diverged considerably were found to share similar cognitive systems about the teaching of vocabulary. For example, the least experienced pre-service teacher (PT02) was found to emphasise learner autonomy in vocabulary learning just like the most experienced teacher. The ramification of this particular finding is a need to problematize the concept of teaching 'expertise'. That is, analysing teaching qualifications and experiences alone are inadequate in capturing teaching expertise. As has been shown in this study, individual teachers' conditions or circumstances are an essential part of the equation not only to apprehend teaching expertise more fully but also to appreciate teachers' own ways of thinking and doing (cf., Tsui, 2003). Such circumstances mediate the imperatives that shape teachers' decisions and actions, even when such actions go against their own beliefs, as in the case of ET03, for instance. It is this particular finding that complicates the relationships between teachers' cognitions and practices revealed in the data.

The lack of clear-cut differences between teachers of various career stages in terms of their cognitions and/or practices is not surprising, however. Many LTC studies (as reviewed in Chapter 2) have shown that, in terms of the relationships between their cognitions and practices, there are both similarities and differences among novice and experienced teachers. These findings, therefore, lend support to previous studies that portray LTC as complex, dynamic and situated, intertwined with the teachers' past and present experiences and shaped by the contexts in which they occur, such as classroom environments, institutional policies, and

textbooks (e.g., Borg, 1998, 2009; Burns, 1996; Childs, 2011; Cross, 2010; Hayes, 2009a). Nonetheless, this study found that how cognitions were realised in practice was also accounted for, in part, by how confident and knowledgeable the teachers were in teaching vocabulary. An interesting difference between these teachers was that the pre-services and novices appeared more confident in and knowledgeable about teaching vocabulary than the experienced teachers who, in their reflections on vocabulary instruction, highlighted considerable challenges they reportedly faced in their teaching. These insights suggest that teacher knowledge plays a significant role in how cognitions can be embodied (Woods, 1996).

As will be discussed further in Section 10.2, the present findings emphasise the need in teacher professional development to highlight the role of contextual variables and imperatives in vocabulary teaching, because it is these contextual factors that gave rise to the teachers' unique ways of thinking and doing. It follows, therefore, that if changes in vocabulary instruction and testing/assessment are to be made so that students' learning experience can be maximised, certain situational circumstances or conditions need to be addressed first. I now turn to the question of how context can shape cognitions and practices, and discuss the key findings that emerged in this study.

10.1.3 How Are Cognitions and Practices Shaped by the Sociocultural Contexts in Which these Teachers Work and Live? How Does a CHAT Perspective on LTC Show How these Teachers Learn to Enact their Teaching Activity in the Context of their Work?

Because of their intricate connections, I summarise the major findings relating to these last two research questions together here. As discussed in Section 9.1 of Chapter 9, teachers' cognitions are socioculturally oriented and embodied in situ in a dialectical manner that, in turn, shapes such cognitions. The study found that the teachers' cognitions and practices were mediated through the individual teachers' socio-historical and present experiences and shaped by institutional and cultural tools (be they physical, psychological, conceptual and/or symbolic) that the teachers used in their work (reported in Chapters 5, 6 and 7). In other words, as mentioned, during their participation in this research, the teachers revisited their previous language learning experiences and conceptualised vocabulary instruction with references to their current practices.

Moreover, the in situ embodiment of cognitions, viewed as the teaching operations in this study, was conditioned by the individual teachers' particular

circumstances. One such circumstance was found at the classroom level—for instance, teachers deciding to use L1 to explain vocabulary, despite their stated disbeliefs in its effectiveness in promoting communicative learning. Another such circumstance was at the institutional level—for example, the acceptance of perceived teaching routines that focused mainly on the receptive aspect of vocabulary knowledge. Not only did these circumstances explain the unique ways of teaching by each teacher, but they can also be seen as contextual imperatives in shaping such ways. It can be argued that it is such conditioned operations that construct the "situated nature" of teacher learning (K. E. Johnson, 2009, p. 16), reflecting the contextualisation of LTC, or situated cognitions, as they are known in CHAT frameworks (Daniels, 2008). As teaching operations, along with cultural materials such as textbooks and worksheets, continue to be employed through time and space, they are distributed or transformed into cultural tools, also known as distributed cognitions (Daniels, 2008). Thus, the interplay between situated and distributed cognitions at any given time gives rise to a particular form of practice, be it vocabulary instruction or English language teaching more generally. This means that, predictably, the ELT practices reported in this study are likely to continue in the same way, unless certain conditions or circumstances are afforded to the teachers, at both the classroom and institutional levels, which lead them to change.

Finally, the study also used a CHAT model to investigate how the participating teachers learnt to enact their activity of teaching. As illustrated in Chapter 8 and discussed in Chapter 9, this activity systems analysis model mapped out interconnections between key players in the ELT activity, uncovering two themes that reflect the teachers' learning trajectories in their community of practice. These themes were referred to in terms of social relations the teachers reported they had been experiencing in the enactment of their teaching activity. These relations, represented in Figure 9.1, highlight the interpersonal relationships between teachers and key actors in an activity system including their students, colleagues, practicum supervisors/mentors, program managers and administrative personnel. This study shows that negative experiences or troubled social relations (perceived or otherwise) are prevalent in social activities such as ELT and can lead to stressful and other emotionally charged experiences on the part of teachers, hampering their sense of agency but also (re-) defining their identity as person and professional.

Through the lens of teacher learning, interpersonal or social relationships are revealed, illuminating certain constructs of LTC—other than knowledge or belief

itself (see Section 2.1 in Chapter 2 for the discussion of LTC constructs)—such as teacher identity, agency and emotion, as key attributes in the process of teacher learning. In other words, through a bottom-up approach to LTC, this study found that while knowledge or beliefs about classroom instruction tend to feature in the process of teaching, it is identity, agency and emotion that also seem to play significant roles in the process of teacher learning or personal and professional development. This finding connects this research with other (LTC) studies that aim to understand the process of teacher learning through teacher identity, agency or emotion (e.g., Feryok, 2012; Golombek & Johnson, 2004; Ha, 2008; Kiely, 2015; J. Miller, 2007; Norton, 2013). However, this argument is not intended to separate these constructs from knowledge and beliefs (see also Tsui, 2007). Rather, as mentioned, all these constructs are part of the network of LTC concepts that emerge and are grounded in bottom-up data analysis.

10.2 THE STUDY'S IMPLICATIONS

Following the major findings summarised above, in this section, I draw out implications in the following domains: classroom pedagogy, teacher education, and research.

10.2.1 Implications for Classroom Pedagogy

One important issue raised by the study is teacher recognition of the crucial role of LTC in classroom practice. The case of ET02 was particularly indicative that teachers may not be consciously aware of their own thinking, and thus their sense of agency. While the institutional context in which the teachers in this study taught was reported by the in-services, during their interviews, to be favourable to teacher decision-making about pedagogical approaches, ET02's ways of thinking and doing exhibited 'scripted instruction' which, according to Reeves (2010), limits teachers' roles in instructional decisions. Therefore, it is important that the institutions in which teachers work afford them adequate support and resources such as those mentioned in the next section, so that they can become aware of their own thinking and doing and consider how these dimensions of practice interrelate in the conduct of their teaching.

Raising teachers' awareness about such aspects of teaching is the first step towards helping teachers as practitioners to take stock of their own agentive roles. As I argue in Chapter 9, LTC can be seen as the 'point of contact' between theory and practice. For many language teachers, the term 'pedagogy' may be associated

with teaching methods or strategies they can 'apply', or 'do' in their class. Following that conception, the mental aspects embodied in teacher cognitions seem to be substantially overlooked. However, as this study, as well as the many others reviewed in Chapter 2 have shown, language teacher cognitions are crucial driving forces for pedagogical decisions, classroom tasks, and teachers' responses to contextual imperatives. Importantly, it is essential that teachers are adequately assisted in recognising the fundamental roles of their own thinking and how it relates to their actions, mediated by classroom and other sociocultural circumstances so that, as practitioners, they can become agentive in bringing theory and practice together, for instance by encouraging them to engage in reflective teaching (Farrell, 2015a; Farrell & Bennis, 2013; J. C. Richards & Lockhart, 1996). Consequently, teachers can come to appropriate and make sense of their own understandings in order to decide what they believe is best for their students. As far as classroom pedagogy is concerned, therefore, teachers need to make explicit their own thinking and beliefs and consider how such cognitive systems interact with their practice.

Second, while cognitions provide crucial bases on which teachers act in the classroom, how instructional actions can take shape depends largely on the classroom situations or imperatives. This study found that, due to contextual situations, teachers sometimes made decisions against their own beliefs for the benefit of their students. For instance, ET03 provided a striking example of how a teacher went about using L1 translation to teach vocabulary, even though it was a teaching strategy he condemned, because he believed it did more good than harm to his students at that point in time. In this regard, teachers evaluate their circumstances in relation to what they consider conducive to certain teaching operations. Therefore, teachers can benefit from institutional support as well as practical knowledge as to how they can become aware of such imperatives and, more importantly, be able to respond to them positively. In other words, they need tools to be active and agentive, both cognitively and physically, so that they can make sense of their teaching situations and act upon them for the benefits of their students. A practical suggestion as to how teachers can do so may, thus, be useful. Following Golombek and Johnson (2004), teachers can create 'mediational space', using narrative writing or verbal descriptions as a form of reflection through which they can make explicit their thinking and doing and find (inherent) dissonances or contradictions between them, thus making sense of their own practice. This kind of reflection can lead to the development of conceptual tools, which subsequently

can be used to guide teachers' classroom practices (Farrell, 2004, 2007). Teacher interactions or dialogues are also key mediators in bringing about teachers' conscious reflection (Burns, in preparation; Golombek & Johnson, 2004), thus capitalising on the collective or interpersonal aspect of LTC and practice. This study showed that during their interviews, the teachers made sense of and rationalised their own thinking and practice by talking to the interviewer and indicated that they themselves became more aware of the interrelationships between thinking and doing. It is through the process of conscious reflection on thinking and doing that human 'higher mental functions' are developed (Vygotsky, 1978; Wertsch, 1985).

However, how teachers can respond to classroom imperatives also depends on their knowledge about the subject-matter, an issue I discuss next. This study showed that as NNES, these Cambodian teachers (reported to have) faced challenges in teaching vocabulary, for example how to teach polysemous lexical items and MWUs such as idioms and phrasal verbs, because they believed that their lexicon was limited. Consequently, in order to enhance instructional practice, NNES teachers such as those who participated in this study—especially the experienced teachers whose subject-matter knowledge appeared to become less and less relevant in their teaching—need to continue to improve their own vocabulary knowledge, as well as their language proficiency in general. With broad vocabulary knowledge, teachers are placed in a better position to teach and to respond to challenging issues such as those mentioned above (cf., Andrews, 2007; McNeill, 2005). Not only would high language ability allow teachers to act meaningfully during their teaching actions (van Essen, 1997) but, with broad knowledge about language, teachers' professional identities are also likely to be shaped (Morton & Gray, 2010). High language ability can increase teachers' self-confidence in teaching and working as professionals, as ET01 seemed to have experienced, for instance.

The final implication for classroom pedagogy relates to the practice of vocabulary instruction and testing/assessment, and specifically how productive vocabulary knowledge can be realised in teaching and testing. This study found that the in-services were not able to enact students' productive vocabulary knowledge meaningfully in their vocabulary teaching and assessment. Constraining factors, such as lack of sufficient time for teaching, marking tests of productive vocabulary knowledge, and the (perceived) institutional culture that focused heavily on receptive vocabulary knowledge, impacted on their practice. However, since receptive vocabulary knowledge may not easily be transformed into productive

vocabulary knowledge in the process of learning (Nation, 2013; cf., Schmitt, 2000), it is important that the latter be dealt with explicitly in the classroom. Therefore, the institution could consider encouraging teachers to use tests such as Laufer and Nation's (1999) productive vocabulary knowledge test in their testing schemes and/ or teaching practice[21]. Another suggestion for measuring productive vocabulary knowledge is analysing students' written compositions (Nation, 2013). Such measures call for institutional support, for example, allocating sufficient classroom and marking time and encouraging teachers to focus on productive vocabulary knowledge.

This section has discussed implications of the study for classroom pedagogy and has suggested how the practice of vocabulary instruction and testing/assessment could be enhanced. A further implication is that of teacher education which could improve this important domain of language in the present context.

10.2.2 Implications for Teacher Education

The implications for teacher education can be considered first in relation to the pre-services and then to the in-services. While the former comprises teacher preparation and the teaching practicum (i.e., the pre-service context), the latter deals with continuing teacher professional and personal development programs that offer on-going support for in-service teachers (i.e., the in-service context) (J. C. Richards, 2008)[22]. In the pre-service context, the implications outlined in sub-section 10.2.1 above can also be made part of the curricula of teacher preparation programs. For example, pre-service teachers can be presented with theories and research of vocabulary instruction, and asked to evaluate their applicability under certain classroom circumstances. This kind of discussion again brings about the 'point of contact' between theory and, in this case, 'imagined' practice mediated by teachers' LTC. Such discussion is likely to give rise to reflective skills on the part of the pre-services, skills that are plausibly transferrable into their future practice when they embark on their actual teaching careers. As reported in Borg (2005a) on the teaching of grammar, his teacher participant's prior beliefs about using a didactic approach were reinforced after her training program. Similarly, the pre-

[21] The test uses a gap-filling format that leaves the gaps with only the first letters of the targeted vocabulary items for students to complete.

[22] cf., Tarone and Allwright (2005) for their distinction between teacher training, teacher education and teacher development. See also, J. C. Richards and Farrell (2005).

services in Busch (2010) were reported to have misconceptions about language learning which were changed as a result of a course in their training program. In both studies, the pre-services' prior beliefs about language teaching and learning were first explored and then re-examined at the end of the training program, indicating how teachers' beliefs were brought into contact with the program contents (i.e., theoretical knowledge about the subject-matter).

However, the present findings emphasise how the context of the practicum and the contextual situations for teacher development or learning could impact LTC and practice and, consequently, the process of teacher learning. They imply that building social relations between and among key actors in the activity system—for example, the pre-services, their practicum students, fellow teacher-trainees, mentors and supervisors involved in the teaching of English for practicum purposes —is vital in constructing participants' sense- or meaning-making (Douglas, 2010; Smagorinsky, 2010). The process of teacher learning could, thus, be considered in terms of dynamic sets of social relationships: teacher-student, teacher-colleague and teacher-institution relations, shaping and being shaped by the context of the ELT activity system in which teachers are active agents. Considering teacher education in this way places the practice of teacher education, and thus teaching and learning, in situ. As K. E. Johnson (2009, p. 115) puts it:

> 'Located' L2 teacher education begins by recognizing why L2 teachers do what they do in the social, historical, and cultural contexts in which they work. It continues to co-construct with L2 teachers locally appropriate responses to their professional development needs.

This situated approach to teacher education leads to the question of what kind of professional development might best serve teachers in developing locally appropriate approaches to vocabulary instruction, as well as to language teaching more generally. The study highlights that, the primary need for pre-service teachers is to conduct a meaningful practicum that goes beyond "expertise in lesson planning" (A. Edwards, 2010, p. 70). To that end they could benefit from a focus on two major areas: their relationships with the students and their communication with their practicum supervisors and mentors. As discussed in Section 9.2, it is important for new teachers to negotiate and navigate their ways into the community of teaching practice, and to be assisted to do so. For instance, pre-services need to (be allowed to) immerse themselves in the classroom with the students they are to teach. This immersion will enable them to observe and

understand, for example, students' vocabulary learning preferences or their attitudes or motivation to learning this particular language area. Moreover, what can also be done to enhance the practicum experience for pre-service teachers is to establish open, triadic discussions between pre-services, their practicum supervisors and mentors. This kind of interaction potentially reconciles contradictory views about language teaching, such as those experienced by the pre-services in this study. Both classroom immersive observations and open triadic discussions during the practicum period are modes of negotiation and navigation that enable 'teacher learning' within locally relevant conditions.

On the other hand, the professional development needs of the in-service teachers are likely to be more complex and personal, since they are operating beyond the level of initiation into the profession. While they still need to focus on establishing and maintaining their relationships with students, the novices especially, as seen in this study, need institutional support to "engage [themselves] in and with the wider professional discourses and practices that are evolving beyond their localities as a means to critique their local knowledge and their local context" (K. E. Johnson, 2009, p. 115). Practising teachers such as ET01 and ET02, who are vocal in their request for such support, are among those who would benefit. When institutional support is available for teachers, the institution not only helps retain experienced teachers but also continues to assist them to grow professionally, rendering the institution itself an accountable educational entity for teachers. As this study has shown, an area that is criticised by the teachers is the limited realisation of productive vocabulary knowledge among the students, both in instructional and testing practices. This problem does not relate to the teachers' knowledge about this area; rather, it raises the issue of local circumstances that prevent productive vocabulary teaching and testing from being enacted. In the present study's context, as briefly pointed out in the preceding section, time was crucial for the enactment of production-based vocabulary instruction and testing, a contextual constraint regulated by the institution. This is a problem that needs to be brought to the attention of and, more importantly, to be recognised and dealt with by decision-makers at the institutional level, thus acknowledging teacher-institution relations.

As has been argued particularly in the preceding chapter, teachers learn by participating in their communities of practice. Teacher-institution relations, as well as teacher-student and teacher-colleague relations (see Figure 9.1 for the interacting spheres of these relationships), are in themselves communities from

which the teachers can learn professionally. The teachers in this study, especially the in-services, expressed their keen willingness to participate, to contribute to and learn from discussions and collaborations with colleagues and from meetings with the directors of their department. Therefore, at the institutional level, meetings that support and encourage teachers' contributions and that seek solutions to problems brought forward by teachers (e.g., vocabulary instructional and testing issues) should be regularly conducted. Through these regular meetings, the dynamic set of relations visualised in Figure 9.1 could be realised, and consequently the ELT activity system would be transformed in the local context. However, the activity also needs to respond to wider professional discourses, which can be realised by extending teachers' participation beyond professional (collegial) interactions.

A key to teacher learning that could respond to the wider professional discourse is to engage them in appropriate teacher education. One way to realise this need might be through 'teacher research', a professional activity that has been receiving increased attention from teacher education researchers. Lytle and Cochran-Smith (1993) refer to 'teacher research' as a 'way of knowing'. It foregrounds the role of the teachers themselves as researchers, or as active participants in the community of practice, so that the teachers are "among those who have the authority to know" about teaching, learning and schooling. As they argue, "we need to develop a different theory of knowledge for teaching, a different epistemology that regards inquiry by teachers themselves as a distinctive and important way of knowing about teaching" (Lytle & Cochran-Smith, 1993, p. 43). Through research done by themselves, teachers make contact with theories and previous research on topics they are pursuing, thus becoming part of a wider professional discourse.

As part of this movement, reflective practice (e.g., Farrell, 2004, 2007, 2015a), narrative inquiry (Barkhuizen, Benson, & Chik, 2014; Golombek & Johnson, 2004), action research (Burns, 1999, 2010) and exploratory practice (Allwright, 2003, 2005; Allwright & Hanks, 2009; Hanks, 2009, 2015) have been making valuable contributions to the field of (L2) teacher education. Narrative inquiry, as outlined by Golombek and Johnson (2004), allows teachers to reflect on their cognitions and emotions and at the same time mediates their reconstruction of knowledge and thinking. Action research, likewise, is a form of practice that engages teachers in research, and supports their fuller participation in their local community of practice. It has also been found to contribute substantially to continuing

professional development (E. Edwards & Burns, 2016), for which the teachers in this study especially ET01 express a strong desire. In a similar vein, exploratory practice as an approach to (inclusive) practitioner research means more than just allowing teachers to address their practical classroom issues; more importantly it also brings together acts of teaching, learning and research geared towards 'quality of life' and 'understanding' in the classroom and beyond (Allwright, 2003; Hanks, 2009, 2015). Collegial collaboration (e.g., Allwright, 2001; Burns, 1996; Hanks, 2009) is highly relevant to the professional sphere for learning put forward in this study. For instance, by working together to gain deep understanding about instructional issues, for example whether or not to pre-teach certain vocabulary before reading or listening comprehension tasks, how best vocabulary items can be presented and practised in context, how autonomous vocabulary learning among the students can best be promoted, or how to motivate the students to learn vocabulary—common issues reported in this study—teachers move towards establishing their professional identity within the community of their practice. These various forms of teacher research mentioned here provide platforms for teachers not only to critically investigate instructional issues in their local contexts but also participate more fully in the wider research discourse of the English language teaching field (see also Tavakoli, 2015). However, it is worth stressing again that institutional support is crucially important to ensure such opportunities and to assist pre-services and in-services to grow both professionally and personally.

To summarise this section, the institution can create a teacher preparation program whose curriculum incorporates reflective discussions. Such discussions could focus on areas such as realising in practice the teaching and testing of productive vocabulary knowledge and arranging practicum components in such a way that allows pre-service teachers to immerse themselves in the class they are to teach and that permits open, triadic discussions between the pre-services, their supervisors and mentors. This latter relation can help minimise the gap in conceptions of what is acceptable teaching between members of the practice community. Moreover, the institution can also create systematic opportunities for in-service teachers to continually renew their "professional skills and knowledge [... to respond] to the fact that not everything teachers need to know can be provided at preservice level, as well as the fact that the knowledge base of teaching constantly changes" (J. C. Richards & Farrell, 2005, p. 1).

10.2.3 Implications for LTC Research from CHAT Perspectives

The use of a CHAT perspective in this study aimed to contribute to the growing call in LTC research for broader methodological approaches, where teacher cognition can be studied in a more holistic fashion. Such approaches would aim to move LTC research beyond the mainstream of this field which has generally explored the relationships between teachers' beliefs and classroom practices or 'praxis' (Burns et al., 2015). A CHAT theoretical approach to studying LTC as a social phenomenon links with recent shifts, towards a 'social turn' within the field of language teacher education (Burns & Richards, 2009; K. E. Johnson, 2006) as well as within applied linguistics itself (Block, 2003; Kubanyiova & Feryok, 2015; Lantolf, 2000; Lantolf & Poehner, 2014). LTC approached from within CHAT frameworks, such as the one adopted in this study, can therefore be envisaged as a network of constructs whose emergence is enabled through a grounded approach to data analysis. Moreover, these constructs can be shown to have salience at different points in the analysis. In other words, constructs such as teacher knowledge tend to be most relevantly related to the process of teaching, while constructs such as teacher identity, agency and emotion appear to emerge most prominently in the process of sense-making, which illuminates teacher learning trajectories in the community of their practice. In the latter case, a CHAT approach to LTC leads to a reconceptualization of the notion of 'learning' (be it teacher learning or student learning as viewed from sociocultural perspectives more generally)[23], shifting the epistemological view from a transmissive notion of education to an ecological or transformative approach to learning (Burns, forthcoming; Kiely & Davis, 2010). While transmission emphasises causal relations, as seems to have been at the base of much earlier LTC research, the latter foregrounds the complex interrelationships between learning and teaching. This is a form of reconceptualization also put forward in Freeman and Johnson (1998) and, more recently, in Freeman (2016).

Despite the availability of various forms of CHAT frameworks (Daniels, 2008), the CHAT approach to LTC adopted in this study affords researchers with theoretical underpinnings that differentiate key concepts such as 'activity', 'action' and 'operation' (Leont'ev, 1978, 1981). These essential differentiations underpin the theoretical foundations of CHAT perspectives (Roth & Lee, 2007) and serve to help

[23] Research on L2 learning conducted from sociocultural perspectives, the same theoretical underpinnings adopted in CHAT frameworks, has been greatly influenced by the works of Lantolf and his colleagues (Lantolf, 2000; Lantolf & Appel, 1994; Lantolf & Poehner, 2014; Lantolf & Thorne, 2006).

researchers make sense of their data and data analysis. Used in combination with the activity systems analysis model (Engeström, 1987), CHAT perspectives can map complex, social phenomena such as LTC, and language teaching more generally. Thus, to a certain extent, they help resolve analytical dilemmas (Yamagata-Lynch, 2007, 2010). These theoretical concepts are conceptual tools that researchers can find useful in their investigations of teachers' actions (both mental and physical) and operations, and the relationships between teacher belief, knowledge, thinking, identity, agency, emotion, or other teacher mental 'lives'—which collectively can be referred to as language teacher cognitions—and the contexts in which they occur.

Moreover, the adoption of a CHAT approach to LTC requires researchers to shift their research lens from simply exploring teachers' beliefs and a series of their decision-making processes to understanding more deeply how the teaching operations are interconnected with broader (sociocultural) spheres for learning, such as the pedagogical core, and the professional/collegial, and institutional spheres illustrated in Figure 9.1. The ultimate aim of an LTC investigation, therefore, should seek to uncover particular sociocultural circumstances, such as how practicum students make sense of their activity of teaching, how their social relationships with students and mentors are realised, and how in-services participate in their community of practice. These dimensions are likely to permeate or, otherwise, prevent certain teaching operations and teacher learning opportunities from being engendered. Research findings in LTC studies should thus aim to reveal cognitions in action.

Finally, the present study set out to investigate language teachers and their vocabulary teaching. Drawing on a CHAT framework that grounds the analysis in actual practices, potentially the study might contribute to the much-needed development of a theory of language teaching that emerges from teachers and teaching. Larsen-Freeman (1990) urges that a theory of language teaching is needed in the field of English language teaching that considers the interdependence of practice, research, and theory. While research on second language acquisition (SLA) and instructed SLA, that has predominated in the field of language teaching, has contributed many empirical insights, it cannot, as argued by Larsen-Freeman (1990, p. 262), be assumed that "a theory emanating from SLA research could apply directly to the second language classroom". As pointed out in the preceding sections, teachers are active agents who bring about the 'point of contact' between theory and practice, and such contact in turn should inform theory. For instance, if SLA theory claims that L1 translation is not useful for language

instruction (cf., Cook, 2010), but teachers find it to be otherwise, given their particular circumstances, that theory needs revising. In this respect, there has been growing recognition of the (scaffolding) role of L1 in L2 learning, especially in instructed settings (Bhooth, Azman, & Ismail, 2014; Nation, 2003). However, it should be clear from this study that it is not the use of L1 itself that matters; it is 'how' teachers, especially NNES teachers who share the same L1 with their students, make sense of their practice and how they use this linguistic resource to assist them in realising vocabulary instruction that is more salient. The import of these arguments is that theories of language teaching need to become less prescriptive and more descriptive, incorporating what is known about teachers' agentive roles in the activity of teaching. The ultimate goals of such theories are to comprehend "how and why classroom interactions or features contribute to learning opportunities" (Larsen-Freeman, 1990, p. 263).

10.3 LIMITATIONS OF THE PRESENT STUDY

The discussion above about the implications of the study need to be followed by consideration of its limitations. There are two key limitations inherent in the investigation that need to be particularly highlighted: (1) a small number of cases in a specific research site; and (2) methodological approaches.

First, as a case study of nine teachers from a single university, this investigation is unable to claim broad generalisability. In this regard, the insights discussed can be said to reveal only the specific practices of a small number of teachers. They cannot claim to be representative of other Cambodian teachers, even though they may be illustrative of how teachers think and act in a Cambodian context. However, as stated in the introduction chapter and argued in Chapter 3, the present investigation is located within a qualitative research paradigm, focusing on the particularities (as opposed to the generalisability) of the cases involved. Therefore, it pursued the aim of 'contextualisation', and focused on providing rich and thick descriptions of the cases and the research site studied (Duff, 2008; Merriam, 1988; Yin, 2009). The aim was to offer situated findings which could be 'related' to other similar contexts in Cambodia, as well as in other countries. This kind of relatedness has been referred to as 'transferability' (Saldaña, 2011) and 'fuzzy generalisation' which may have relevance for a professional field such as (language) teaching (Bassey, 1999).

The second limitation relates to methodological approaches and data collection strategies. This qualitative case study approach relied on interviews,

observations, and written documents (such as teachers' lesson plans, worksheets and test papers) over a short period of six months. A longitudinal study that also employed other data collection methods such as stimulated recall interviews, written narratives and auto-ethnographies may have been able to provide deeper and richer findings about the complex nature of LTC in this particular research context.

Taking into account both the implications and the limitations of the present study outlined here, in the following section I propose an agenda for future LTC research.

10.4 FUTURE LTC RESEARCH

The present study set out to investigate LTC among a group of Cambodian teachers of English in a specific context. Its findings suggest a number of areas that may be valuable for future research related to this topic and context, including aspects of LTC, contextual locations in Cambodia and beyond, and the methodological design of LTC research. I propose them below as an agenda for further empirical investigation.

As mentioned, future research can consider involving more than one research site and a large population of teachers to complement the current research from quantitative perspectives. The present study is situated within a context of higher education. It would be valuable for the development of Cambodian ELT more generally for similar research to be conducted in other educational sectors such as secondary (public and/or private) contexts in urban as well as in rural areas. Expanding the scope of LTC research in the Cambodian context would serve to build on the findings of this study. For example, it would be useful to identify what practices teachers in the public school system embody and how teaching actions are related to their cognitions under the circumstances of their work. Findings from LTC research that involves different Cambodian school contexts may illuminate key sociocultural situations that teachers in general need to negotiate in their ELT work, thus providing policy-makers with timely information about needs and recommendations for both student learning and teacher learning.

To accommodate a large research population, future LTC studies could incorporate multiple methodological approaches and strategies. The current research adopted a qualitative case study approach, but further LTC research could also employ surveys, which would allow for the views of more participants, and then follow up with in-depth case studies, which could include other methodological

approaches. Such case studies could incorporate a stimulated recall procedure to gain deeper insights into teachers' cognitive systems, that is "what the participant had been thinking at that particular point in time" which reflects their "interpretations of the events that were observed" (Mackey & Gass, 2005, p. 203). Another methodological approach could be narrative histories through written diaries, for instance, to elicit accounts of teacher cognitions about particular language areas or pedagogical decisions (Barkhuizen et al., 2014). Finally, future LTC research may also adopt an ethnographic approach, investigating for example teacher development circles to trace change or development in teachers' cognitions and actions and to capture multiple salient social events that shape such development (Angrosino, 2007; Watson-Gegeo, 1988). The latter approach might be an informative way to understand changes in teachers' circumstances that prevent them from enacting their thinking and beliefs. All the methodological approaches mentioned here can also be employed in a longitudinal research design which would have even greater potential to reveal the complex nature of LTC.

In addition to these methodological considerations, future LTC research can also consider three aspects of the findings from the present study which can inform the practice of vocabulary instruction in a language curriculum (Nation, 2013; Nation & Macalister, 2010). These aspects are the notion of vocabulary in context, productive vocabulary knowledge, and the role of learner autonomy in vocabulary learning. Since they were emerging concepts in this study, they were not as extensively explored as other key findings outlined earlier. However, future research could directly examine how these various aspects, which the present teachers all believed played a key role in the process of vocabulary learning and teaching, are conceptualised and enacted by other teachers from various sociocultural contexts (higher educational institutions, secondary and/or primary schools). Findings for these areas would shed more light on the nature and processes of vocabulary instruction in a language curriculum. Moreover, other language areas such as vocabulary instruction in reading, writing, speaking and listening should be investigated, both in the Cambodian context, as well as in other similar contexts in South-East Asia, so that a fuller understanding about English language teaching as an activity system can be obtained.

The final issue I would advocate as part of an agenda for future LTC research is the relationship between LTC, teaching, and student learning. Although it has been explicitly pointed out that such causality is not espoused by the CHAT perspective adopted in the present study, this relationship can be said to be a

thorny issue in L2 teacher education research as well as in applied linguistics more generally. As commented by Freeman and Johnson (2005, p. 74), it is "arguably the most fundamental relationship in education". Freeman and Johnson have reconceptualised this relationship between teaching and learning as "a 'relationship of influence' between teacher learning and student learning", since "professional learning influences [teachers'] teaching and in turn, how that teaching influences their students' learning" (Freeman & Johnson, 2005, pp. 74-79, emphasis original). However, as Kubanyiova and Feryok (2015) argue, researchers continue to stress that causality remains an issue that needs to be addressed in LTC research. For this reason, they seek alternative research approaches at various levels. For instance, a possible alternative, they argue, at the conceptual level, is the concept of 'intentionality' that LTC researchers can use to explain the relationships between teacher cognition, emotion and motivation, and students' learning. More specifically, as seen from the classroom practice perspective, when teachers' intentions are to act for the benefits of their students, such intentions can "make a difference in the learning and lives of their students" (Kubanyiova & Feryok, 2015, p. 440), just as all the teachers in this study attributed their decisions to act (even mentally) towards the benefits for their students' learning. In addition to using 'intentionality' as a conceptual underpinning, I would propose that future LTC researchers working within a CHAT approach could consider treating teachers and students as collective participants in an activity system. By doing so, both teachers and students are seen as primary initiators of the activity under study, and thus teaching and learning are investigated as a holistic process.

10.5 CONCLUDING REMARKS

Essentially, LTC research allows teachers and teaching to be foregrounded in the field of English language teaching: it highlights the important point that they are or should be active, decision-making participants in a community of teaching practice. As argued in this study, they are the key point of contact between the theories that have been built to inform the language teaching field and the practices of the classroom. While practice is grounded in and reflected through teachers' language learning experiences and 'everyday concepts' about teaching, theory represents the knowledge base of the wider profession of teaching, akin to the 'scientific concepts' in the Vygotskian thesis on the development of human cognition. Bringing practice and theory into contact realises the dialectical relationship between 'everyday concepts' and 'scientific concepts', and provides greater understanding

of how it leads to the development of teachers' cognitions. However, as this study has shown, teachers' operations at the classroom level (Chapters 5, 6 and 7) and teachers' (mental) actions at broader levels such as professional/collegial and institutional spheres (Chapters 8 and 9) all rest on the conditions or circumstances afforded to the teachers to realise the relationship between practice and theory. It is the broader social circumstances and conditions of teaching and thinking that I argue to be the ultimate object of LTC research. Discovering more about these social conditions illuminates the process of teacher learning in relation to professional communities of practice. More specifically, researchers and teacher educators have the responsibility to make known these influential circumstances to the teachers, institutions, and policy-makers concerned who need to understand and better them so as to avoid making teachers, and by extension students, victims of circumstances.

It follows, therefore, that accountable educational entities such as institutions and policy formulating organisations need to provide teachers at various stages of their careers with adequate support and appropriate means, so that the latter can meaningfully embody their personal, practical, and/or theoretical thinking about teaching and learning in ways that are geared towards enhancing students' learning experiences. Since teachers can be considered as active agents in the activity of their personal and professional lives (i.e., teaching), as has been shown in this study, institutional superintendents, curriculum developers and policy-makers need to hear from teachers. More importantly, if these individuals in 'power' take the responsibility to tackle teachers' concerns and needs, not only can teachers' desired personal and professional development be brought about, which may positively influence students' learning experience, but the whole activity of teaching will be more likely to be shaped into a meaningful 'unit of life'.

Finally, on a note of personal reflection on conducting this study, I have come to appreciate the importance of LTC research in allowing practitioners' voices to be heard. Having investigated this topic, I realise that teachers have much to say about their work and themselves; what they need is someone to talk to, someone with whom to discuss their most important thoughts and actions, be they pedagogical, personal or professional. I have been fortunate to be able to listen to and learn about the significant life events of the participating teachers who generously agreed to be part of my research, events that are highly relatable to mine. They represent the situated knowledge, or cognitions, that deserve to be

disseminated to a wider audience so that a fuller understanding about teaching and teacher learning and development can be obtained.

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APPENDICES

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Appendix 1 Participant Information Statement and Consent Form

Approval No. 13 002/13 002 EXT

THE UNIVERSITY OF NEW SOUTH WALES AND THE ROYAL UNIVERSITY OF PHNOM PENH

PARTICIPANT INFORMATION STATEMENT AND CONSENT FORM

Language Teacher Cognition and Vocabulary Teaching Case Studies of Non-Native English Speaking Teachers

You are invited to participate in a study of language teacher cognition that seeks to study teachers' thinking, beliefs and knowledge as they go about teaching. I hope to learn about how teacher's cognitions play a role in classroom teaching in order to capture fuller picture of the teaching and learning process in EFL contexts in which English is taught by Cambodian teachers. You were selected as a possible participant in this study because of your experiences and qualifications in teaching English in your present context – which matches the purpose of this study.

If you decide to participate, I will interview you on several occasions where the interviews will be audio- recorded for transcription purposes only with your consent. The first interview aims to gather factual and background information about you and your teaching while the second one is to explore your beliefs and thoughts about teaching English. I will also observe some of your teachings on a daily basis and audio-record those teachings as part of my research data collection. These observations will allow me to record your ways of teaching English as a foreign language to your undergraduate students. There will be between 4 and 6 observations over a period of three months. The date and time for the observations to be conducted will be determined on the basis of your convenience.

Each observation which will last for an entire teaching session (i.e., approx. 75 minutes) could be distracting to you and your students. However, I assure you that I will try my best to be as passive as possible during my observations.

I cannot and do not guarantee or promise that you will receive any benefits from this study.

Any information that is obtained in connection with this study and that can be identified with you will remain confidential and will be disclosed only with your permission, except as required by law. If you give us your permission by signing this document, I plan to discuss, publish and present the results of this study in conferences, journal articles, book sections and my PhD thesis. The information of this study will be furnished for other EFL teachers and researchers vis-à-vis language teacher cognition research. In any publication, information will be provided in such a way that you cannot be identified.

To acknowledge your valuable contributions to this study through your participation, you will be given a book voucher worth 50$ as a token.

Ethical complaints may be directed to the Ethics Secretariat, The University of New South Wales, SYDNEY 2052 AUSTRALIA (phone 9385 4234, fax 9385 6648, email ethics.sec@unsw.edu.au). Any complaint you make will be investigated promptly and you will be informed about the outcome.

If you require a summary of research findings, please tick a box showing your request and provide your email address below. The summary of the findings will be sent to you through your email.

c I do not require a summary of the research findings.
c I require a summary of the research findings.

Please send the findings to _____

Your decision whether or not to participate will not prejudice your future relations with the University of New South Wales and the Department of English of the Royal University of Phnom Penh. If you decide to participate, you are free to withdraw your consent and to discontinue participation at any time without prejudice.

If you have any questions, please feel free to ask us. If you have any additional questions later, we will be happy to answer them. My email is sovannarith.lim@student.unsw.edu.au and my mobile phone numbers: in Australia, +6149816928 and in Cambodia, +85512661431. My thesis is being supervised by Professor Anne Burns, who can also answer your questions and can be reached at anne.burns@unsw.edu.au or +612 9385 1983.

You will be given a copy of this form to keep.

THE UNIVERSITY OF NEW SOUTH WALES AND THE ROYAL UNIVERSITY OF PHNOM PENH

PARTICIPANT INFORMATION STATEMENT AND CONSENT FORM (continued)

Language Teacher Cognition and
Vocabulary Teaching Case Studies of
Non-Native English Speaking Teachers

You are making a decision whether or not to participate. Your signature indicates that, having read the information provided above, you have decided to participate. Please tick in the boxes below to indicate your consent.

- ☐ I agree to be interviewed.
- ☐ I agree that the interviews can be audio-recorded.
- ☐ I agree that my teachings can be audio-recorded.

.....	.....
Signature of Research Participant	Signature of Witness
.....	.....
(Please PRINT name)	(Please PRINT name)
.....	.....
Date	Nature of Witness

REVOCATION OF CONSENT

Language Teacher Cognition and
Vocabulary Teaching Case Studies of
Non-Native English Speaking Teachers

I hereby wish to WITHDRAW my consent to participate in the research proposal described above and understand that such withdrawal WILL NOT jeopardise any treatment or my relationship with The University of New South Wales or the Department of English of the Royal University of Phnom Penh.

....

Signature Date

.....

Please PRINT Name

The section for Revocation of Consent should be forwarded to Mr Sovannarith Lim at either one of the following addresses:

Address in Cambodia

Federation Boulevard, Tuol Kork
P.O. Box 416, Phnom Penh, Cambodia

Address in Australia

45 Boundary Lane,
Cabramatta, NSW
2166, Australia

OR email him at
sovannarith.lim@student.unsw.edu.au
lim.sovannarith@icloud.com
limrith@gmail.com

Appendix 2 A Sample of (Revised) Interview Guides

NB: Questions in square brackets are intended for the pre-services.

1. Could you first start by telling me about you? Where are you from? How do you come to be a teacher of English? [How do you come to be a teacher-trainee?]

2. (If not elicited by the preceding question) Can you tell me about your history of learning English?

3. What are the main reasons for you to become a teacher of English? [Why do you want to become a teacher of English?]

4. How long have you been teaching English? [Have you taught English before?]

   Probe: What courses have you taught before? And what courses are you teaching at the moment? Could you briefly describe the major focus of each course you are handling?

5. Have you ever attended any professional development program, e.g., conference events or workshops relevant to your field? If so, what did you gain from such programs?

   Probe: If not, do you intend to participate in any professional development program? And what do you expect to gain from such a program?

6. What professional training have you so far received? What is your highest qualification in the field of English teaching?

   Probes: Where did the training take place? For how long did it take? What courses did you take for the completion of that training?

7. Could you talk me through how your experience has contributed to the development of your teaching career?

8. Can you describe the kind of school in which you are working now? [Can you describe the kind of school where you conducted your practicum?]

   Probe: How much freedom is given to you by the school board to decide on the curriculum/syllabus of the course you are handling?
   Probe: What is your view about teachers being allowed to decide on the curriculum?

9. Is there any school policy to teach vocabulary? Are you constrained by such a policy, if any?

10. It is my knowledge that you hold occasional meetings among other teachers who handle the same course. Do you have any opportunity to talk about teaching issues and teaching vocabulary, in particular?

    Probe: How does the outcome of the meetings affect your way of teaching vocabulary?

Probe: Do you always agree with the outcome of the meetings? If not, what have you done in response?

11. What material do you currently use to teach vocabulary?

    Probe: What is your view about the usefulness of that material in teaching vocabulary?
    Probe: Have you designed your own material to teach vocabulary? Could you describe how you go about doing that?

12. Could you describe to me the type of learners you're presently dealing with?

Appendix 3 A Sample of Classroom Observation Notes

Date: Duration: Lesson/Book: Class:

FOCUS	DESCRIPTION	COMMENT
Grammar	The teacher arrived in the class at 17:32 (local time) and after a brief introduction of my presence and the purpose of my observation, he started checking the students' attendance. Only 15 students were in the class, sitting horse-shoe format. 15 minutes later, the number of students became 24. The classroom itself is rather big (8x5m) and is about 4 metre high. The room is equipped with four ceiling fans; there is no air-conditioner. The temperature inside was 34° Celsius. It was very hot and sweating. The teacher began by reminding the students of what they were supposed to study today. Then he moved on to check students' homework (Review of Unit 7). The first section of the homework dealt with vocabulary (choosing from the list to fill in the sentence gap). Words may have to change their forms appropriately. T focuses on the following when checking students' answers on vocabulary: - Spelling - Forms of words (e.g. sound vs. sounds; weep vs. weeping) - English variety (American and British English, i.e., nappy and diaper) - The meaning of each word - Word pattern/structure (e.g. to do justice to somebody = to do somebody justice) - Grammatical tenses - Memory (i.e., reminding the students of the importance of remembering the words in the exercise) This part of the activity ended at 17:52. T moved on to the next sub-section of vocabulary. This time, it's passage completion with multiple-options provided. Options include verbs and prepositions. T focuses on the followings: - Word form (base form of verb or infinitive form vs. Gerund form) - Collocations or verb argument structure (i.e., to compel someone to do something) This part of the activity ended at 18:02. The teacher then moved on to the next section dealing with grammar. In checking students' answers on these grammar-based multiple-choice exercises, the teacher focuses on: - Possibility and probability (could have been vs. would have been) - Modal verbs (should, would, might, can't etc.)	Some students were conscious of my presence. They glanced at me once in a while, probably to check what I was doing there. The teacher appeared so comfortable with my presence, however.

	This part ended at 18:12 after the teacher answered two questions from the students concerning the correct answer choice. Then the class moved to focus on part B, completing sentences using proper verbal phrases (e.g., can't have, may have, must have, etc.). The focus was the same as that of the previous part – the teacher explained the usage of various modal verbs/verbal phrases. It then ended at 18:18. The next exercise was again on the usage of modal verbs. Students filled in the gap in each sentence preceded by a clue sentence, with a modal verb provided in brackets. The focus still was on the usage of the various modals, e.g., "We use might have with a past participle, to express the possibility of something happening in the past but it did not really happen" T1:18:20.	
	This grammar section ended at 18:24. The class moved to the third section – Reading comprehension. Students answered comprehension questions designed in a multiple-choice format, found at the end of a reading passage. The checking of homework finished at 18:30. The teacher wrapped up what had been covered before he moved on to a new language point – unreal past tense. The teacher began with a few sentences on the board: - it is time we had a break - I wish I had money - If I were you, I would call her He highlighted the verbs that express unreal past tense and started explaining what they mean, how they are used and what their usages are. He advised the students to remember all structures expressing unreal past tense available in the handout he had provided to his students. One structure is: Subject + wishes + object + noun. He continued putting up other structures one by one on the whiteboard, with each one to be followed by his comprehensive explanations of the usage that structure. The teacher occasionally used Khmer to explain this language point. The students show interests in translation method.	

Appendix 4 A Sample of Recall Interviews

Interviewer
01:05:48.62
So I'm very interested in this part where you asked your students to discuss the quotes.

NT02
01:05:53.61
So, first I asked them to discuss the people=

Interviewer
01:05:55.22
=Yeah the people and then the quotes. I was wondering, because uh it seems that there were some words, actually not just the words that you wrote on the board, and you did not pre-teach these words=

NT02
01:06:06.04
=Yeah I did not pre-teach these words.

Interviewer
01:06:08.02
Why did you not do that?

NT02
01:06:11.25
Hmm I think that uh learning through discovery or inductive learning uh is less boring and more effective. Uh for example if I pre-teach the words, then they're words out of context. But, still when I teach them I can put them into context, but then I think I might overwhelm them with many different contexts. I want the contexts to be solely the quote contexts.

Interviewer
01:06:36.89
Don't you think uh without knowing the words they couldn't interpret the quotation properly? Could they be, you know, obstacles for them to=

NT02
01:06:46.78
=That is one obstacle. I think that there are many obstacles for quote interpretation. Number 1 is uh background knowledge. That's why I asked them to discuss and to even check in their smart phones. Context is really important. Number 2 is vocabulary. But uh what I want to do is, you know, have them some=allow them some freedom. Give them some autonomy. I don't think that that they don't know the words, they will struggle to uh interpret the quotes without finding uh=looking up the words in the dictionary. They will look them up. Normally, they will even ask me a lot of questions, but I think because you're here, they ask fewer questions. Normally, they would ask me "Teacher, this vocab, what does it mean? What does that mean?"

Interviewer
01:07:28.03
Oh is this what they usually do? Ok. So, I guess because you want to let them through discovery, you decide to teach the words later?

NT02
01:07:37.88
Ok. Yes. Yes. Later. So, next session, I'll put these words into different contexts. And probably we'll have sentence completion.

Interviewer
01:07:48.33
You decided to write some um phonetic symbol, is it?

NT02
01:07:52.79
No, it's not phonetic symbol. Word=

Interviewer
01:07:54.23
=dictator

NT02
01:07:55.25
Yeah. Dictator. These are synonyms.

Interviewer
01:07:57.27
Ah Ok.

NT02
01:07:58.11
Uh the reason is because I want to draw their attention to the words that they did not know. The problem with these students is that uh I want to allow them freedom. Give them autonomy. Motivate them to learn. But they don't. They will continue and struggle to not understand the words. Ok. And uh the reason why I raise this vocabulary up is because it's related to the homework that I will assign them. And next session we will cover this.

Interviewer
01:08:24.36
Oh. Ok.

NT02
01:08:26.84
And-and my teaching is really dynamic. And you can see that. But somehow it doesn't suit the nature of some of these students. Uh they have a lot of linguistic identity, uh they have low motivation. IFL degree is their second degree. Most of them are working people. You can ask them. Most of them are working people. This guy is a translator. Uh Huong is an accountant. Thay works at the bank. And I think at the beginning of the class I asked them to raise their hand up. I did a hand survey: who wants to become a teacher? Only about four people raised their hands up. We have uh two teachers here. One's a kindergarten teacher. She wants to teach

English. The other one is a pretty advanced [level] teacher. I do study my students. But sometimes no matter what kind of push you give them, it's all about them. The motivation comes from them. I think intrinsic motivation plays the predominant role. When I teach, I do my best. Ok.

Interviewer
01:09:33.86
But I noticed that one of the students asked for the meaning of=

NT02
01:09:38.63
=Quick silver. Yeah. Yeah.

Interviewer
01:09:39.98
And you decided to provide a synonym and translation=

NT02
01:09:43.72
=yeah L1 translation.

Interviewer
01:09:45.29
Why did you decide to do that? What were you thinking when you decided to use synonym and L1 translation?

NT02
01:09:51.58
Yeah, so uh first I would start with a lot of examples, vivid examples that are related to their immediate experience. So, the way I explain things, it's vivid examples related to their experience. A lot of gestures like, you know, "clutch". When you clutch, when you keep it in your hand, liquid, you know, liquid. But sometimes it doesn't work. It doesn't ring a bell, so you have to accompany that with synonym "mercury" and I looked at their facial expressions. Then I decided to yeah [use L1 translation].

Interviewer
01:10:26.15
Just one more point. I did notice that you correct a student's grammatical mistake. A student said "you does nothing" and you correct it to "you don't or you do nothing".

NT02
01:10:41.54
I do recognise that. There are mistakes and errors. But mistakes somehow in the long run can become errors. I think that most of their English is fossilised in different areas whether phonological fossilisation, uh lexical or grammatical, I felt that "you does" it's so bad a mistake. It's so terrible a mistake.

Interviewer
01:11:07.72
Because, you know uh I'm not [challenging. I'm just trying to understand=

NT02
01:11:12.35
=yeah. No, no, no.] Please ask me any question.

Interviewer
01:11:14.92
At the beginning you decide to ignore uh pronunciation error or mistake, but then you decide to correct this one.

NT02
01:11:24.25
Thank you for the question. So, uh at the beginning of the class we had discussion. Right. So discussion or personal experience sharing should be a stress-free, anxiety-free time. It's not learning time. Ok. I consider it a time when you just chitchat or have fun, because with these students, they're not outspoken. They're reserved. So you have to create an environment in which they don't feel the anxiety. I just wanted to elicit as much information as I could, ok, from them about their learning and my teaching. I did the same activity in the morning class. I got twice more information from them because they want to learn so bad. But these people, I guess they care more about the final exams rather than the learning, and a lot of them would say that "oh I want to improve my speaking. Oh I want to improve my reading. I want to improve"=but if you look at their learning attitude, it doesn't suit with their expectations and their goals. I cannot change anyone's attitude. The reason why I don't correct the error then because it was a personal experience sharing. But during class time, especially uh during group discussion, I'd go around. I'd sit together with my students. Sometimes, I listen to them and only when they're done [discussing] will I correct them. But I try to correct them at the minimum level. I don't want to get in the way of their uh=what do I say?=their development. They're not at the point where we should introduce too much error correction.

Interviewer
01:13:05.11
Alright. Thank you very much.

NT02
01:13:06.21
You can ask me any question. Ask me any question.

Appendix 5 Examples of types of records relevant to each participant

PT01 Teaching Writing Skills

	Record Code	Type of Record	Date of collection	Reference Code
1	PT01-R01	Lesson Plan "Unit 6: Cause-Effect Essays"	07/03/14	PT01-R01@07/03/14
2	PT01-R02	Handout "Relationships of Causes and Effects"	07/03/14	PT01-R02@07/03/14
3	PT01-R03	Handout & Worksheet "Connectors and Transitions for Cause-Effect Structures"	07/03/14	PT01-R03@07/03/14
4	PT01-R04	Worksheet "Choosing a Cause-Effect Essay Topic"	07/03/14	PT01-R04@07/03/14
5	PT01-R05	Worksheet "Match the causes and the effects"	07/03/14	PT01-R05@07/03/14
6	PT01-R06	Lesson Plan "Ways of Expressing Past Actions"	15/03/14	PT01-R06@15/03/14
7	PT01-R07	Practicum Journal "Reflective Writing"	25/09/14	PT01-R07@25/09/14

NT01 Teaching Core English 2

	Record code	Type of record	Date of collection	Reference code
1	NT01-R01	Vocabulary worksheet	04/03/14	NT01-R01@04/03/14
2	NT01-R02	Reading Practice – Reading for Details (TOEFL Reading Flash)	04/03/14	NT01-R02@04/03/14
3	NT01-R03	Listening Practice – Listening for Details	07/03/14	NT01-R03@07/03/14
4	NT01-R04	Handout – Expressions with 'get'	07/03/14	NT01-R04@07/03/14
5	NT01-R05	Handout – "Mini Project" to improve and measure students' ability in Oral Presentation Skills	11/03/14	NT01-R05@11/03/14

6	NT01-R06	Handout & Worksheet – Relative Clauses	11/03/14	NT01-R6@11/03/14
7	NT01-R07	Song Lyric (Listening Practice) – Vanilla Twilight	11/03/14	NT01-R07@11/03/14
8	NT01-R08	Course Outline CE202	03/03/14	NT01-R08@03/03/14
9	NT01-R09	Semester 1 Test 1	15/09/15	NT01-R09@15/09/15
10	NT01-R10	Semester 1 Test 2	15/09/15	NT01-R10@15/09/15
11	NT01-R11	Semester 2 Test 1	15/09/15	NT01-R11@15/09/15
12	NT01-R12	Semester 1 Quiz 1	15/09/15	NT01-R12@15/09/15
13	NT01-R13	Semester 2 Quiz 1	15/09/15	NT01-R13@15/09/15
14	NT01-R14	Semester 1 Examination	15/09/15	NT01-R14@15/09/15
15	NT01-R15	Semester 2 Examination	15/09/15	NT01-R15@15/09/15

ET03 Teaching Core English 3

	Record code	Type of record	Date of collection	Reference code
1	ET03-R01	New Headway Advanced Student's Book	24/02/14	ET03-R01@24/02/14
2	ET03-R02	QUIZ 01	27/02/14	ET03-R02@27/02/14
3	ET03-R03	QUIZ 02	10/03/14	ET03-R03@10/03/14
4	ET03-R04	QUIZ 03	14/06/14	ET03-R04@14/06/14
5	ET03-R05	LISTENING TEST 01	10/03/14	ET03-R05@10/03/14
6	ET03-R06	LISTENING TEST 02	16/06/14	ET03-R06@16/06/14
7	ET03-R07	TEST 101	30/06/14	ET03-R07@30/06/14
8	ET03-R08	TEST 102	30/06/14	ET03-R08@30/06/14
9	ET03-R09	TEST 201	18/09/15	ET03-R09@18/09/15
10	ET03-R10	TEST 202	18/09/15	ET03-R10@18/09/15
11	ET03-R11	SEMESTER EXAMINATION PAPER	10/09/15	ET03-R11@10/09/15

Appendix 6 A Sample of Interview Transcripts

Interviewer
00:00:00.00
I will be asking you a series of questions that I am interested in finding out the way you teach and the nature of your teaching, your decision, anything related to your teaching and learning experience. So there will be no right or wrong answers to all of the questions I ask [YES YES]. Feel free to answer whatever you like to answer. Ok? [YES. YES]. And rest assured that all information that I will gather in this study will be kept confidential. No one will have access to that information, except me and for academic purpose only. So for the first question, could you please tell me about yourself, where are you from and how you come to be a teacher trainee?

PT03
00:00:55.67
Uh hmm first of all my name is [deducted] and I'm currently in the senior year, the first semester. I just finished it. Uh actually I don't have much experience of teaching outside of this campus. I used to teach only in the classroom you know as a classroom trainee. And in semester 1 I taught the teaching demonstration for just like 30 minutes. And uh my skill during that time was reading and er that's pretty much it the teaching experience. But besides that I also you know teach my friends during exams when the exams come we just gather as a group study. I'm the one who lead them to do the discussion in all the exercises.

Interviewer
00:01:49.90
Why do you want to be a teacher of English?

PT03
00:01:53.15
It's I think it's my nature. I just love English since I was young. Uh actually when I was in high school I don't plan to be a teacher. I just love you know any career that is related to English but then uh I heard of [Dream University] and it's a very famous school you know in English. And I don't know that [Dream University] is actually specialised in teaching English but when I when I er came in IFL as the first year I just realise that I become I mean more interested in English teaching and that's=it's just nature (laughs) Yeah.

Interviewer
00:02:36.58
Alright. You said you are interested in English since you were young. And I take it that you began your study I mean English study even before you came to [Dream University]. Could you also tell me about that history of learning English?

PT03
00:02:53.08
Oh it's actually quite a long history. I started learning English since I was I think 4 or 3.5 years old at my er at a school near my house. It's not that famous school (laughs) but, but then I uh (...) since I was like I think six or probably 7 or 8 years old I went to the Philippines for one year and study English there because English is a second language there. So I have to study. I have to follow my dad (who) worked there ah huh. And when I came back I joined er [NAME] currently [NAME]. I finished that. And then I went to er [NAME] er I'm in grade 7 and then I quit it. I went to home

of English. I was in grade 8. I studied for a year. I quit it. (laughs) And then I went to [NAME] and I finished grade 12 there. Er and er back then I was in grade 11 at high school and I quit English for like a year so that I can prepare my extra classes at high school. And after that I came to [NAME].

Interviewer
00:04:09.63
Ok. So it seems that you, you studied with different teachers [YES YES] and at different places. If you could recall the way that those teachers used to teach, er can you describe briefly you know anything that you can remember back then?

PT03
00:04:25.69
Back then er for me the experience I used to be taught with both non-native speakers and native speakers. What I (...) personally I enjoy studying with er Filipino teachers even though they are not native speakers but they think they're charismatic. They understand our you know feeling. They understand our preferences so they so they design the lessons based on our preferences. But I I didn't mean that the native speakers did not understand our preferences. It's just (for) my preference I prefer uh a teacher who can provide me based on what I've learnt. Yeah but I know some other students that prefer native speakers. They you know they think that those native speakers are fluent, are accurate in English. But I prefer differently. Yeah.

Interviewer
00:05:24.90
And how about when you were at [NAME] uh from Year 1 to Year 3, let's say, what do you think about the way that you, you were taught?

PT03
00:05:35.09
Hmm uh actually at [NAME] from Year 1 to Year 3 it was completely different from, from what I have learnt previously because hmm back then I learnt English you know it's just I learnt from the book the course book, the grammar, vocab and stuff. But when I came in [NAME] there was different you know different subjects that I can learn English such as Environments, Sociology as I remember. So I think that it's quite a different experience for me to study but I still enjoy that. Yeah. But the teachers as I said uh even though they're non-native speaker teachers but they still use good teaching methodology uh for us as students actually to understand the lesson because at this age we're not going to study about pronunciation, accent and stuff so I think that knowledge of the subject is more important.

Interviewer
00:06:35.46
Ok. You talked about good methodology what do you mean by that?

PT03
00:06:39.92
Uh, uh actually uh I don't know but [NAME] teachers use a lot of different kinds of uh pairing us up or grouping us up. It's different from what I previously learnt. We never grouped ourselves up or we rarely paired up. We just studied like individual studying and received the knowledge from the teacher. The teacher just preached

and we just listened. But uh at the university level we learnt to you know negotiate with the members in the group.

Interviewer
00:07:19.02
And you think that it is good for you to learn (...)

PT03
00:07:19.55
Yes, yes especially my speaking and also the leadership role as well because we start to lead the group discussion.

Interviewer
00:07:26.87
Ok. Alright. And you said you have never taught formally before, except teaching demonstration [YEAH YES] But you will be teaching very soon [AH HMMM] in the next two weeks [YES YES] here right for your practicum or at [NAME]? [AT NAME]. Alright. Hmm what do you think teaching means to you?

PT03
00:07:56.14
Teaching (...) uh teaching means a lot. I mean there're different definitions of teaching [YEAH BUT TO YOU] yeah to me uh teaching it means that (...) it gives uh you know freedom to students to make their own decision because as I know some people may define teaching as the transmission of knowledge from teachers to students. I think it's, it's appropriate in the lower grade but at this higher level at the university level it's, it's about giving some agency to the students to make decision on their own and learn to be dependent on themselves.

Appendix 7 Conventions used in interview transcripts

Conventions/ Symbols	Descriptions
PT01	A male pre-service teacher
PT02	A female pre-service teacher
PT03	A female pre-service teacher
I	For interviewer
INT	A short form of 'interview' used to indicate that the data being referred to were collected from interviews
INT01	A code denoting the first interview sets
INT02	A code denoting the second interview sets
INT02/P01	P01 or P02 indicates, respectively, part one or part two of the recorded interviews.
@00:01:01	These numbers signal the time stamp in the recording (of either an interview or classroom session). They tell respectively the hour, the minute and the second, found in the audio-recordings.
TR01	This code TR indicates classroom observation recording, known as Teaching Record. The number, e.g., 01, references the record locatable in the database.
WR01	This code WR indicates the collected written records. The number, e.g., 01, references the record locatable in the database. Generally, this code is followed by the date of collection, e.g., WR01@04/05/14. This code is generally used together with the code identifying individual teachers, e.g., PT01-WR01 meaning the record belongs to PT01 and can be located within PT01's database.
ReINT01	This code indicates that the data were extracted from Recall Interviews. The number, e.g., 01, references the record locatable in the database.
(...)	Pauses were not timed during the transcribing process. However, this symbol indicates that the pause is noticeable in the recording.
=	This symbol is used to indicate fragmented speech or abruptly changed topic of speech, e.g., it is not=what I meant previously was [...].
!	An exclamation mark used in the transcripts indicates the participants' rising intonation.
. (full stop)	The full stop sign is being used in this transcription to separate complete, 'grammatical' sentence in a way similar to that found in academic texts.

, (comma)	Commas are generally used in transcribed accounts with their conventional functions found in general academic texts. However, they are also used here to indicate repeated speech segments, e.g., it's, it's the basic requirement, as they are being transcribed verbatim.
TEXT	Capitalised or upper case texts indicate heightened pitch or stressed speech segments.
[...]	This symbol indicates that a portion of speech being discussed is omitted for its irrelevance, regarding the case in point.
[**]**	Square brackets across turn-taking or adjacency pair indicates overlapping speech segments.
[text]	Texts found in enclosed square brackets are added or modified speech segments, generally for the purpose of clarity and stylistics.
(text)	Texts found in enclosed parentheses describe non-verbal messages such as laughs, sighs, chuckles and figure tapping. At times, texts in enclosed parentheses are my own comments from written field-notes, e.g., during an observation I might note (students were chatting noisily).
(xxx)	This symbol indicates that a speech segment was not transcribed cause it was unintelligible.
(?)	This symbol found after a speech segment indicates that the message was vague or ambiguous.

Appendix 8 A Generic Email Sent Out for Member Checking

Dear Teachers,

First of all, I thank you wholeheartedly for having agreed to participate in my research conducted back in 2014. It has been a long time now, and I am working towards the completion this research.

In my research, I strive to represent your voices as much truthfully as can be seen from your own perspectives about the issues being investigated. However, there could possibly be instances where your views are represented slightly differently from what you had in mind. As a result, you are being offered an opportunity to check if there are such instances in my research reports.

If you reply to this email indicating that you are happy to read through the reports and provide feedback on them within 4 weeks (if you need more time please let me know), I will send you the reports.

Not only will your feedback ensure that your voices are being truthfully represented, but also it helps further strengthen the research quality.

So, please reply to me at your earliest convenience indicating that you agree, or not, to read and provide feedback on the reports, for the purpose explained above.

I once again thank you for all your input and I look forwards to hearing from you very soon.

Yours faithfully,

Sovannarith Lim | PhD Candidate (Language and Literacy Education)
School of Education
Faculty of Arts & Social Sciences
University of New South Wales
Sydney, Australia
Email: sovannarith.lim@student.unsw.edu.au
Mobile: +61401672536

Appendix 9 Ethic Approval Letter Obtained from UNSW

Human Research Ethics Advisory Panel B
Arts, Humanities & Law

Date:	17.05.2013
Investigators:	Mr Sovannarith Lim
Supervisors:	Professor Anne Burns
School:	School of Education
Re:	Language Teacher Cognition in Teaching Vocabulary: Case Studies of Non-Native English Speaking Teachers in an EFL Context
Reference Number:	13 002

The Human Research Ethics Advisory Panel B for the Arts, Humanities & Law is satisfied that this project is of minimal ethical impact and meets the requirements as set out in the National Statement on Ethical Conduct in Human Research*. Having taken into account the advice of the Panel, the Deputy Vice-Chancellor (Research) has approved the project to proceed.

Your Head of School/Unit/Centre will be informed of this decision. This approval is valid for 12 months from the date stated above.

Yours sincerely

[SIGNED]

Associate Professor Anne Cossins

Panel Convenor

Human Research Ethics Advisory Panel B

Cc: Professor Chris Davison
Head of School

School of Education

* http://www.nhmrc.gov.au/

Appendix 10 Approval Letter Obtained from the Dream University

28 December 2012

To Whom It May Concern:

I, the Head of the Department of English of the [redacted] Cambodia, approve **Mr Sovannarith Lim**, currently a PhD research student at the School of Education, Faculty of Arts and Social Sciences, University of New South Wales, Sydney, Australia, to conduct his field research at the department for the purposes of his PhD project entitled "Language Teacher Cognition and Vocabulary Teaching: Case Studies of Non-Native English Speaking Teachers" – provided that he complies with all ethics regulations required by the University of New South Wales.

It should also be advised that there are no similar ethics requirements in Cambodia or at the [redacted], Cambodia. I trust that Mr Sovannarith Lim, the student researcher, has thorough and extensive knowledge of current and past cultural sensitivities to conduct his research in the requested context.

It is Mr Sovannarith Lim's responsibilities to obtain any consent from his target participants in his project.

Yours Faithfully,

[redacted]

Head, Department of English

[redacted]

Appendix 11 Summary of the Novices' Vocabulary Assessment Data for CE2, CE3 and LS2

CE2	TESTING FORMATS	DOMAINS OF VOCABULARY FOCUS	RAW SCORE	% SCORE
TEST 101 **80/80**	MCQ Gap-filling (semi-control) Gap-filling (total-control) Matching	Randomly selected words Compound nouns and adjectives Compound nouns (Verb + Preposition) Hot verbs (Make vs. Do)	35	43.75
TEST 201 **80/80**	MCQ Devising words Matching Gap-filling (total-control)	Randomly selected words Affixes and antonyms Hot verbs (Take and Put)	30	37.5
TEST 102 **80/80**	MCQ Writing (semi-control) Gap-filling (total-control)	Randomly selected words Hot verbs (Get + preposition) Adverb collocation Homophones (form-meaning connections)	35	43.75
QUIZ 101 **40/40**	Matching Devising words	Randomly selected words Compound words	15	37.5
QUIZ 102 **50/50**	Gap-filling (total-control) Matching	Randomly selected words Hot verbs (Get + preposition) Adverb collocation	25	50
EXAM 01 **100/100**	MCQ Matching Gap-filling (total-control)	Randomly selected words Compound words Hot verbs (Make and Do) Prefixes and antonyms Hot verbs (Take and Put)	30	30
EXAM 02 **100/100**	MCQ Matching Gap-filling (total-control)	Randomly selected words Hot verb (Get + preposition) Extreme adjective Homophone and homonym Idiom (related to body parts) Word pair	30	30

CE3	TESTING FORMATS	DOMAINS OF VOCABULARY FOCUS	RAW SCORE	% SCORE
TEST 101 **100/100**	MCQ Gap-filling (semi-control) Gap-filling (total-control) Devising words	American English vs British English Synonyms Randomly selected words Phrasal verbs (verbs + particles) Homophones and homographs	50	50
QUIZ 101 **51/51**	Gap-filling (semi-control) MCQ	Randomly selected words Synonyms American English vs British English	21	42
QUIZ 201 **20/20**	Gap-filling (total-control)	Phrasal verbs Parts of speech of phrasal verbs	20	100
QUIZ 301 **30/30**	None	None (i.e. Grammar was focused on)	0	0
TEST 102 **100/100**	Devising words (total-control) Devising words (semi-control) Gap-filling (semi-control) MCQ	Randomly selected words Idioms and metaphors Homophones and homographs	30	30
QUIZ 102 **33/33**	Gap-filling (total-control) Gap-filling (semi-control) MCQ	Word associations Word patterns Word forms	33	100
EXAM 01 **80/80**	MCQ Gap-filling (total-control) Devising words (semi-control)	Randomly selected words Synonyms and antonyms Phrasal verbs	30	37.5
LS2	**TESTING FORMATS**	**DOMAINS OF VOCABULARY FOCUS**	**RAW SCORE**	**% SCORE**
TEST 101 **50/50**	MCQ Gap-filling (total-control)	Randomly selected words Story-based vocabulary	20	40
TEST 201 **50/50**	MCQ Gap-filling (total-control)	Randomly selected words Story-based vocabulary	19	38
TEST 102 **50/50**	Gap-filling (total-control)	Randomly selected words Story-based vocabulary	22	40
TEST 202 **50/50**	Devising definitions (control-free)	Story-based vocabulary	14	28

QUIZ 01 **15/15**	Matching	Literary terminologies	15	100
QUIZ 02 **20/20**	Matching	Story-based vocabulary	7	35
QUIZ 03 **25/25**	Matching MCQ	Literary terminologies Story-based vocabulary Synonyms	15	60
QUIZ 04 **20/20**	None	None	0	0
QUIZ 05 **25/25**	Dictation Devising	Story-based vocabulary Randomly selected words	15	60
QUIZ 06 **25/25**	Gap-filling (semi-control)	Story-based vocabulary	25	25
EXAM 01 **100/100**	Matching Gap-filling (total-control)	Randomly selected words Story-based vocabulary	20	20
EXAM 02 **100/100**	Matching Gap-filling (total-control)	Randomly selected words Story-based vocabulary	20	20

Appendix 12 A Sample Tabulation of Summary Findings across Cases

PRE-SERVICES	NOVICES	EXPERIENCED TEACHERS	SUB-THEMES	CATEGORIES
Their decisions to learn English and to become a teacher of English were intrinsically oriented.	Their decisions were both intrinsically and extrinsically oriented although it appeared to be more about the former.	Their decisions were largely extrinsic as they viewed teaching English was a prospective job in terms of both financial and professional rewards.	MOTIVATION to learn and teach English set their career goals.	Sociocultural situations of cognitive development
They reported to have plenty English learning opportunities when they were young.		ET01 & ET02 had fewer opportunities to learn English at young age. English classes were rare. ET03 had more or less the same opportunities as those afforded to the pre-services and the novices.	LEARNING OPPORTUNITIES shaped their motivation to learn and teach English.	
They had witnessed different teaching approaches (e.g., grammar-translation, teacher-centred, communicative language teaching, student-centred)	They shared similar experiences as the pre-services. But they perceived their early English education as a negative learning experience, especially the one with Khmer teachers.	Also reported negative learning experiences. Word translation was reported as a prominent way of learning–which contributed little to communicative ability.	LEARNING EXPERIENCES contributed to their thinking and (reported) doing.	