

**THE IMPACT OF INSTRUCTED ADDITIONAL LANGUAGE  
LEARNING ON ESOL TEACHING: PERSPECTIVES FROM  
NEW ZEALAND**

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### **Attestation of Authorship**

I hereby declare that this submission is my own work and that, to the best of my knowledge and belief, it contains no material previously published or written by another person (except where explicitly defined in the acknowledgments), nor material which to a substantial extent has been submitted for the award of any other degree or diploma of a university or other institution of higher learning.

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*In truth, knowledge is a veritable treasure for man,  
and a source of glory, of bounty, of joy,  
of exaltation, of cheer and gladness unto him.*  
Baha'u'llah

## Abstract

Teachers' knowledge and teaching practices have attracted considerable interest in the area of teaching English to/for speakers of other languages (TESOL). Some subsequent research has focused on the reported impact of ESOL teachers' past instructed additional language (AL) learning on their teacher beliefs. However, there remains a paucity of information about how ESOL teachers' past instructed AL learning informs their knowledge, practices, and perceptions of the profession, particularly in the New Zealand context. This study, therefore, has investigated New Zealand-based ESOL teachers' perceptions of how their prior experiences as language learners relate to their TESOL knowledge and teaching practices. In particular, the study examines whether or not, and how, such learning experiences have been integrated into teachers' ESOL teaching practices. Furthermore, this study examines how ESOL teachers perceived their professional stance within the sector, considering their roles as teachers with instructed AL-learning experiences.

Framed by theoretical framings of 'teacher knowledge' and 'teacher linguistic identity', this study employs the qualitative analytical approach of interpretative phenomenological analysis (IPA) (Smith et al., 2009) to provide an in-depth understanding of participants' lived experiences. The research has been conducted with 14 ESOL teachers working in New Zealand secondary schools or tertiary institutions in either the public or private TESOL sector. Participants have been purposively chosen for their plurilingual competence, experiences in instructed AL learning and ESOL teaching, and past TESOL training. Focus-group discussions, semi-structured one-on-one interviews, and some follow-up emails were the data collection methods. Recollections of these New Zealand-based ESOL teachers involve the AL teaching practices they experienced as learners, their interpretations of the ways their past AL learning impacted their TESOL knowledge and teaching practices, and descriptions of their practices. The analytical steps within IPA were employed to identify

three main themes and subsequent sub-themes, which provide distinctive insights into New Zealand-based ESOL teachers' perceptions of their lived experiences as former AL learners and current ESOL teachers.

Findings suggest that the participants saw their past instructed AL learning as a powerful resource that informs their TESOL knowledge and teaching practices. They emphasize that their lived experiences as former AL learners have enabled them to develop experiential knowledge of the instructed AL-learning process, enhancing their language awareness for ESOL teaching and increasing their empathy for their students. Although the participants reported that their past instructed AL learning had impacts at the individual teacher level, these learning experiences had no impact on their professional standing within the profession or the TESOL profession as a whole.

This thesis contributes to the literature on ESOL learning and teaching by arguing for the role of teachers' instructed AL learning as the source of TESOL knowledge. As an additional contribution, valuable information to stakeholders in the TESOL sectors is offered, suggesting that the focus on employing English language teachers based on their citizenship, accents, and appearances is short-sighted and damaging. More specifically, this thesis argues for a reconceptualization of ESOL teacher identity beyond the NEST/non-NEST dichotomy. Instead, learning and using an AL is a more salient feature of ESOL teachers' identities than whether they speak English as their L1. It is hoped that the findings can inform educational institutions and potentially improve ESOL teacher education and ESOL education.

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## List of Abbreviations

<b>AL</b>	Additional language
<b>AUTEC</b>	Auckland University of Technology Ethics Committee
<b>ELL</b>	English language learner
<b>ELT</b>	English language teaching
<b>ESOL</b>	English for/to speakers of other languages
<b>ICC</b>	Intercultural communication competence
<b>IPA</b>	Interpretative Phenomenological Analysis
<b>L1</b>	First language
<b>MOE</b>	Ministry of Education
<b>NEST</b>	Native English-speaking teacher
<b>Non-NEST</b>	Non-native English-speaking teacher
<b>NZQA</b>	New Zealand Qualifications Authority
<b>ORQ</b>	Overarching researching question
<b>PTE</b>	Private training establishments
<b>SCT</b>	Sociocultural theory
<b>SQ</b>	Sub-question
<b>TESOL</b>	Teaching English to speakers of other languages
<b>TESOLANZ</b>	Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages Aotearoa New Zealand

## **Chapter One: Introduction**

### **1.1 Introduction**

This thesis addresses the issue of the absence of mandated instructed additional language (AL) learning experiences as a prerequisite for employment within the New Zealand teaching English to/for speakers of other languages (TESOL) sector and the broader global TESOL sector. Examining this issue through the theoretical frameworks of ‘teacher knowledge’ (i.e., knowledge used for teaching specific subjects to students) and ‘teacher linguistic identity’ (i.e., identification as a user of one or more languages), this study challenges the prevailing misconception that native English-speaking teachers (NESTs) do not require prior AL-learning experiences due to their native fluency in the English language. Participants, regardless of their first language (L1) background, consistently reported the substantial contributions of their past instructed AL-learning experiences (i.e., teacher linguistic identity) to their TESOL knowledge and teaching practices (i.e., teacher knowledge), emphasizing the value of such experiences for all ESOL teachers. Furthermore, this study found that instructed AL-learning experiences enhanced participants’ empathy for English language learners (ELLs), a crucial quality for effective teaching. However, participants’ professional standing within the TESOL sector remained unimpacted by their past AL learning, as the sector exhibited prejudice favoring NESTs based on factors like country of origin, L1, accent, and appearance, known as native-speakerism. This thesis provides an in-depth examination of the implications of these issues and highlights the imperative for a more inclusive perspective on ESOL teachers’ knowledge and linguistic identities in the New Zealand TESOL sector as well as the global TESOL sector.

This chapter serves as a roadmap for this thesis. The sub-section that follows (1.1.1) offers an overview of the current state of the English language worldwide. Following this, 1.2 provides the study's context (1.2), encompassing background information on English language education in New Zealand (1.2.1) and the New Zealand TESOL sector (1.2.2). To highlight the undervaluation of ESOL teachers' instructed AL-learning experiences in the TESOL profession, the chapter examines New Zealand TESOL occupational requirements (1.3), which include prerequisites for teaching ESOL at primary and secondary schools (1.3.1) and tertiary institutions (1.3.2), and ESOL teacher recruitment advertisements for both New Zealand and international TESOL sectors (1.3.3). Subsequently, 1.4 elaborates on the motivation behind this study, followed by clarification of the study's ontological and epistemological stances in 1.5. Section 1.6 presents the research questions, consisting of one overarching research question (ORQ) and three sub-questions (SQs). Next, the chapter outlines the research design in 1.7 and expounds on the study's empirical, theoretical, and methodological significance in 1.8. It presents the structure of the thesis in 1.9 and concludes the chapter in 1.10.

### **1.1.1 Overview of the Dominance of the English Language**

A major impact of post-1990s hyper-globalization on worldwide communication is that the English language has now become the international *lingua franca* far beyond its reach of even a few decades ago. The resulting demand for competent English language users has hastened the growth of teaching and learning ESOL (James, 2009; Phillipson, 2009). The importance of English language education is recognized globally, with many educational institutions incorporating English as an AL, a default second language, or a medium of instruction in their curricula (Cambridge Assessment, 2021; Cheng, 2022; Crystal, 2019), making the language the most widely learned and taught AL worldwide (Cenoz & Gorter, 2020). This recognition of the importance of English language education extends to countries

where English is a foreign or second language (Doff, 2020; Qi, 2016) as well as countries like New Zealand, where English is the dominant first language (L1) (McCarthy, 2020; New Zealand Ministry of Education, 2020). A consequence of this recognition is an unprecedented worldwide demand for qualified English language teachers (Gras & Kitson, 2021; Sehlaoui & Shinge, 2012).

ESOL teacher education is designed to enhance teachers' TESOL knowledge and pedagogical skills required for effective ESOL teaching (Faez & Valeo, 2012). Nevertheless, as Ohi (2007) points out, ESOL teachers' TESOL knowledge can also be derived from other sources, including their experiences in instructed AL learning and other life experiences. Previous research on the reported impact of AL teachers' past instructed AL learning has highlighted the potential benefits of teachers' experiential knowledge of language-learning processes and pedagogy (e.g., E. Ellis, 2004b; Gándara & Maxwell-Jolly, 2006). However, no detailed investigation has examined how New Zealand-based ESOL teachers perceive the relationship between their past instructed AL learning, TESOL knowledge, and teaching practices. In addition, New Zealand-based ESOL teachers' perceptions regarding their professional positioning at both individual and TESOL-sector levels have not been closely examined until now. This study attempts to address these research gaps.

## **1.2 The Study Context**

This study, located in New Zealand's ESOL teaching context, examined how New Zealand-based ESOL teachers apply the knowledge derived from their past instructed AL-learning in their teaching practices. New Zealand's diverse ESOL teacher and student populations serve as a microcosm of former British colonies, making it an ideal setting to study ESOL teachers. Like many former British colonies, New Zealand has experienced historical waves of immigration, resulting in a rich linguistic diversity among ESOL teachers

and English language learners (ELLs). Insights from these teachers may include ESOL-teaching practices in linguistically diverse classrooms that can further inform ESOL curriculum development and teacher education in the global context. This section describes the study context by providing a brief history of English language education in New Zealand. It also explains the New Zealand TESOL sector today.

### ***1.2.1 English Language Education in New Zealand***

While Te Reo Māori and New Zealand Sign Language hold official language status in New Zealand, English stands as the de facto official language and the dominant language across the nation (de Bres, 2015; Statistics New Zealand, 2018), with over 90% of the population being English speakers (Statistics New Zealand, 2018). This prominence of the English language is evident in the dominance of English-medium schools within the New Zealand education system (New Zealand Ministry of Education, 2007).

Throughout New Zealand's history, the country's English education has undergone significant transformations, shaped by factors like British colonization and immigration patterns. The English language gained dominance due to colonial administration and substantial immigration from the United Kingdom. Despite notable historical documents like *He Whakaputanga* (the Declaration of Independence) (signed in 1935) in Māori and the bilingual Treaty of Waitangi (signed in 1840), Māori language suppressions in schools persisted until the 1970s (Higgins & Keane, 2015), where Māori pupils were penalized for speaking their L1 at school (Ministry for Culture and Heritage, 2022). This suppression played a pivotal role in establishing English as the dominant language. Furthermore, assimilation was an expected outcome for immigrants and refugees from non-English speaking regions, necessitating English language teacher training programs starting in the late

1950s (Johnson, 2015). To provide context for this study, an overview of the contemporary New Zealand TESOL sector is presented in the following.

### **1.2.2 New Zealand TESOL Sector**

The New Zealand TESOL sector consists of two sub-sectors: domestic and international. According to the New Zealand Ministry of Education (MOE) (2021a), ELLs in the domestic sectors encompass migrants to New Zealand, former refugees, and New Zealand-born students with at least one migrant or refugee parent for whom English is an AL. ELLs in the international sector are students from overseas who come to New Zealand for educational purposes. Given that the ESOL teachers in this study were teaching one or both ELL groups during the research, the following pages provide an overview of both New Zealand's domestic and international TESOL sectors.

**New Zealand's Domestic TESOL Sector.** The New Zealand domestic TESOL sector includes ELLs from migrant or refugee backgrounds, who can be divided into young and adult learners. Young ELLs include school-age children, typically ranging from approximately six to mid-teens (Butler & Liu, 2019; Mitchell & Kamenarac, 2021). Adult ELLs, on the other hand, are learners in tertiary education or the workforce (Cameron, 2015; Mahony et al., 2017).

The New Zealand MOE (2019) has reported that the government currently supports approximately 49,000 young domestic ELLs with significant English-language learning needs in state and state-integrated primary and secondary schools. These young ELLs include New Zealand residents or citizens with migrant and refugee backgrounds. Schools receive ESOL funds to assist eligible ELLs in studying *The New Zealand Curriculum* (New Zealand Ministry of Education, 2007), with this support available for a maximum of five years (New

Zealand Ministry of Education, 2021b). Additionally, secondary schools use fees collected from international students to support domestic ELLs (Gleeson & Hubbard, 2021).

In addition to young learners, New Zealand's domestic TESOL sector encompasses adult ELLs who pursue English language courses/programs at tertiary education institutions, including polytechnics, universities, and private training establishments (PTEs). These courses/programs cater to adult ELLs who hold resident visas or New Zealand citizenship and do not have English as their L1. Some institutions receive funding for specialized ESOL programs through the New Zealand Tertiary Education Commission (TEC), which administers ESOL courses like the Intensive Literacy and Numeracy ESOL (ILN-ESOL) Fund and the Intensive Literacy and Numeracy, Refugee English (ILN Refugee English) Fund (TEC, 2014, 2017). ILN funding is allocated to support adult migrants and refugees in attaining the necessary English literacy levels and language skills for further education or workforce integration (TEC, 2014, 2017).

**New Zealand's International TESOL Sector.** The New Zealand international TESOL sector caters to fee-paying ELLs who come from overseas. These international ELLs are enrolled in New Zealand's primary and secondary schools, as well as tertiary education (i.e., polytechnics, universities, and PTEs). Unlike ELLs in the domestic TESOL sector, international ELLs hold temporary visas, such as student visas and working holiday visas (Immigration New Zealand, 2021). Young international ELLs include children on student visas accompanied by their parents or represented by legal guardians, children of skilled migrants on work visas, or children of international students in New Zealand. Adult international ELLs are typically enrolled in or working toward tertiary education or PTEs, including private language schools. The New Zealand government has viewed the country's international TESOL sector as a lucrative economic contributor. Education New Zealand (2014, 2017) predicted significant economic growth, with the New Zealand TESOL sector

expected to generate substantial revenue, growing from NZ\$70 million in 2007/2008 to NZ\$505 million by 2025. However, two years after data collection concluded for this study in 2018, international travel restrictions due to the COVID-19 pandemic, starting in 2020, negatively impacted the influx of international ELLs to New Zealand (Careers New Zealand, 2021c; TEC, 2020). Consequently, the Chair of English New Zealand, Darren Conway, predicted the potential closure of private language schools due to the lack of additional government funding for education (Gerritsen, 2021). English New Zealand is an association assisting the New Zealand Qualifications Authority (NZQA) with periodic audits of English language schools in the private TESOL sector. With the reopening of borders from the 1st of August, 2022, the outcome of Conway's prediction remains uncertain.

Given that the participants in this study have experience teaching in one or both of New Zealand's TESOL sectors (i.e., domestic and international), it is worth examining the occupational requirements for ESOL teachers in this context.

### **1.3 New Zealand TESOL Occupational Requirements**

Occupational requirements for TESOL roles in New Zealand can vary depending on the educational stage (i.e., primary, secondary, and tertiary education) and sector (i.e., domestic, international, and private for-profit sectors). The New Zealand MOE, the Teaching Council of Aotearoa New Zealand (Teaching Council), Careers New Zealand, Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages Aotearoa New Zealand (TESOLANZ), and English New Zealand provide ESOL-related recommendations and guidelines specific to each educational sector.

### ***1.3.1 Teaching ESOL at Primary and Secondary Schools***

In New Zealand, it is mandatory for all primary and secondary school teachers, regardless of the subjects they teach, to be registered with the Teaching Council (Careers New Zealand, 2021c). Registration requirements, as outlined below, vary between individuals with New Zealand teaching qualifications and those who earned their qualifications overseas. Moreover, beyond registration, teachers must possess a valid practicing teaching certificate to be eligible for teaching positions at primary or secondary schools in New Zealand. However, other than these requirements, teachers in New Zealand are not required to have TESOL qualifications or instructed AL-learning experiences to teach ESOL in the country's primary and secondary schools. In the context of this study, where two participants had experience teaching ESOL in New Zealand secondary schools, I will explain the occupational requirements specific to the country's public TESOL sector.

**ESOL Teachers with New Zealand Qualifications.** According to the guidelines on the Careers New Zealand website (2021c), individuals seeking to teach ESOL at New Zealand primary and secondary schools must hold registered teacher status. However, possessing formal TESOL training is not obligatory; instead, it is advised that ESOL teachers “preferably have an ESOL qualification” (Careers New Zealand, 2021c, para. 10).

Eligibility for registration as a teacher in New Zealand mandates possessing an undergraduate degree that includes Initial Teacher Education (ITE) (Teaching Council of Aotearoa New Zealand, 2021a). For ESOL teachers in primary schools, eligible degrees include Bachelor of Education (Teaching), Bachelor of Teaching (Primary or Māori Medium), and Bachelor of Teaching and Learning (Primary) (Careers New Zealand, 2021a). Individuals aspiring to become secondary school teachers must have a specialist subject undergraduate degree aligned with *The New Zealand Curriculum* (New Zealand Ministry of Education,

2007). Following this, they can complete a one-year Graduate Diploma of Teaching (Secondary) or a Master of Teaching (Secondary), a Bachelor of Education (Technology), or a Bachelor of Teaching conjoint degree, which combines teaching and specialist subjects (Careers New Zealand, 2021b).

TESOL training and experiences in AL learning are not explicitly listed as occupational requirements for teachers aspiring to teach ESOL in New Zealand primary and secondary schools. Instead, the New Zealand MOE (2021b) and Careers New Zealand (2021c) recommend TESOL in-service training as a form of professional development for teachers in primary and secondary schools within the ESOL field. Moreover, the New Zealand government actively promotes TESOL training among in-service teachers by offering scholarships and supplementary compensation as incentives (Careers New Zealand, 2021c; New Zealand Ministry of Education, 2021c).

The New Zealand MOE has established distinct criteria to determine eligibility for government-funded TESOL-training scholarships. However, among these criteria, only two are linked to teachers' specific roles and are language-related: being "bilingual teachers" or "specialist ESOL teachers" (New Zealand Ministry of Education, 2021c, para. 2). While the former requirement implies teachers' knowledge of an AL, the latter requirement does not specify any AL learning prerequisites. Furthermore, the criteria do not seem to indicate assessments to evaluate applicants' levels of linguistic knowledge in a language other than English. This observation is noteworthy as it prompts questions about the extent to which these criteria consider linguistic diversity and the depth of linguistic knowledge required in ESOL teaching contexts. Linguistic knowledge in this context refers to an understanding of language systems (R. Ellis, 2005b). Such knowledge can enhance ESOL teachers' ability to understand and respond to their students' specific learning needs and challenges, fostering effective teaching in diverse ESOL classrooms (Cancino et al., 2020; E. Ellis, 2004a, 2012).

One pertinent question regarding ESOL teachers' linguistic knowledge in relation to this study is: In what ways do ESOL teachers' past instructed AL learning contribute to their linguistic knowledge for teaching ESOL? This study contributes to answering this question.

**ESOL Teachers with Overseas Qualifications.** ESOL teachers with overseas qualifications who intend to teach at New Zealand primary and secondary schools are subject to different requirements than those with local qualifications. Besides holding an undergraduate degree in teaching/education from an accredited overseas university, the Teaching Council mandates that all overseas teachers, including ESOL teachers, furnish evidence demonstrating their English language competency (Teaching Council of Aotearoa New Zealand, 2021b). In this context, language competency encompasses individuals' abilities to comprehend, speak, read, and write in the language (Larsen-Freeman & Freeman, 2008). The Teaching Council does not consider the L1 status of overseas-trained ESOL teachers as a factor determining their English language competency. Consequently, ESOL teachers from countries where English is the dominant language (e.g., the United Kingdom, the United States) are not exempted from providing evidence of their English proficiency. Rather, the Teaching Council assesses the competency of all overseas teachers in the English language across various categories:

- The number of years of primary schooling in the English language;
- The number of years of secondary and tertiary education in the English medium;
- Approved TESOL qualifications (e.g., Cambridge Certificate in Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages (CELTA), Trinity College CertTESOL); and
- Approved English proficiency tests (e.g., the International English Language Testing System (IELTS), the Test of English as a Foreign Language (TOEFL))

Internet-based test (IBT)) (Teaching Council of Aotearoa New Zealand, 2021b).

Although there are requirements concerning the English language competency of overseas-trained ESOL teachers, they are not obligated to have instructed AL-learning experiences. These experiences are crucial for ESOL teachers because teachers help their students develop their linguistic identities as learners. Firsthand language learning equips teachers with insights into the dynamics and challenges of AL-linguistic identity development, enhancing their ability to effectively guide and empower their students in their learning (Moodie, 2016; Nguyen, 2017).

### ***1.3.2 Teaching ESOL at Tertiary Institutions***

Occupational requirements for ESOL teachers seeking positions at New Zealand tertiary institutions vary depending on whether they are applying for positions in polytechnics and universities or PTEs.

**Polytechnics and Universities.** There are no compulsory occupational requirements for ESOL teachers work in New Zealand tertiary institutions. Each institution tends to stipulate their own requirements in terms of qualifications and experiences. Guidelines from TESOLANZ (2021) and Careers New Zealand (2021c) suggest that a post-graduate degree, particularly in fields like TESOL, second-language teaching, or applied linguistics, is generally expected. Furthermore, Careers New Zealand (2021c) mentions that employers often seek ESOL teachers with a post-graduate degree in applied linguistics, second-language teaching, or TESOL, along with at least two years of ESOL-teaching experience, especially for English for academic purposes programs. This is relevant to the present study as several participants have taught ESOL at New Zealand universities. With regard to ESOL teachers'

past AL learning, Careers New Zealand (2021c) is the only institution that provides generic guidelines stating that such learning experiences are beneficial for the occupation.

**Teaching ESOL at Private Training Establishments (PTEs).** In New Zealand's private for-profit TESOL sector, schools establish their own occupational requirements, as Careers New Zealand (2021c) and TESOLANZ (2021) noted. However, both associations recommend TESOL training for those planning to teach in this sector (Careers New Zealand, 2021c; TESOLANZ, 2021). ESOL education provider that are English New Zealand member schools, for example, must adhere to the *English New Zealand Standards* (English New Zealand, 2018, 2021). English New Zealand collaborates with the New Zealand Qualifications Authority (NZQA) to conduct periodic audits of private English language schools (English New Zealand, 2021).

English New Zealand (2018) provides guidelines for TESOL occupational requirements across three areas: TESOL qualifications, levels of education, and English language competency. These guidelines mandate that ESOL teachers at English New Zealand member schools must possess TESOL qualifications that are “externally validated and moderated by a reputable examination body” (English New Zealand, 2018, p. 7). Specific education standards were also set: ESOL teachers in permanent positions must hold either undergraduate degrees or post-graduate diplomas in a language-related area (English New Zealand, 2018). However, no specified education requirements were outlined for ESOL teachers on temporary contracts (English New Zealand, 2018). That is, a university degree is not required for ESOL teachers on temporary contracts at English New Zealand member schools. Notably, English New Zealand's language competency requirements underwent a significant shift. The 15th version of the English New Zealand Standards (English New Zealand, 2015) initially required “native speaker competence in English” (p. 17). Yet, the subsequent 16th version revised this to: “has a level of English of at least CEFR C1 level”

(English New Zealand, 2018, p. 7) for all ESOL teachers, irrespective of their students' English language proficiency levels. CEFR C1 corresponds to the fifth (second-highest) in the Common European Framework of Reference (CEFR) (i.e., IELTS band score of 7.5), with C2 being the highest and A1 being the lowest.

Thus far, this section has reviewed New Zealand's TESOL occupation requirements for ESOL teachers at primary and secondary schools, tertiary institutions, and PTEs. These requirements have been categorized into educational backgrounds, TESOL training, and English language competency. While Careers New Zealand's (2021c) website notes that past AL learning is beneficial for ESOL teachers, such experience is not an occupational requirement for those seeking to teach in the New Zealand TESOL sector.

To gain deeper insights into TESOL occupational requirements within the sector, the following sub-section examines several ESOL teacher recruitment advertisements. While this is a New Zealand-based study, many participants have experience teaching ESOL in various international contexts. Consequently, the data incorporates their understanding of the TESOL profession in New Zealand and other countries. Therefore, the examination includes ESOL teacher recruitment advertisements from New Zealand and overseas sources.

### ***1.3.3 ESOL Teacher Recruitment***

Occupational requirements in the TESOL sector vary from one country to another. As discussed above, the TESOL occupational requirements in New Zealand encompass teachers' educational backgrounds, TESOL training, and English language competency. An exploration on Seek (<https://www.seek.co.nz/>), a popular job search forum for ESOL teachers in New Zealand, showed alignment between ESOL teacher recruitment advertisements and the previously outlined requirements/recommendations from Careers New Zealand (2021c)

and TESOLANZ (2021). Figure 1 (below) is for a TESOL position at a private language school in the New Zealand tertiary sector.

### Figure 1

#### *ESOL Teacher Recruitment Advertisement for a New Zealand Private Language School*

(Retrieved from <https://www.seek.co.nz/>)

We are looking for ESOL teachers for current and future opportunities, including relief teaching, at our Auckland campus.

The essential qualifications, skills and attributes needed are:

- CELTA or equivalent
- native speaker competence (if English is not your first language, please provide official English proficiency test scores)
- a reflective approach to teaching and professional development
- an ability to work autonomously within curriculum guidelines
- a desire to contribute to a culture of continuous improvement

If you are keen to work in a school that values people and delivers industry-leading English language education, please apply to ██████ by pressing the '**Apply for this job**' button.

All applicants must be legally entitled to work in New Zealand.

Figure 1 illustrates that this New Zealand employer has outlined specific requirements for prospective ESOL teachers, including TESOL training (i.e., CELTA or equivalent) and English language competency. The advertisement also detailed desired professional attributes and qualities. Notably, the employer's request regarding English language competency is explicit: native speaker competence is expected, while non-native English-speaking teachers (non-NESTs) are required to provide proof of English proficiency. However, there is no mention of a requirement related to ESOL teachers' experiences in learning another language.

To understand TESOL occupational requirements in international TESOL sectors, ESOL teacher recruitment advertisements from countries where participants had prior teaching experience, such as Japan and Korea, were also examined. A search on Dave's ESL Café (<https://www.eslcafe.com/>), a popular job search forum for ESOL teachers worldwide,

showed that some TESOL occupational requirements in other countries closely mirror those found in New Zealand. For example, Figure 2 is an advertisement for an ESOL-teaching position at a South Korean kindergarten and primary school.

## Figure 2

*ESOL Teacher Recruitment Advertisement for a South Korean Kindergarten and Primary School* (Retrieved from <https://www.eslcafe.com/>)

<p>*Starting Date : March 2022</p> <p>*Teaching Age Group : Kinder in the morning/ Elementary in the afternoon teaching position (Korean age 5 -12)</p> <p>*Working Hours : M-F 9 am - 6 pm</p> <p>*Salary : 2.1-2.5 million won per month (depending on experience)</p> <p>*Vacation : about 2 weeks (one week for summer and one week for winter) + National holidays</p> <p>*Number of native teachers : 4</p> <p>*Requirements</p> <p>Be native English Speaker</p> <p>Hold a passport from 7 English Speaking countries(USA, UK, CA, IR, AU, NZ, SA)</p>
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The requirements outlined by the employer in Figure 2 primarily focused on teachers' L1 background (i.e., native English speaker) and specific citizenship. Notably, the employer extended eligibility to teachers from not only the six inner-circle countries (i.e., the United Kingdom, the United States, Australia, Canada, Ireland, and New Zealand) (Kachru, 1997, 2009) but also included one outer-circle country, South Africa (Kachru, 1997, 2009). While the employer did not explicitly state their rationale for including South Africa while

excluding other outer-circle countries (e.g., the Philippines, Zambia), one possible explanation can be found in the regulations established by the South Korean Ministry of Foreign Affairs (2015). These regulations stipulate that individuals seeking an English-language teaching visa (E-2 visa) in South Korea must be “a citizen of a country where English is the primary language. (U.S.A, Canada, Australia, New Zealand, England, Ireland and South Africa only)” (South Korean Ministry of Foreign Affairs, 2015, para. 1). Beyond the requirements related to L1 English and citizenship, the employer in Figure 2 did not specify additional TESOL occupational requirements, such as TESOL training, ESOL-teaching experiences, or to have learned another language in an instructed setting.

It is evident that both employers in Figure 1 and Figure 2 placed a strong emphasis on ESOL teachers’ English language competence (i.e., native speaker competence, native English speaker). However, there were differences in their occupational requirements. The New Zealand-based employer appeared to focus on a broader spectrum of qualifications, including TESOL knowledge and teaching practices. In contrast, the South Korea-based employer prioritized ESOL teachers’ countries of origin. These distinctions highlight how TESOL occupational requirements can vary from one country to another, reflecting local regulations and preferences within the global ESOL teaching profession.

#### **1.4 Motivation for this Research**

My motivation for conducting this research emanated from my language and cultural background as well as my extensive 20-year experience in teaching ESOL. I am an American of mixed heritage, comprising African-American, East Asian, European, and Native American. Growing up, I was immersed in three languages/dialects (English, Mandarin, and Taiwanese) within a family that highly valued our heritage languages and cultures. This diverse linguistic and cultural upbringing cultivated my deep-seated curiosity for languages

and cultures, prompting me to learn additional languages like Seediq/Taroko (an Atayalic language spoken by the indigenous Taiwanese people of the Taroko tribe), Japanese, and German. Prior to relocating to New Zealand in 2016, I dedicated over a decade to teaching ESOL in the private for-profit sector in Taiwan and Singapore, as well as in South Korean universities. During my stay in South Korea, I acquired the Korean language in informal settings. My experiences in both formal and informal AL learning, coupled with my diverse ESOL-teaching experiences across various countries, initially sparked my interest in delving deeper into the experiences of plurilingual ESOL teachers, like myself (see 2.6.1 for the definition of plurilingualism).

The foundation for this study took shape during my time teaching in-service TESOL programs in South Korea. In this role, I had the opportunity to observe ESOL teachers hailing from diverse backgrounds and facets of society, including those who spoke English as their L1 (i.e., native English-speaking teachers (NESTs)) and those who spoke English as an AL (i.e., non-native English-speaking teachers (non-NESTs)); monolingual and plurilingual teachers; those with TESOL experience in one country and those with international TESOL experience; those who only had experience teaching either young learners or adult learners and those with experience across both age groups; and those without prior work experience in other sectors and those who had transitioned from different professional paths. Throughout these observations of in-service ESOL teachers with varying backgrounds and experiences, I began to discern both similarities and differences in teaching practices, for example, in teachers' dealings with ELLs' learning struggles.

Continuing to reflect on my experiences as a teacher trainer who conducted separate training sessions for NESTs and non-NESTs due to course arrangements, I began to explore the distinction between these two teacher groups. It became evident that ESOL teachers' experiences as language learners potentially shaped their TESOL knowledge and teaching

practices. For example, non-NESTs frequently articulated their reflections on their ESOL-learning experiences during the courses, whereas a significantly smaller proportion of NESTs expressed similar sentiments. This observation fueled my determination to understand more about the relationship between ESOL teachers' past instructed AL learning, TESOL knowledge, teaching practices, and professional perceptions at both individual and TESOL-sector levels.

As I commenced the research process for this study, I embarked on a journey of self-reflection, immersing myself in questions surrounding my identity within the research context. How did my linguistic identity, my mixed heritage, and my status as a person of color (i.e., non-white) intersect with my researcher identity? In what way(s) would my ESOL teaching background and teacher knowledge influence my role as a researcher? Additionally, I wondered how my master's degree in psychology/human behavior would serve me in this study on language education. The simple answer to these complex questions lay in the fusion of my lived experiences and self-exploration as a researcher, and this fusion permeated every aspect of this study, from the formulation of the research questions to my selection of interpretative phenomenological analysis (IPA) as the analytical approach, and even my use of American English in this New Zealand-based thesis.

### **1.5 The Study's Ontological and Epistemological Stances**

As mentioned earlier, this study is grounded in the theoretical framings of 'teacher knowledge' and 'teacher linguistic identity', offering an approach to understanding the reported impact of ESOL teachers' past instructed AL learning on their TESOL knowledge, teaching practices, and perceptions of the profession. Elucidating the ontological and epistemological stances becomes paramount when exploring the study through the lens of these framings, as it establishes the philosophical groundwork for the research. Therefore,

this section examines these stances taken in the thesis concerning the nature of reality and knowledge.

### ***1.5.1 Ontology***

Ontology, often defined as the ‘study of being’ (Crotty, 2003; Demuro & Gurney, 2021), explores the nature of reality (Lincoln & Guba, 2013). At its core, it grapples with the fundamental question: What is the truth? Within the scope of this study, reality pertains to the perspectives held by ESOL teachers regarding their lived experiences. It encapsulates their individual interpretations of what they perceive as truth, as shaped by their subjective understanding.

In research, ontology is often categorized into realist and relativist positions (Willig, 2013). As this study was underpinned by the theoretical framings of ‘teacher knowledge’ and ‘teacher linguistic identity’, I adopted a relativist ontological stance for the study. In the realm of relativism, it is assumed that multiple realities exist, with these realities being inherently subjective and residing within the minds of individuals (Lincoln & Guba, 2013). That is, these realities are ‘relative’ because they are constructed and interpreted based on human experiences within specific contexts and moments in time (Creswell & Creswell, 2018). In the context of this study, I posited that some aspects of participants’ realities regarding their professional perceptions, both on an individual level and within the broader TESOL sector, were shaped by their experiences as former AL learners. Therefore, when exploring participants’ perceptions of their lived experiences through the theoretical lenses of ‘teacher knowledge’ and ‘teacher linguistic identity’, it became essential to accentuate the variations of individual interpretations of their experiences.

The ontological stance of relativism aligns with using IPA as the analytical approach within the theoretical framings of ‘teacher knowledge’ and ‘teacher linguistic identity’

because both acknowledge and accommodate the diverse and context-dependent nature of individuals' reality. IPA, with its emphasis on recognizing the uniqueness of each individual's experiences (Smith et al., 2009) (see 3.2.2), was chosen as the analytical approach for this study due to its suitability for examining the perspectives of participants with varied teacher knowledge and linguistic identities within the research context.

### ***1.5.2 Epistemology***

Epistemology is the study of the nature of knowledge (Swinburne, 2001). In research, epistemology is concerned with the researcher's chosen methods to explore and acquire knowledge (Walliman, 2011). According to Willig (2013), epistemology endeavors to address the question: "How, and what, can we know?" (p. 39).

In the context of this study, I assumed that ESOL teachers' perceptions of their past instructed AL learning were at least partly rooted in their interpretations of these experiences, such as their motivation for learning their AL(s), the challenges they encountered as AL learners, and the teaching practices enacted by their former AL teachers. Therefore, I adopted the epistemological stance of interpretivism within the theoretical framings of 'teacher knowledge' and 'teacher linguistic identity'. From an interpretivist stance, knowledge is considered idiographic and influenced by individuals within specific social contexts (Greene, 2010). Furthermore, knowledge is socially constructed, and interpretivists regard researchers as integral components of the research due to the interdependent and mutually interactive relationships that researchers maintain with their research participants (Hiller, 2016).

The epistemological stance of interpretivism aligns with the aim of IPA, which is to provide an in-depth understanding of how individuals perceive their lived experiences. IPA is primarily concerned with how research participants convey their perceptions of particular experiences in a given context, which involves some level of their interpretations of these

experiences (Smith et al., 2009) (see 3.2.2). Participants' interpretations are subsequently interpreted by the IPA researcher. This twofold interpretation is known as a double-hermeneutic process (Smith et al., 2009).

With an ontological position based on relativism and an epistemological position grounded in interpretivism, the underlying assumption was that each ESOL teacher uniquely constructed and interpreted their own realities and knowledge of the reported impact of their AL-learning experiences on their roles as teachers and their perceptions of their professional stance in the TESOL profession. Specifically, it was anticipated that both convergence and divergence would emerge among participants' subjective accounts of their experiences as former AL learners. While the convergent views may have been due to shared experiences, the divergent perspectives might have resulted from participants constructing their realities and knowledge based on a myriad of individual reference points, such as their linguistic and cultural backgrounds and other life experiences.

## **1.6 The Research Questions**

This study used the theoretical framings of 'teacher knowledge' and 'teacher linguistic identity' to examine the relationship between New Zealand-based ESOL teachers' past instructed AL learning and professional roles as teachers. It addressed the ORQ: How do New Zealand-based plurilingual ESOL teachers' instructed additional-language (AL) learning experiences impact their professional roles?

The study aimed to gain an understanding of the relationship between New Zealand-based ESOL teachers' experiences as former AL learners, TESOL knowledge, teaching practices, and professional perceptions at both individual and TESOL-sector levels. Therefore, the SQs that this study addressed are:

SQ1: How do ESOL teachers perceive the impact of their past instructed AL learning on their TESOL knowledge?

SQ2: In what ways do or don't they integrate their past instructed AL learning into their ESOL teaching practices?

SQ3: How do ESOL teachers perceive the impact of their instructed AL-learning experiences on their individual professional standing and the broader TESOL profession?

The study deliberately focused on the reported impact of AL learning to align with the context of ESOL teaching and to provide a comprehensive exploration of how ESOL teachers' past instructed AL learning impacts their professional roles. This focus allowed for a deeper understanding of the relevance of these experiences to teachers' knowledge and teaching practices in the context of TESOL. Additionally, narrowing the scope to AL learning, instead of examining ESOL teachers' general schooling experiences, ensured clarity, feasibility, and the ability to draw meaningful conclusions while avoiding the potential dilution of research focus that a broader investigation might entail.

## **1.7 Overview of the Research Design**

To investigate New Zealand-based ESOL teachers' perceptions concerning the reported impact of their language-learning experiences, I conducted a qualitative study using IPA within the theoretical framings of 'teacher knowledge' and 'teacher linguistic identity', guiding the data analysis. Given the study's emphasis on how participants perceived the meanings of their experiences as ESOL teachers with past instructed AL learning, a qualitative research design that could facilitate an in-depth understanding of these perceptions was adopted. IPA, in particular, emerged as a suitable choice because it aligns with a

participant-oriented approach, granting participants a voice to describe and ascribe meanings to their experiences through their recollections.

The main study, built upon insights from a pilot study, involved the participation of fourteen New Zealand-based ESOL teachers who had past instructed AL learning. All participants possessed TESOL training, but the study specifically focussed on their perceptions regarding the reported impact their AL-learning experiences (a component of their linguistic identity) had on their TESOL knowledge and teaching practices, as well as how they viewed their professional stance in the TESOL profession (a part of their teacher knowledge). To collect participants' perceptions, data collection methods included focus-group discussions, semi-structured one-on-one interviews, and follow-up email communications. The analysis of this qualitative data followed the seven analytical steps within IPA. Through this analysis, three main themes and eight sub-themes emerged, shedding light on the complex interplay between participants' past instructed AL learning and their roles as ESOL teachers.

## **1.8 Significance of the Study**

The potential contribution of this study to the extension of existing knowledge, development of theory, and enhancement of research methods is discussed in the following sub-sections.

### ***1.8.1 Contribution to Existing Knowledge***

While previous researchers (e.g., Reeves, 2009; Sanchez, 2014) have attempted to identify factors impacting ESOL teachers' knowledge and teaching practices, this study has reinforced the notion that teachers' past instructed AL learning shapes various aspects of their professional roles. This study adopted a holistic approach, which perceives ESOL teachers'

instructed AL-learning experiences as ongoing interactions between what teachers know (i.e., teacher knowledge) and how they identify themselves linguistically (i.e., teacher linguistic identity). This approach was deemed appropriate because it recognizes the complexity and non-linearity of these experiences. Rather than introducing entirely new knowledge, the study has expanded upon existing knowledge. Specifically, the empirical significance lies in the identification of past instructed AL learning as an important source of ESOL teachers' TESOL knowledge and teaching practices. The study has been able to do this by drawing on the insights of both NEST and non-NEST plurilingual teachers in terms of AL learning and how they cycle these experiences in their teaching. Furthermore, the study provides insights for TESOL qualification providers, such as tertiary institutions and teacher-training programs. This research also holds relevance for stakeholders in both public and private TESOL sectors because it examines how the conventional NEST/non-NEST dichotomy offers limited insights into teacher expertise and underscores the importance of ESOL teachers being proficient AL users, regardless of their L1(s).

### **1.8.1 Contribution to Theory**

Recent publications have demonstrated a growing body of research in ESOL education research, particularly in the analysis of teaching practices, where a teacher cognition framework is incorporated (e.g., Andrews, 2007; S. Borg, 2003). In this context, the application of theoretical framings of 'teacher knowledge' (a sub-set of teacher cognition) and 'teacher linguistic identity' (a source of teacher knowledge) appeared to be suitable for exploring and communicating ESOL teachers' perceptions of how their instructed AL-learning experiences impacted their professional roles. As E. Ellis (2006) highlighted, while there is some acknowledgment that language-learning experiences contribute to the knowledge base of ESOL teachers, there has not been a systematic investigation into precisely what this contribution entails. To complete this task effectively, a holistic approach

to understanding participants' past instructed AL learning needed to be explored, particularly how these experiences (i.e., part of their linguistic identity) translate into their TESOL knowledge (i.e., part of their teacher knowledge) and teaching practices.

### **1.8.2 Contribution to Methodology**

The methodological significance of this study is underscored by the utilization of IPA within the theoretical framings of 'teacher knowledge' and 'teacher linguistic identity', which served as the analytical approach for examining the reported impacts of participants' past instructed AL learning. This approach facilitates a comprehensive exploration of participants' subjective perspectives, offering valuable qualitative insights into the intricate relationship between their past instructed AL learning and their roles as ESOL teachers, particularly their TESOL knowledge and teaching practices. Consequently, this methodological approach contributes to an insightful understanding of the dynamics within the field of AL education.

### **1.9 Thesis Structure**

This thesis comprises eight chapters. Following this introductory chapter, **chapter two** serves as the literature review chapter. Given the theoretical framings of 'teacher knowledge' and 'teacher linguistic identity' of this study, chapter two examines the definition and components of teacher cognition, with a particular focus on teacher knowledge. Considering that ESOL teachers' experiences in learning an AL are part of their linguistic identities and a source of their knowledge, this chapter also reviews language teacher linguistic identity. Subsequently, the chapter contextualizes the study by reviewing the literature pertaining to AL education and ESOL education. Next, the chapter examines existing studies on factors that can impact instructed AL learning, common AL teaching approaches and practices, potential benefits of instructed AL learning, AL teachers' empathy for learners, the TESOL sector's perception of ESOL teachers' linguistic identities, and

existing research on ESOL teachers' language-learning experiences. Finally, the literature review chapter identifies gaps in previous research, subsequently leading to the formulation of the research questions, including the overarching research question (ORQ) and sub-questions (SQs), which serve to guide this study.

As this study is framed by 'teacher knowledge' and 'teacher linguistic identity' to explore the reported impact of ESOL teachers' instructed AL-learning experiences, **chapter three** commences with an examination of how these theoretical framings align with IPA. Specifically, it explores the integration of these framings within IPA's three key areas of the philosophy of knowledge (i.e., phenomenology, hermeneutics, and idiography) (Smith et al., 2009). Subsequently, the chapter elaborates on this study's research design, ethics considerations, pilot study, data collection methods, and the analytical steps within IPA. It provides examples of how data were analyzed across the analytical steps. Three main themes and eight sub-themes emerged from the data analysis. An example of how participants' quotations are presented in the findings chapters (four, five, and six) is also presented in chapter three. The chapter discusses the researcher's positionality before moving on to considerations of trustworthiness to ensure the rigor and credibility of the study. Finally, the chapter concludes by summarizing its key elements, setting the stage for the subsequent chapters to present the research findings and their implications.

**Chapter four** explains the main theme, *past instructed AL learning and its reported impact on ESOL teaching*, as well as the three connecting sub-themes. The theme addresses the ORQ, SQ1, and SQ2, as it is concerned with participants' experiences with their former AL teachers' teaching approaches and practices, as well as the reported impact of these experiences on their TESOL knowledge and teaching practices.

**Chapter five** presents another main theme, *enhanced empathy for English language learners (ELLs)*, with two sub-themes. The ORQ and SQ2 are addressed in this theme. Participants' experiential knowledge of the instructed AL-learning process as learners reportedly allowed them to reflect on their own past learning, which helped them deeply empathize with and respond to their ELLs' learning.

**Chapter six** presents another main theme: *teachers' perceptions of the TESOL profession*, with three sub-themes. This theme addresses the ORQ and SQ3. The findings emphasize a perceived preference for employing ESOL teachers based on their countries of origin and L1(s), accents, and physical appearances. Furthermore, it is suggested that teachers who do not conform to particular profiles (i.e., 'white' NESTs with a native English accent) are likely to encounter discriminatory workplace and hiring practices in the TESOL profession.

**Chapter seven** presents a discussion and interpretation of the findings reported in chapters four, five, and six in relation to existing literature.

**Chapter eight** is the conclusion chapter, summarizing the main findings of this study. The chapter also presents the contributions of the study, research limitations, and recommendations for future research.

## **1.10 Conclusion**

This introductory chapter has provided the groundwork for understanding the context and motivation behind this study. It commenced by presenting an overview of this study before discussing the current global status of the English language. Then, it provided a brief overview of how the language gained dominance in New Zealand and the current state of the country's TESOL sector. Notably, the chapter examined and critiqued the TESOL

occupational requirements in New Zealand, revealing that ESOL teachers' instructed AL-learning experiences are not among these requirements, despite variations based on teaching sectors and training origins. The chapter then discussed my motivation as the researcher for conducting this study within the theoretical framings of 'teacher knowledge' and 'teacher linguistic identity', driven by my linguistic identity and TESOL experiences. Following this, the study's ontological and epistemological stances were elucidated. The chapter also introduced the research questions, comprising one overarching question and three sub-questions. The subsequent section outlined the structure of this thesis, delineating the composition of the study, which encompasses eight chapters: one literature review chapter, one methodology chapter, three findings chapters, one discussion chapter, and one concluding chapter. The following chapter will provide an extensive review of the existing literature.

## Chapter Two: Literature Review

### 2.1 Introduction

This chapter reviews the theoretical and empirical literature that forms the foundation of this study, focusing on the impact of instructed AL learning on ESOL teaching. Using the theoretical framings of ‘teacher knowledge’ and ‘teacher identity’, the study examines the reported impact of New Zealand-based ESOL teachers’ past instructed AL learning on their TESOL knowledge, teaching practices, and professional perceptions of the profession at both individual and TESOL-sector levels. The theoretical framings underpinning this study are explained first (2.2), followed by overviews of AL and ESOL education (2.3). Factors potentially impacting individuals’ perceptions of their instructed AL-learning experiences are discussed in 2.4. As AL teachers’ teaching approaches and practices are one such factor, 2.5 discusses these. The potential benefits of instructed AL learning (2.6) and AL teachers’ empathy for learners are reviewed (2.7), followed by an examination of existing research on the TESOL sector’s perceptions of ESOL teachers’ linguistic identities (2.8). Section 2.9 critically engages literature on ESOL teachers’ past instructed AL learning, and the chapter concludes by addressing research gaps and proposing the research questions to be explored (2.10).

### 2.2 Theoretical Framing

This study employs the theoretical framings of ‘teacher knowledge’ and ‘teacher linguistic identity’ to examine the relationship between ESOL teachers’ past instructed AL learning, TESOL knowledge, teaching practices, and perceptions of the profession at both individual and TESOL-sector levels. Teacher knowledge refers to teachers’ understanding of the content they teach and the teaching practices they apply (Grossman & Richert, 1988),

while AL teacher linguistic identity pertains to individual teachers' identification as users and/or learners of one or more languages/dialects. To establish a comprehensive understanding of the constructs of 'teacher knowledge' and 'teacher linguistic identity', a starting point lies in examining the overarching notion of 'teacher cognition' (2.2.1). Teacher cognition refers to the self-reflections, beliefs, and knowledge regarding teaching, students, and subject matter, as well as the awareness of problem-solving strategies specific to classroom teaching exhibited by pre- or in-service teachers (Kagan, 1990). In the context of AL teaching, teaching cognition encompasses the unobservable cognitive aspects, including teacher beliefs, attitudes, and knowledge, which AL teachers utilize to interpret and respond to classroom situations (S. Borg, 2004a, 2006). To ensure the requisite specificity for the present study, this literature review narrows the focus to one of the three aspects of AL teacher cognition for language teaching: AL teacher knowledge. This knowledge, which incorporates diverse sources and dimensions (Clarke & Hollingsworth, 2002; Kubanyiova & Feryok, 2015), will be examined in this literature with a specific focus on the sources of AL teacher knowledge (2.2.2). Given that teacher linguistic identity, including linguistic repertoire, is perceived as a contributing factor to teacher knowledge, it is subject to an in-depth examination in this study (2.2.3). This review explicates the relationship and interdependencies between the conceptual constructs of AL teacher cognition, knowledge, and linguistic identity. The theoretical framings of 'teacher knowledge' and 'teacher linguistic identity' serve as a conceptual lens through which this study explores the reported impacts of New Zealand-based ESOL teachers' knowledge and linguistic identities on their professional roles, including their teaching practices.

### 2.2.1 *AL Teacher Cognition*

Teacher cognition encompasses the cognitive aspects of teachers' work, including their beliefs, attitudes, and knowledge, which impact their teaching practices (Kagan, 1990; S. Borg, 2003). These elements collectively shape teachers' understanding of teaching and learning, impacting their behaviors in the classroom. The elements of AL teacher cognition (i.e., beliefs, attitudes, and knowledge) often exhibit overlapping characteristics and inform one another, further contributing to the complexity of understanding AL teachers' cognitive processes. While these cognitive processes are unobservable (S. Borg, 2019), their impacts can be identified through observable behaviors, such as AL teachers' reflections (verbal and written), decision-making, and teaching practices (S. Borg, 2003). The subsequent parts review the existing literature concerning teacher beliefs, teacher attitudes, and teacher knowledge, respectively, explaining their conceptual relevance and significance within the theoretical framings of the present study.

**Teacher Beliefs.** One of the central aspects of AL teacher cognition is teacher beliefs (S. Borg, 2003, 2006). Beliefs are generally defined as understandings that are perceived as true by individuals. This study adopts Basturkmen et al.'s (2004) definition of teacher beliefs, which refers to language teachers' perceptions regarding what "should be done", "should be the case", and "is preferable" (p. 244) in the classroom. This definition shows that teacher beliefs exhibit several characteristics that distinguish them as a unique construct within language education. One such characteristic is that teacher beliefs are deeply ingrained at a subconscious level (Farrell, 2013a, 2013b) and can be impacted by factors such as teachers' cultural backgrounds (Bao, 2019), educational backgrounds (Evans et al., 2010), professional experiences (Rahimi & Zhang, 2015), and AL-learning experiences (E. Ellis, 2013). For example, Bao (2019) conducted a study that examined the relationship between eight China-based Chinese-language teachers' beliefs and their corrective feedback practices. Through

analysis of questionnaire responses and classroom observations, Bao (2019) found that these teachers' beliefs regarding their professional roles had a greater impact on their teaching practices than their beliefs concerning factors that could impact student learning. Bao (2019) attributed this outcome to these teachers' Confucian cultural backgrounds. In Confucian cultures (e.g., Chinese, Japanese, Korean), teachers are generally perceived (by themselves and by learners) as knowledge providers for imparting knowledge to learners (Tan, 2018; Wette & Barkhuizen, 2009). Researchers like Aubrey (2020) and Jeon (2018) suggest that ESOL teachers from these cultural backgrounds may tend to enact teaching practices that allow them to control what and how their students learn.

Another characteristic of teacher beliefs is that they are inherently dynamic and capable of changing over time (Mattheoudakis, 2007). Such changes can occur when, for example, AL teachers engage in ongoing professional development (Karaca & Uysal, 2023) and teacher education and training (Woll, 2020). A study conducted by Woll (2020) examined Canada-based pre-service ESOL teachers' beliefs regarding the effectiveness of crosslinguistic pedagogy (i.e., a teaching approach that recognizes and leverages the similarities and differences between learners' L1 and ALs to support language learning). Her study involved participants experiencing the approach as AL learners in a German-language course as part of their language-teacher education program. Woll (2020) found that her participants' teacher beliefs were shaped by their exposure to scholarly authorities during their teacher education and training, including published research, respected professors, and experienced AL teachers.

Teacher beliefs are cognitive constructs that serve as mental frameworks, shaping language teachers' understanding and practices in the language classroom. While there may be some assumptions regarding connections between the beliefs of AL teachers and their teaching practices (e.g., Aubrey, 2020; Jeon, 2018), findings of various research indicate that

a direct correspondence between these beliefs and practices may not universally prevail (e.g., Basturkmen et al., 2004; Farrell & Ives, 2015). In a case study conducted by Farrell and Ives (2015), the aim was to investigate whether the reported teacher beliefs of an ESOL teacher in Canada regarding teaching reading were consistent with the teacher's observed teaching practices. The study showed that the participant's beliefs were reflected partially in different aspects of his teaching practices (Farrell & Ives, 2015). Furthermore, Farrell and Ives (2015) found that the teacher's reflections on his beliefs and teaching practices led him to recognize that his teacher beliefs could impact his teaching practices, and conversely, his teaching practices could also shape his teacher beliefs through teaching reflections. This notion aligns with Phipps's and Borg's (2009) claims about how AL teacher beliefs can impact teaching practices and, conversely, how practices can induce shifts in beliefs over time.

**Teacher Attitudes.** In addition to teacher beliefs, another component of AL teacher cognition involves teachers' attitudes (S. Borg, 2003). Attitudes generally refer to individuals' feelings or perceptions about something. Eagly and Chaiken (1993) define attitudes as predispositions that become evident when individuals assess an entity with varying degrees of favorability or unfavorability. According to Rakap et al. (2016), teacher attitudes generally arise from various aspects of their experiences (e.g., cultural backgrounds, social environment) and can manifest as positive, negative, or occasionally ambiguous. Like beliefs, AL teachers' attitudes can, therefore, impact how they enact their teaching practices. Savvani's (2021) study exemplifies this notion of AL teacher attitudes. In her research on how ESOL teachers in Greek state schools utilize technology to optimize student participation, she found connections between teachers' attitudes and teaching practices (Savvani, 2021). Findings in Savvani's (2021) research showed that these teachers exhibited an overall positive attitude toward integrating technology into their ESOL teaching, consequently resulting in their adoption of such teaching practices.

Another study that underscores the notion of the connections between AL teachers' attitudes and teaching practices is research conducted by McMillan and Rivers (2011). Their study involved an attitudinal survey with 29 ESOL teachers who spoke English as their L1 (i.e., native English-speaking teachers or NESTs) at a Japanese university, focusing on these teachers' attitudes toward their students' exclusive use of the English language in the classroom. The findings indicated a contrast between the university's English-only policy and the teachers' reported attitudes and teaching practices (McMillan & Rivers, 2011). In particular, many teachers in the study expressed positive attitudes toward adopting a plurilingual approach involving both English and Japanese to enhance their students' learning. Plurilingualism refers to "the dynamic use of multiple languages/varieties and cultural knowledge, awareness and/or experience in social situations" (Council of Europe, 2023, para. 2). Consequently, some of the teachers in McMillan's and Rivers's (2011) study permitted the use of Japanese by their students in the classroom. Both Savvani's (2021) and McMillan's and Rivers' (2011) studies highlight the impact of teachers' attitudes toward their utilization of particular teaching practices, demonstrating the role of AL teacher cognition in shaping their teaching practices.

**Teacher Knowledge.** Another aspect of AL teacher cognition is teacher knowledge (S. Borg, 2003), which is one of the two theoretical framings of this study. Teacher knowledge generally pertains to teachers' understanding of the content they teach and their teaching practices. Various researchers have attempted to capture what AL teachers know by proposing and discussing terms such as disciplinary content knowledge (Shulman, 1986), curricular knowledge (Shulman, 1986), pedagogical content knowledge (Shulman, 1986), content knowledge (Wilson et al., 1987), knowledge base for teaching (Freeman & Johnson, 1998), pedagogical knowledge (Gatbonton, 2000), knowledge about language (S. Borg, 2005), and professional knowledge in action (Wette, 2010). Additionally, in Basturkmen et

al.'s (2004) work, they discussed AL teachers' 'technical knowledge' (i.e., pedagogical knowledge gained through training) and 'practical knowledge' (i.e., pedagogical knowledge gained through teaching). The diverse terminologies researchers employ to describe AL teachers' knowledge highlight the multifaceted dimensions of such knowledge. Therefore, a common assumption is that sources of AL teachers' teacher knowledge extend beyond their subject-matter expertise and training, encompassing impacts from various aspects of their personal, educational, and professional backgrounds (Basturkmen, 2012; Byrd et al., 2011; S. Borg, 2011). One notable source is teachers' own schooling (S. Borg, 2003), such as their experiences as AL learners.

Given the multitude of categorizations proposed for teacher knowledge as noted above, this study uses the terms 'language-pedagogical knowledge' and 'TESOL knowledge' to describe the specific knowledge domains that are relevant to the research objectives of this study. Language-pedagogical knowledge, as defined by Mullock (2006), refers to AL teachers' (including ESOL teachers') specialized comprehension and expertise in language-teaching objectives, theories of teaching, and instructional strategies that guide their decisions and practices in the classroom. This knowledge encompasses AL teachers' understanding of how students learn, the teaching practices effective for facilitating learning, and how instruction can be adapted to meet learners' diverse needs. Furthermore, language-pedagogical knowledge is not a static entity but a continuously evolving understanding shaped by various aspects of individual teachers' experiences, including their teaching experiences, language-teacher education and training, and experiences as AL learners (Kiely & Askham, 2012; Moodie, 2016; Rahimi & Zhang, 2015). Further elaboration will be provided in 2.2.2.

TESOL knowledge refers to the specialized teacher knowledge for teaching ESOL. This knowledge encompasses teachers' pedagogically-oriented explanations of phonology

(i.e., sounds and sound patterns of language), syntax (i.e., rules governing the arrangement of words and phrases), and discourse (i.e., the way language is used in communication to convey meaning) while also a comprehensive understanding of the underlying principles governing language learning (Faez, 2011b). That is, ESOL teachers need to demonstrate proficiency in comprehending English materials and effectively conveying them to ELLs. Various researchers (e.g., Reeves, 2009; Sanchez, 2014) have examined whether/how teachers' TESOL knowledge shapes their teaching practices. For example, Sanchez (2014) investigated how TESOL knowledge, particularly the knowledge of grammar, of two Argentina-based non-NESTs contributed to their pedagogical decisions. He observed that this knowledge impacted his participants' pedagogical decisions. Additionally, Sanchez's (2014) study highlighted that these decisions were subject to various factors, including the teachers' perceptions of their knowledge of English grammar. These perceptions, in turn, shaped the teachers' grammar-teaching practices, such as utilizing hedging expressions when providing students with grammar explanations (Sanchez, 2014).

By focusing on 'teacher knowledge' rather than the broader concept of 'teacher cognition', the present study can examine the specific domains of 'language-pedagogical knowledge' and 'TESOL knowledge' that impact ESOL teachers' teaching practices. As mentioned, teacher knowledge is shaped by various aspects of individual teachers' experiences. Consequently, the subsequent sub-section reviews pertinent literature on the common sources of AL teachers' teacher knowledge.

### ***2.2.2 Sources of AL Teachers' Teacher Knowledge***

In teacher cognition research, researchers such as Clandinin (1985) and Shulman (1987) have laid the groundwork for many researchers by focusing on teacher knowledge. Clandinin (1985) explains that teacher knowledge is a combination of theoretical and

personal practical knowledge. While theoretical knowledge involves theories of learning, teaching, and curriculum, personal practical knowledge refers to individuals' "emotional and moral knowledge" (Clandinin, 1985, p. 384) that exercises their capacities to imaginatively structure their perceptions in a way that is dependent on the context (Johnson, 1984). The literature on language education suggests that teacher knowledge may originate from different sources, potentially impacting AL teachers' teaching practices (e.g., Kiely & Askham, 2012; Rahimi & Zhang, 2015; Moodie, 2016). Such sources should not be regarded as distinct entities as they often inform one another. The relevant sources of teacher knowledge that can impact AL teachers' teaching practices include:

- Teachers' teaching experiences;
- Language-teacher education and training; and
- Teachers' instructed AL-learning experiences (Kiely & Askham, 2012; Moodie, 2016; Rahimi & Zhang, 2015).

**Teachers' Teaching Experiences.** AL teachers' teaching experiences, including those of ESOL teachers, contribute to their teacher knowledge (Demir & Özmen, 2017; Evans et al., 2010). As Freeman (2002) explains, teachers' knowledge in the AL classroom forms a network integrating teachers' past experiences and future objectives with the present context of ongoing activities and interactions. That is, some aspects of teacher knowledge are derived from AL teachers' active participation in teaching practices and the social and institutional contexts in which they work.

Through hands-on involvement in enacting varying teaching practices, AL teachers can gain insights and expertise that enable them to navigate their professional roles effectively. According to Basturkmen et al. (2004), AL teachers do not merely rely on their technical knowledge, i.e., pedagogical knowledge gained through training, but often on their

practical knowledge, i.e., pedagogical knowledge gained through teaching. As AL teachers actively engage in the classroom, making decisions and implementing various teaching approaches, methods, and activities, they have firsthand exposure to their students' learning outcomes and challenges associated with particular teaching practices (Reeves, 2009). These experiences become a source of reference, allowing AL teachers to draw upon their accumulated knowledge, insights, and reflections to make informed pedagogical decisions that align with the learning needs of their students (Basturkmen, 2012; Rahimi & Zhang, 2015). This notion is exemplified in a study conducted by Rahimi and Zhang (2015). They compared the differences between novice and experienced non-native English-speaking teachers (non-NESTs) in their decisions about applying corrective feedback (CF) practices for teaching oral communication (Rahimi & Zhang, 2015). The data for the study were obtained from 20 novice ESOL teachers and 20 experienced ESOL teachers based in Iran, utilizing a questionnaire and subsequent interviews. Through the analysis of the interview data, Rahimi and Zhang (2015) found that their research participants' teaching experiences impacted their awareness of several mediating factors of effective CF, such as types and severity of errors, the difficulty of the target form, and task types. Furthermore, according to Rahimi and Zhang (2015), the experienced teachers' reported CF practices were generally flexible, and they maintained that this flexibility derived from these teachers theorizing from their past teaching practices.

**Language-Teacher Education and Training.** Language-teacher education and training, whether for pre-service or in-service, can contribute to AL teachers' knowledge (Kiely & Askham, 2012; S. Borg, 2011). While language-teacher education generally emphasizes 'theory-based' knowledge (e.g., learning theory, pedagogical theory) (Larzén-Östermark, 2009), language-teacher training is 'practice based' which is aimed at equipping teachers with the knowledge and skills required in the classroom (e.g., subject-matter

knowledge, pedagogical knowledge) (Richards, 2010). Language-teacher education and training are particularly relevant in the present study as the participants are all certified ESOL teachers.

Many studies have found the impacts of language-teacher education and training on teacher knowledge and teaching practices regardless of the term of such courses (e.g., da Silva, 2005; S. Borg, 2011). For example, S. Borg (2011) conducted a study that investigated how an eight-week teacher-education program impacted the beliefs of six UK-based ESOL teachers. One of S. Borg's (2011) participants reported that the program enhanced her knowledge of language-teaching theories and language-education terminology. Similarly, da Silva's (2005) study of three Brazilian pre-service ESOL teachers found that these teachers used their theoretical knowledge as a source of their teacher knowledge. More specifically, the teachers utilized this knowledge as a guiding principle for interpreting and understanding their teaching practices during their teaching practicum (da Silva, 2005).

The impacts of language-teacher education and training on teacher knowledge, particularly practice-based knowledge, are also evident in many studies (e.g., Kiely & Askham, 2012; Macalister, 2016). An example is Kiely's and Askham's (2012) study investigating how TESOL programs contributed to pre-service teachers' readiness to teach. They interviewed 27 novice teachers early in their ESOL-teaching careers in Asia, Europe, and North America. Kiely and Askham (2012) found that TESOL training contributed to these teachers' understanding of what ESOL teaching involved, requiring them to reflect on their teaching practices. For instance, some participants reported that their TESOL program allowed them to become mindful of their teacher talk time in the classroom (Kiely & Askham, 2012).

Another component of language-teacher education and training is structured language-learning experiences (SLLE) (E. Ellis, 2003, 2006). According to researchers such as E. Ellis (2012, 2013) and McCrocklin (2019), SLLE can contribute to teacher knowledge, which may further impact teachers' teaching practices. The SLLE involves planned and structured language-learning activities through a single lesson or a series of lessons (E. Ellis, 2012) to provide AL teachers with contextualized language-learning experiences to enhance their understanding of language-learning processes and promote a reflective approach to their pedagogical practices (McCrocklin, 2019). Simply put, the SLLE component of language-teacher education and training allows AL teachers to walk in their students' shoes. An example showcasing the potential impact of SLLE is Forman's (2015) study, which investigated the perceptions of 60 Australia-based ESOL teachers regarding their experiences with a short, structured Thai-language learning component as part of their postgraduate TESOL study. He found that these teachers, irrespective of their linguistic identities (e.g., monolingual, bilingual), positively evaluated their SLLE (Forman, 2015). Several participants in Forman's (2015) study pointed out that the SLLE allowed them to be more mindful of their own teaching practices. For instance, one participant highlighted how they became aware of the importance of teaching ELLs language applicable to everyday situations, particularly for beginner learners.

Other researchers (e.g., E. Ellis, 2016b; Mollaei & Rahnama, 2012) have also noted the benefits of the SLLE. One of the main advantages of the SLLE, according to E. Ellis (2016b), is that it enhances AL teachers' empathy toward their students. Through their experiences of grappling with the complexities of language-learning processes, teachers develop a deepened understanding of the challenges faced by their students (E. Ellis, 2016b). In addition, as Mollaei and Rahnama (2012) note, the SLLE provides AL teachers with valuable insights into language pedagogy from the perspectives of language learners,

enabling them to increase their understanding of the cognitive processes involved in instructed language learning. By reflecting on the effectiveness of their SLLE, AL teachers can identify areas that they need to improve in their own teaching practices. Research (e.g., E. Ellis, 2016b; Mollaei & Rahnama, 2012) on the impacts of SLLE on teacher knowledge and teaching practices is relevant to the present study as it highlights the benefits of teachers' instructed AL-learning experiences.

However, there are some shortcomings of the SLLE that warrant consideration. One of the primary limitations is that the SLLE is often short-term, meaning AL teachers do not fully experience the different stages of AL-learning processes. Due to this, teachers may be unable to fully grasp the long-term processes of instructed AL learning and might not develop a comprehensive understanding of the challenges their students face throughout each stage of their learning. Moreover, short-term SLLE may not expose AL teachers to various sociocultural and cognitive factors (e.g., cultural norms, aptitude) that can impact language learning, potentially limiting their ability to address these factors in their teaching practices.

**Teachers' Instructed AL-Learning Experiences.** AL teachers' experiences in instructed AL learning can contribute to their language teacher knowledge (E. Ellis, 2004b, 2013; Moodie, 2016). According to E. Ellis (2013) and Moodie (2016), AL teachers may gain insights into different teaching practices through their instructed AL-learning experiences. For example, Moodie's (2016) study of 18 South Korean ESOL teachers shows that their experiences learning English contributed to their teacher knowledge, particularly their pedagogical knowledge of effective and ineffective teaching practices, and informed their teaching practices. These prior learning experiences, which involved teachers observing and evaluating their former teachers in action, are described by researchers as the 'apprenticeship of observation' (Lortie, 1975; Cancino et al., 2020; E. Ellis, 2013). The apprenticeship of observation refers to the process through which aspiring teachers develop their perceptions of

teaching and the roles of teachers based on their experiences as students (Lortie, 1975). The following sub-section provides a brief overview of the apprenticeship of observation.

***Apprenticeship of Observation.*** Apprenticeship of observation refers to the knowledge teachers gain from observing their teachers in previous educational experiences (Lortie, 1975). Researchers (e.g., Moodie, 2016; Westrick & Morris, 2016) have pointed out both the advantages and drawbacks of teachers learning through the apprenticeship of observation. On the one hand, it has been argued that aspiring teachers' understanding of learning and teaching and their own teaching practices are heavily impacted by their prior classroom experiences observing their teachers (e.g., Lortie, 1975; Moodie, 2016). Lortie (1975) contends that students (potentially future teachers) observe and internalize teaching practices from their teachers. Such observations and internalizations inform future teachers' teacher knowledge, often leading to reflexively incorporating some of their former teachers' practices into their own teaching (Lortie, 1975). Various studies, such as those conducted by Cancino et al. (2020) and Moodie (2016), have reported how ESOL teachers' prior schooling informed their teacher knowledge. For example, the experiences reported by ESOL teachers in Moodie's (2016) study underscored the vital role their English-learning experiences played in shaping their teacher knowledge, particularly in understanding effective and ineffective teaching practices.

On the other hand, researchers (e.g., Lortie, 1975; Westrick & Morris, 2016) have raised concerns regarding the problematic nature of teachers' apprenticeship of observation. One such concern is that as former students or 'apprentices', teachers primarily focused on their learning rather than their own teaching. Consequently, they possess a limited perspective, lacking an understanding of their former teachers' pedagogical decisions and practices (M. Borg, 2004; Westrick & Morris, 2016), as their observations were predominantly "intuitive and imitative rather than explicit and analytical" (Lortie, 1975, p.

62). Another issue of apprenticeship of observation highlighted by Lortie (1975) is that it has the potential to impede the impact of teacher education and training. Gray's (2020) study, however, examined how ten US-based novice primary school teachers incorporated or rejected classroom management practices they observed as primary school students. She found that these teachers agentically drew on their teacher knowledge and teaching practices from various sources, namely the recall of their experiences as schoolchildren, the teacher education and training they received, and their observations of teaching practices their more experienced peers employed (Gray, 2020). Similarly, after exploring the secondary schooling experiences of 42 pre-service teachers in Ireland, Crowe and McGarr (2022) found that teachers filtered out the irrelevant aspects of their schooling experiences and focused on the teaching practices that would be helpful in their future careers. Findings in Gray's (2020) and Crowe's and McGarr's (2022) studies suggest that the apprenticeship of observation is merely one component within a broader framework of teacher knowledge. By examining ESOL teachers' past instructed AL learning, which includes their apprenticeship of observation, the present study aims to examine the reported impacts of teachers' past learning on their TESOL knowledge and practices.

One aspect of teacher knowledge gained through instructed AL learning pertains to the cultivation of AL teachers' linguistic identities (E. Ellis, 2016a). Linguistic identity, a multifaceted and dynamic construction, encompasses an individual's sense of self and belonging in relation to the languages/dialects they speak, accents, and the cultural associations tied to their language use (Faez, 2011a, 2011c). As 'teacher linguistic identity' is one of the theoretical framings of this study, the subsequent sub-section presents a comprehensive review of the literature regarding the formation of AL teachers' linguistic identities and how this impacts their AL teaching.

### 2.2.3 *AL Teachers' Linguistic Identities*

AL teachers', including ESOL teachers', linguistic identities have gained attention and have been discussed extensively in the applied linguistics literature (e.g., Aneja, 2016; E. Ellis, 2016a; X. Zheng, 2017). Calafato (2019) analyzed 84 empirical studies on the linguistic identities of non-NESTs between 2009 and 2018. He found an increasing number of studies focusing on documenting the distinctive advantages of non-NESTs' linguistic identities in the global TESOL sector, including their plurilingual practices.

The formation of AL teachers' linguistic identities is a dynamic and fluid construct. It involves how teachers perceive themselves and are perceived by others in the AL-teaching profession concerning their language use, including factors such as their linguistic repertoires (in their L1s or ALs, or both), accents, and language-learning experiences. Additionally, it is about how they see their roles as teachers in helping to construct their students' linguistic identities and being aware that this process is ongoing language learning. Regarding the contributions of AL teachers' linguistic identities, researchers such as E. Ellis (2016a) and Motha et al. (2012) contend that such identities of teachers have the potential to serve as valuable pedagogical assets. More specifically, they maintain that plurilingual AL teachers' experiences of navigating multiple languages lead to the development of their teacher cognition (including their teacher knowledge), shape their perspectives of AL-learning and teaching processes, and contribute to their teaching practices (E. Ellis, 2013, 2016a; Motha et al., 2012). For example, E. Ellis (2013) conducted a study that examined the experiences of Australia-based ESOL teachers with varying linguistic identities. Her analysis of the data focused on two aspects of these teachers' reported impacts of their past AL learning on their teaching practices. One involved the teachers' understanding of their own AL-learning strategies, preferences, and communication techniques, which provided them with valuable insights into their students' behaviors as ELLs (E. Ellis, 2013). Another, according to E. Ellis

(2013), encompassed the teachers' experiential knowledge of the emotional issues involved in AL learning, providing them with a firsthand understanding of what it feels like to undergo the process of AL learning.

Despite researchers' (e.g., E. Ellis, 2013; Motha et al., 2012) reporting of the contributions of AL teachers' linguistic identities to their teacher knowledge and teaching practices, there is evidence that teachers' linguistic identities are overlooked in the profession (e.g., E. Ellis, 2016a; Palou & Tresserra, 2015). For instance, Palou and Tresserras (2015) conducted a study on the linguistic identities of AL teachers, where teachers reported that commonly utilized AL-teaching approaches led to the exclusion of their L1s in classroom settings due to the diverse linguistic backgrounds of their students. Similarly, E. Ellis (2016a) points out that the complexity and importance of ESOL teachers' linguistic identities, such as their plurilingual proficiency, are often unrecognized in the TESOL sector. According to E. Ellis (2016a), the TESOL sector only considers one aspect of ESOL teachers' linguistic identities, namely their L1, specifically whether they are NESTs or non-NESTs. She maintains that such dichotomy continues to exist in the minds of various stakeholders (e.g., ELLs, ESOL teachers, and employers) in the global TESOL sector. Section 2.9 a literature review of the NESTs and non-NESTs dichotomy, along with other relevant repercussions stemming from this separation.

Various researchers (e.g., Faez, 2011c; Pavlenko, 2003) have rejected and criticized the NEST/non-NEST dichotomous classification for ESOL teachers. Instead, Faez (2011c), for instance, introduced six possible categorizations of linguistic identity among ESOL teachers: bilingual, English as an L1 speaker, second-generation English speaker, English-dominant, and L1-dominant (i.e., an L1 other than English dominant). Faez's (2011c) definition of a bilingual ESOL teacher is an individual who possesses equal proficiency in two languages and lacks a dominant language. However, this definition may not fully capture

the complexity of bilingualism, as language dominance can be context-dependent, and individuals may exhibit variations in proficiency depending on the linguistic and communicative demands of different situations. An English as an L1 speaker is someone whose first and dominant language is English, and any AL knowledge, if present, is acquired/learned after achieving full fluency in English (Faez, 2011c). Although not explicitly explained, 'full fluency' likely refers to a level of proficiency where the individual is highly competent in a language and can use it effectively for all aspects of communication and daily life. A second-generation English speaker is an individual who, although born and raised in an English-speaking country, has non-English-speaking parents and has either acquired their L1 prior to or alongside acquiring/learning English (Faez, 2011c). An English-dominant individual grew up in a country where English is not the primary language but has lived in an English-speaking country for a significant period, considers English their main language, and feels most comfortable using it (Faez, 2011c). In terms of an L1-dominant individual, Faez (2011c) defines them as someone who does not primarily use English as their dominant language or the language they feel the most at ease while using it. Finally, an English-variety speaker is an individual who communicates in a form of English spoken in countries that were formerly under British colonization, such as India, Nigeria, and Singapore, but does not consider English as their L1 (Faez, 2011c). E. Ellis (2013) has also proposed three categories of AL teacher linguistic identity based on findings from her study examining the linguistic repertoire of ESOL teachers in Australia. These categories are: circumstantial plurilingual, elective plurilingual, and monolingual. A circumstantial plurilingual is someone who developed plurilingualism due to circumstances beyond their control, such as immigration or being raised in a family with multiple languages (E. Ellis, 2013). E. Ellis (2013) explains that an elective plurilingual is an individual who has chosen to learn an AL after early childhood. Finally, a monolingual is someone who does not fit the aforementioned

definitions of plurilingual (E. Ellis, 2013). Faez's (2011c) and E. Ellis's (2013) categorizations suggest the need and importance of critically examining and reflecting upon ESOL teachers' linguistic identities. Furthermore, these categorizations underscore the importance of acknowledging the complex nature of teachers' linguistic repertoires and their impact on supporting teaching practices in ESOL teaching.

Linguistic identity contributes to an individual's 'subject position' in regard to others and in specific social contexts (Søreide, 2007; Törrönen, 2001), such as the TESOL professional workplace context and the English language classroom. Although unrelated to AL education, an example of a study that identified teachers' subject positions was research conducted by Søreide (2007), who investigated how five Norwegian female elementary school teachers constructed their teacher identities. Søreide's (2007) study aimed to understand teachers' identity construction through their personal accounts, leading to the identification of over 30 subject positions among the teachers. One position identified was the teacher as a promoter of student well-being and development (e.g., cognitive, academic) (Søreide, 2007). Furthermore, Søreide (2007) found teachers' accounts and language usage established multiple subject positions within the discourse when discussing their profession. Findings in Søreide's (2007) study challenge the notion of a universal position that teachers must conform to and, instead, suggest the possibility of creating relevant and meaningful subject positions in classrooms. The concept of teacher linguistic identity is relevant to the present study as it highlights the importance of considering how the identities of plurilingual AL teachers, including ESOL teachers, shape their perceptions of their professional roles.

### **2.3 An Overview of AL Education**

The provision of AL education has risen worldwide and experienced numerous changes due to factors such as colonization (e.g., the Colony of New Zealand as a British

colony, Taiwan under Japanese colonial rule), cultural expansion (e.g., the ‘Coca-Colonization’ of Europe, the Americanization of pop culture in East Asia), and flows of immigration and people’s displacement. An AL is broadly defined as a language an individual learns after acquiring their L1, and it is often referred to as a second language, a foreign language, or L2 in the applied linguistics literature (e.g., Hiver & Papi, 2019; Mežek et al., 2021; Pinner, 2020). However, relying solely on the chronological order in which individuals acquire/learn languages raises several concerns. One issue is that these categorizations fail to account for the complexity of how individuals’ L1s may not always align with their dominant language, as some people may have become more proficient in their ALs than their L1s, or their ALs are primarily used in their communities. This is exemplified in Faez’s (2011c) categorizations of ESOL teachers’ linguistic identities, namely English-dominant individuals (also see 2.2.3). Therefore, focusing exclusively on the chronological order of language acquisition/learning may not accurately reflect people’s language proficiency or linguistic identities. Moreover, as de Bot et al. (2005) point out, many individuals worldwide possess plurilingual repertoire (i.e., proficiency in multiple languages or dialects), making it challenging to determine which language they consider their L1 or AL.

Although terms such as ‘second language’ and ‘foreign language’ can be seen used to refer to AL in the applied linguistics literature, they are not appropriate in the context of the present study. Researchers have proposed explanations for differentiating a second language from a foreign language based on categories such as learners’ language environment and levels of language knowledge (e.g., Harmer, 2007; Larsen-Freeman & Freeman, 2008). For example, Larsen-Freeman and Freeman (2008) suggest that a second language is a language that individuals use in addition to their L1, and a language is foreign when its users have limited knowledge of it. Based on Larsen-Freeman’s and Freeman’s (2008) definitions of the

two terms (i.e., second language and foreign language), the participating New Zealand-based ESOL teachers in this study have second-language learning experiences as they are self-reported competent users of their other language(s). However, as some of these teachers have learned a third and/or fourth language, the term second language does not accurately reflect the participants' language-learning experiences or their linguistic identities. Therefore, the term 'additional language' (AL) is used throughout this thesis to refer to any language the participants acquired/learned after acquiring their L1, regardless of their dominant language or their proficiency levels in all of their languages. Considering the importance of the impact of instructed language learning and its connection to the theoretical framings of 'teacher knowledge' and 'teacher linguistic identity', the following section will review the relevant literature on language acquisition and learning.

'Language acquisition' and 'language learning' are terms widely used in the literature on AL education (e.g., Larsen-Freeman, 2015; R. Ellis, 2006). Although some researchers, such as Birdsong (2018) and Saito et al. (2020), use the two terms interchangeably, others use them differently in the literature. Specifically, the term language acquisition is for L1, i.e., the development of a language through exposure and interactions within the social environment (e.g., de Bot et al., 2005; Gass & Selinker, 2008), whereas the term language learning is reserved for AL, i.e., the development of another language through formal education (e.g., Truscott, 2014; Ushioda, 2012). However, the rigid dichotomy between language acquisition and language learning implies that ALs are limited to formal educational settings, which may not be the case for individuals who have acquired their ALs through informal social interactions. Furthermore, language acquisition can also take place in the classroom, such as in immersion and submersion learning environments (Mathias, 2018). Immersion is when students are taught entirely in the target language (i.e., AL) to develop their AL proficiency,

while submersion means students are in regular classes where the primary language of instruction is not their L1 (Cummins, 2009).

In addition to the order in which and how individuals develop their linguistic repertoire(s), researchers such as Godfroid (2016) and R. Ellis (2015) have tried to differentiate the notions of language acquisition and language learning through the nature of language users' linguistic knowledge, namely their implicit and explicit language knowledge. Implicit language knowledge has been used to distinguish between language acquisition and language learning in literature, such as works by N. Ellis (2008a, 2011) and R. Ellis (2015). According to R. Ellis (2015), implicit language knowledge is the knowledge individuals internalize subconsciously through exposure and social interactions within and beyond language classrooms. An example of internalizing implicit language knowledge is when individuals can utilize their linguistic repertoire(s) correctly, thus demonstrating their implicit knowledge of grammar in a particular communicative context. However, as the knowledge of grammatical rules individuals gain is procedural in its application, having implicit language knowledge alone means they are unlikely to explain why a given sentence is grammatically incorrect.

Different from implicit language knowledge, explicit language knowledge refers to an individual's awareness and understanding of linguistic features of a language (N. Ellis, 2005, 2008b) such as syntax (i.e., rules governing the arrangement of words and phrases), lexical semantics (i.e., meaning of individual words), sentence semantics (i.e., the way words and phrases within a sentence combine to convey a complete thought or stance), and discourse (i.e., the way language is used in communication to convey meaning). Individuals gain explicit language knowledge through a conscious process of analyzing and operationalizing language rules (DeKeyser, 2020), such as in the instructed AL learning process (Ellis &

Roever, 2021; Isbell & Rogers, 2020). This conscious understanding of language rules tends to allow individuals to articulate their understanding of linguistic features with explanations.

Explicit language knowledge is often associated with the differences between ESOL teachers who speak English as their L1 and those with English as their AL (e.g., Walkinshaw & Oanh, 2014; Wang & Fang, 2020). For example, ELLs in Walkinshaw's and Oanh's (2014) study reported that they found NESTs lacked sufficient skills in explaining grammar, while non-NESTs were competent at providing grammar explanations. It has been suggested that a primary reason for the difference in NESTs' and non-NESTs' levels of explicit language knowledge lies in teachers' formal AL-learning experiences or lack thereof (e.g., Walkinshaw & Oanh, 2014; Y. Butler, 2007). However, the assumption that NESTs are monolingual and lack past instructed AL learning is often unquestioned despite evidence to the contrary (E. Ellis, 2016a). The plurilingual competence of many NESTs has been discussed by a number of researchers, such as E. Ellis (2013, 2016a) and Copland and Yonetsugi (2016). For example, E. Ellis (2016a) explored the language biographies of 29 ESOL teachers, including both NESTs and non-NESTs, in seven countries. She argues that the dominant teaching approach in the TESOL sector is the English-only (i.e., monolingual) approach, which means that ESOL teachers' ALs are unnoticed or overlooked in the classroom (E. Ellis, 2016a). E. Ellis (2016a) points out that many ESOL teachers, including NESTs, are, in fact, plurilingual. She also contends that TESOL researchers and practitioners are restricted by outdated concepts of teachers' linguistic identities, specifically the NEST versus non-NEST dichotomy. ESOL teachers' linguistic identities will be further discussed in section 2.8.

While the relationship between language teachers' AL-learning experiences, teacher knowledge, linguistic identities, and teaching practices has been little examined, some researchers, such as E. Ellis (2016b), Forman (2015), and Lowe (1987), have investigated these connections. One of the early studies that investigated ESOL teachers' instructed AL-

learning experiences was Lowe's (1987) research. He conducted an experiment where a group of UK-based ESOL teachers participated in a 12-week part-time Mandarin course and were required to keep private diaries for the duration of the course. According to Lowe (1987), the Mandarin course allowed the teachers to reassess their teacher beliefs, attitudes, and knowledge, particularly in particular teaching practices such as repetition, grammar, and communicative teaching. For example, Lowe (1987) found that all participants experienced a notable level of anxiety, specifically during the early stages of the course when they felt apprehensive about oral production in Mandarin. One participant stated that the anxiety they experienced made them realize the challenges faced by former Vietnamese refugees they had previously taught and how learning English in the UK must have been an overwhelming experience (Lowe, 1987). This finding suggests that the Mandarin-learning experience heightened Lowe's (1987) participants' awareness of how learners would react to particular teaching practices.

Further investigation is needed to explore the connections between language teachers' instructed AL-learning experiences, teacher cognition (i.e., beliefs, attitudes, and knowledge), linguistic identities, and teaching practices, as this area has been understudied in the literature. Such research could facilitate the development of theoretical frameworks that clarify the interrelationships among these factors and their impacts on language teaching and learning outcomes. As this study is about the experiences of ESOL teachers, the following sub-section will review the literature on ESOL education.

### ***2.3.1 An Overview of ESOL Education***

As the English language is the dominant global lingua franca, demands for competent users of the language have hastened the growth of English language education, making English the most widely learned and taught AL worldwide (Busse, 2017; Ushioda, 2017).

Indeed, recognizing the importance of English education, policymakers in different parts of the world have included the learning of the English language in their national curriculum for learners whose L1 is not English (e.g., Chung & Choi, 2016; Ke, 2022). For example, Ke (2022) explains that English language education became compulsory in Taiwanese junior high schools (equivalent to secondary schools in New Zealand) after 1968. However, English language education has been given different subject names at schools in different countries, and these names include but are not limited to English, English as a foreign language (EFL), and English as a second language (ESL). However, as this is a New Zealand-based study, and English language education is referred to as ESOL education in the country (e.g., New Zealand Ministry of Education, 2019, 2020, 2021a), ESOL is used throughout this thesis.

A consequence of the recognition of the importance of English education is an unprecedented worldwide demand for qualified English language teachers (Gras & Kitson, 2021; Sehlaoui & Shinge, 2012). However, the literature suggests an acute shortage of qualified or well-trained ESOL teachers in different parts of the world (e.g., Deng & Hayden, 2021; Nguyen & Northrop, 2022). For instance, Deng and Hayden (2021) state that due to the increasing number of students from diverse language backgrounds in American public schools, there is an ongoing nationwide shortage of certified ESOL teachers. Furthermore, many studies have discussed ESOL teachers' levels of TESOL knowledge, as such knowledge can directly impact ELLs' learning outcomes (e.g., Reeves, 2009; Zhang & Zhan, 2014). In this study, TESOL knowledge refers to the specialized knowledge that ESOL teachers are required to have to provide ELLs with pedagogical explanations of phonology, syntax, and discourse and a comprehensive understanding of the principles underlying language learning. One study that investigated ESOL teachers' TESOL knowledge was conducted by Zhang and Zhan (2014). They examined the knowledge of ESOL teachers in Canada who were non-NESTs, as reported by these teachers and employers in the TESOL

sector. In Zhang's and Zhen's (2014) study, both participants and school administrators reported that non-NESTs demonstrated strong knowledge of English grammar and were effective at making linguistic aspects of English understandable for ELLs.

Based on the theoretical framings of the current study, ESOL teachers' knowledge and teacher linguistic identity play a crucial role in shaping their TESOL knowledge and teaching practices. As this study aims to examine the reported impact of New Zealand-based ESOL teachers' formal language-learning experiences, the subsequent section reviews the literature on factors that potentially impact instructed language learning.

## **2.4 Factors that Impact Instructed AL Learning**

This section examines the relevant literature on factors that may impact learners' instructed AL learning. Previous research has identified such factors, including language learners' ages (2.4.1), learning styles (2.4.2), motivation (2.4.3), AL-learning challenges (2.4.4), and teachers' teaching approaches and practices (2.4.5) (e.g., Brown & Lally, 2019; Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2011; Fenyvesi, 2018; D. Lu, 2010; Mantou Lou & Noels, 2020). However, these factors should not be and are not viewed separately, as they are interrelated and may interact in complex ways that impact AL learners' experiences and learning outcomes. The factors are discussed in the following sub-sections.

### **2.4.1 *AL Learners' Ages***

AL learners' ages are widely recognized as a factor that impacts learners' AL-learning experiences and outcomes and have therefore attracted the attention of many researchers in applied linguistics. Studies conducted by Shinohara and Iverson (2021), Cox (2017), and Schepens et al. (2023) are just a few examples of research exploring AL learners' ages in depth. However, most research has focused on the relationship between learners' ages and

learning outcomes. Specifically, researchers have attempted to determine whether younger or older learners are more successful in learning an AL. For example, Shinohara and Iverson (2021) investigated the impact of a computer-based English phonetic training program to train 85 Japanese speakers of all ages, including both young and adult learners, on the English /r/-and-/l/ contrast (i.e., the phonemic distinction between the sounds represented by the letters ‘r’ and ‘l’ in English). Their study showed that the training significantly improved their participants’ “perceptual identification, auditory discrimination, and category discrimination” (Shinohara & Iverson, 2021, p. 12) and production of the English /r/-and-/l/ contrast. According to Shinohara and Iverson (2021), young learners demonstrated greater improvement in “perceptual identification, auditory discrimination, and category discrimination” (p. 12) over the training sessions compared to adult learners. Hence, Shinohara and Iverson (2021) concluded that AL phoneme learning may decline with age.

The impact of age on instructed AL learning has been the subject of much debate in the literature in applied linguistics, with researchers discussing the extent to which age impacts language-learning outcomes and whether there is a critical period for language learning/acquisition. While some researchers (e.g., Johnson & Newport, 1989; Lenneberg, 1967) advocated that learners who start learning their ALs at a young age tend to have better learning outcomes than those who start later in life, others remain skeptical (e.g., Birdsong & Molis, 2001; Moyer, 2004, 2009). Lenneberg (1967) proposed the critical period hypothesis, which suggests an optimal age for instructed AL learning, and the period ends at puberty. The critical period hypothesis holds that there are interrelationships between AL learners’ age and their cognitive ability to reach ‘native-like competence’ in their ALs (Lenneberg, 1967). Much research, mainly earlier studies, supports Lenneberg’s (1967) hypothesis when examining AL learners’ learning experiences and outcomes in different age groups (e.g., Johnson & Newport, 1989; Oyama, 1978). For example, a study by Johnson and Newport

(1989) on 46 Korean- or Chinese-speaking immigrants in the United States found a connection between their English grammar test performance and the age at which they arrived in the country and started learning English. The findings indicated a linear relationship between the age of English learning and pre-puberty learning outcomes (Johnson & Newport, 1989). Johnson and Newport (1989) found that those who started learning English before puberty performed better than those who began after puberty, with increased variability among the latter group.

However, Lenneberg's (1967) critical period hypothesis has been subjected to some criticism and debate as the findings of other researchers (e.g., Birdsong & Molis, 2001; Moyer, 2004, 2009) have indicated that learners are capable of achieving high proficiency levels in their ALs after puberty. For example, Birdsong and Molis (2001) conducted a study that examined the English-learning outcomes of 61 Spanish speakers in the United States. On the one hand, it was found that the older individual participants were when they started learning English, the harder it became for them to attain fluency (Birdsong & Molis, 2001). On the other hand, Birdsong's and Molis's (2001) research also provided evidence suggesting that some late learners could achieve a high level of proficiency in English, similar to that of native English speakers.

Nevertheless, the debate surrounding the role of age in AL learning is far from settled, and there is no clear consensus on the matter. As discussed above, much research has focused on examining the relationship between learners' ages and their outcomes in AL learning. However, it is also essential to consider how learners perceive their AL-learning experiences, as their learning age(s) and other related factors may impact their perceptions. In the context of AL learning, perception refers to the cognitive process by which learners use their senses to interpret and make sense of the information they receive during their AL-learning

experiences. To this end, what follows is a review of relevant literature that investigates how learners' ages impact their perceptions of their AL-learning experiences.

Several researchers have explored how AL learners' ages can impact their perceptions of their language-learning experiences (e.g., Fenyvesi, 2018; Kormos & Csizér, 2008). One such researcher is Fenyvesi (2018), who examined the preferences and motivations of 276 young Danish ELLs regarding their ESOL lessons. The participants included those who started learning ESOL either at the age of seven or nine. Fenyvesi (2018) found that although the young ELLs in both age groups were strongly motivated by their English-language learning, the learners experienced a significant decline in their positive attitudes toward ESOL learning within a year. She concluded that this finding indicates that learners who started learning the English language at the age of seven did not maintain their favorable outlook toward learning English compared to those who started learning at the age of nine. Fenyvesi (2018) also noted other factors that impacted how the ELLs perceived their ESOL-learning experiences, including their gender, learning outcomes, and preferences for particular teaching practices. For example, English was reported as a favorite subject by a greater proportion of boys than girls (Fenyvesi, 2018). Age is relevant in the present study because participants include those who formally learned their AL(s) as young as well as adult learners.

#### ***2.4.2 AL Learners' Learning Styles***

AL learning styles, defined as the preferred and most effective ways of learning for individuals (R. Ellis, 2005b), are critical factors that can impact AL learners' learning experiences and learning outcomes (Hsu, 2016; Taheri et al., 2019). As emphasized by Taheri et al. (2019), AL teachers should create enjoyable and stimulating classroom environments, experiment with diverse teaching practices, identify various learning styles and strategies,

expand their students' repertoire of styles and strategies, introduce tasks corresponding to each style, and guide learners in effectively applying learning activities and skills. Taheri et al.'s (2019) statement suggests that the emotional and cognitive aspects of learners' AL learning are significant factors in the learning process.

Researchers (e.g., Kolb, 1984; Messick, 1984, 1994) have conducted research to identify different learning styles to understand how learners learn. For example, Messick (1994) investigated learning styles as both performance and competence factors in learning and teaching, noting their structure within information processing and individual learners' personalities. That is, learning styles are shaped by interaction and meaning making communicative activities and unique characteristics like temperament, preferences, and habits.

Other researchers (e.g., Christison, 2003; Willing, 1988) have also attempted to identify different learning styles. In Christison's (2003) review of learning styles, she categorized them into three types: cognitive styles (e.g., field dependent/independent, analytic/global), sensory styles (e.g., perceptual, environmental), and personality styles (e.g., tolerance of ambiguity, right and left hemisphere dominance). In the area of AL education, Willing (1988) identified four learning styles: communicative, analytical, authority-oriented, and concrete. Communicative learners prefer observing and listening to native speakers, having conversations in English, and watching English TV (Willing, 1988). Analytical learners enjoy grammar study, reading, individual learning, error identification, and problem-solving (Willing, 1988). Authority-oriented learners like teacher explanations, owning textbooks, note-taking, grammar study, and vocabulary expansion (Willing, 1988). Concrete learners favor games, visual aids, audio, pair conversations, and practical use of English (Willing, 1988).

While it is commonly acknowledged that individuals have different learning preferences and needs, there may not be a single learning style that is universally effective for all learners. Recognizing this notion, researchers such as Christison (2003) and Wong and Nunan (2011) maintain that teaching practices should not favor any particular learning style, and instead, the emphasis should be on motivating learners to expand their learning styles. Such expansion can further empower learners to take ownership of their learning, which can impact their perceptions of their learning experiences and outcomes. The following is a discussion of relevant literature that examines learners' perceptions of particular learning styles.

Research suggests that learners' learning styles may impact how they perceive their AL-learning experiences and outcomes (e.g., B. Lee, 2015; El-Hariri, 2016). For example, in a quantitative study by B. Lee (2015) involving 521 Korean ELLs, the dominant learning styles of individuals influenced how they evaluated teaching materials. Specifically, learners with multiple dominant learning styles and those favoring kinesthetic learning had higher expectations when evaluating materials, prioritizing criteria aligned with their learning styles (B. Lee, 2015). This could be due to kinesthetic learners potentially facing challenges in traditional lecture-based classrooms, impacting their engagement. However, labeling learners with dominant learning styles oversimplifies AL learners' diverse learning processes. Other factors, like age and life experiences, can also influence how they perceive their learning experiences and outcomes.

Although learning styles should not be viewed as the sole factor that potentially impacts how language learners perceive their learning, they need to be considered when exploring how New Zealand-based ESOL teachers perceive the reported impact of their past instructed AL learning on their TESOL knowledge and teaching practices. Furthermore,

learning styles are relevant in this study as they could impact the perceptions of the participating ESOL teachers' instructed AL-learning experiences.

### **2.4.3 *AL Learners' Motivation***

AL learners' motivation is often recognized as a determining factor that can impact their learning experiences and outcomes (Safdari, 2019; Sidaway, 2021). Motivation is what drives an individual to make decisions, take action, exert themselves, and persist in that action (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2011). Various studies (e.g., Busse, 2013; Sidaway, 2021) have attempted to identify determinants that impact the motivation levels of AL learners. For instance, Sidaway's (2021) study provides examples of such determiners. Her study focused on a group of UK-based female adult ELLs attending a multilevel class, intending to identify the factors impacting these learners' motivation to learn English. Sidaway (2021) found that the ELLs' learning experiences and sense of obligation to learn the language contributed to their motivation.

In addition to identifying determinants that impact AL learners' motivation to learn, other researchers (e.g., Guilloteaux & Dörnyei, 2008; Safdari, 2019) have also attempted to examine teaching practices that can enhance learners' motivation. For example, Safdari (2019) investigated the efficacy of a motivation-based ESOL program that utilized visual aids to enhance the motivational attributes of 51 adult Iranian ELLs. A significant connection between ELLs' visual and auditory sensory style preferences and their motivation in language learning was evident in the findings, and this relationship remained consistent regardless of learners' genders (Safdari, 2019).

Motivation can manifest in various forms, from external factors to internal drives, referred to as extrinsic and intrinsic motivation (e.g., Tanaka, 2017; Y. Butler, 2017). Extrinsic rewards that could lead to motivation include good grades, teacher praise, and

career success (Tanaka, 2017; Ye, 2021). Punishments related to extrinsic motivation include but are not limited to poor grades or feelings of shame (Teimouri, 2018; Ye, 2021). Ye's (2021) study of 773 Chinese secondary school ELLs with varying academic performances found that all participants had similar levels of extrinsic motivation, regardless of their ESOL-learning achievements. For example, one participating ELL mentioned learning English to attend university and meet parental expectations (Ye, 2021). In the context of the present study, language learners are extrinsically motivated when they learn their AL to attain rewards or avoid punishment.

Motivation is crucial in shaping how AL learners perceive their learning experiences. It is assumed that AL learners who are extrinsically motivated may have a superficial and instrumental perspective on instructed AL learning and their AL(s) (Yu, 2019). These learners generally prioritize achieving specific goals, such as receiving good grades or avoiding punishment, over developing a genuine connection with their AL(s) or the process of instructed AL learning. Consequently, extrinsically motivated AL learners may be less likely to engage in classroom activities that require a deep understanding and appreciation of their AL(s) in the long term.

In contrast to extrinsic motivation, intrinsic motivation refers to actions induced by internal rewards, such as enjoyment, interest, and satisfaction (Lin & Wang, 2021; X. Wu, 2003). Vallerand and colleagues (Vallerand et al., 1992, 1993) identified three types of intrinsic motivation: the wish to know, a sense of accomplishment, and the experience of stimulation. Intrinsic motivation to know occurs when learners gain knowledge of and explore new information for the pleasure of learning (Vallerand et al., 1992). Intrinsic motivation toward accomplishment arises when learners attempt to achieve their learning goals or become proficient in a subject (X. Wu, 2003). Finally, intrinsic motivation to experience stimulation refers to actions performed by learners to obtain stimulating

experiences, such as fun, excitement, and a sense of achievement (Lin & Wang, 2021). Researchers in AL education, such as Alghonaim (2021) and Ng and Ng (2015), have highlighted that intrinsically motivated learners are likely to have a positive perception of their language-learning experiences. Therefore, one can assume that these learners are inclined to seek out opportunities to explore their AL(s) in greater depth, such as utilizing diverse learning strategies both in and outside the classroom. This inclination may shape the language-learning experiences of the participants in this study.

Various researchers (e.g., Safdari, 2019; Y. Butler, 2017) have advocated the importance of motivation in instructed AL learning, stating that it can determine learners' experiences and learning outcomes. While some researchers (e.g., H. Brown, 2007; McEown & Oga-Baldwin, 2019) argue that extrinsic motivation can be a significant tool to initiate and maintain AL learners' engagement in the short term, others (e.g., Bailey et al., 2021; Pae, 2008) assert that intrinsic motivation is more vital as it fosters more profound and meaningful learning experiences. Norton (2013), however, argues that being highly motivated does not necessarily lead to positive learning outcomes for AL learners. Despite various viewpoints regarding the relationship between AL learners' motivation and learning outcomes in the applied linguistics literature, understanding how different types of motivation can impact learning can inform teachers' teaching practices. However, the purpose of this literature review is not to discuss which type of motivation is more effective in instructed AL-learning processes. To gain insights into how participants perceive the impact of their past instructed AL learning on their TESOL knowledge and teaching practices, it is important to consider that they may have been extrinsically or intrinsically motivated, or both, during their learning process. Participants' motivation to learn their ALs or lack thereof may impact how they perceive their experiences as learners (Alghonaim, 2021; Ng & Ng, 2015).

#### 2.4.4 *Instructed AL-Learning Challenges*

Learning challenges are another factor impacting AL learners' learning experiences and outcomes (Mantou Lou & Noels, 2020; Yang, 2016). These challenges can take varying forms (cognitive, psychological, linguistic, and environmental), including struggles with AL comprehension (listening and reading), lack of self-confidence, L1 influence, and limited exposure to the AL(s) (e.g., Alkhaleefah, 2017; Finn, 2018; Sayer & Ban, 2014; Wrembel, 2010; Yanagi & Baker, 2015). Studies in AL learning, such as those conducted by Finn (2018) and Yanagi and Baker (2015), indicate that learners frequently encounter challenges in AL-learning processes. For instance, in Finn's (2018) study on ELLs in an American community college writing course, participants rarely attributed their writing difficulties to a single factor. One participant mentioned struggles with academic writing due to anxiety and reading comprehension issues, particularly unfamiliar vocabulary (Finn, 2018). Underpinned by the theoretical framings of teacher knowledge and teacher linguistic identity, this study examines AL-learning challenges that impact ESOL teachers' perceptions as former AL learners and their professional roles. Therefore, the following parts review the literature on the aforementioned challenges that AL learners can face.

**Struggles with AL Comprehension.** Learners' struggles with AL comprehension refer to their difficulties in understanding spoken and/or written language in their AL(s). These struggles may stem from a range of factors, such as AL learners' vocabulary level (Li & Kirby, 2015), grammatical knowledge (Martiniello, 2009), or familiarity with the structure of the given text (Alkhaleefah, 2017). For example, Li's and Kirby's (2015) study demonstrated the significance of vocabulary in ELLs' challenges. They investigated the impact of vocabulary breadth (i.e., the number of words known) and depth (i.e., the richness of word knowledge) on various aspects of English reading for Chinese high school ELLs. Their study included tests on word reading, vocabulary breadth, vocabulary depth, and

reading comprehension (Li & Kirby, 2015). Li and Kirby (2015) found that vocabulary breadth significantly predicted reading comprehension, suggesting that ELLs with low vocabulary breadth face more challenges in reading comprehension than those with higher vocabulary breadth.

Another contributing factor to learners' struggles with AL comprehension is their limited familiarity with various text types (Alkhaleefah, 2017; Brantmeier, 2005). For instance, Alkhaleefah (2017) conducted a case study analyzing the reading process of four Saudi ELLs, two strong and two struggling readers. By examining these ELLs' engagement with narrative and expository texts, Alkhaleelah (2017) discovered that structural differences between these text types significantly influenced the types and severity of reading challenges experienced by the ELLs.

AL learners' struggles with AL comprehension can impact their perspectives of their language-learning experiences. Learners who struggle to understand the language input, whether spoken or written, may perceive their language-learning experiences negatively as they can feel helpless, frustrated, discouraged, and disengaged from the learning process (Nushi & Orouji, 2020). Such negative perceptions can result in, for instance, a dearth of motivation to learn and reduced confidence regarding their AL competency (Graham, 2006).

**Lack of Confidence.** Lack of confidence is a common challenge AL learners face (Galmiche, 2017). Various factors contribute to AL learners' lack of self-confidence, including experiencing anxiety, fear of making mistakes, and shame (Bernal Castañeda, 2017; Dörnyei, 2005; Teimouri, 2018). According to Galmiche (2017) and Henter (2014), anxiety is among the most often encountered factors impacting AL learners' confidence levels. The American Psychological Association (2021) defines anxiety as “an emotion characterized by feelings of tension, worried thoughts, and physical changes like increased blood pressure”

(para. 1). Horwitz et al. (1986) surveyed 225 AL learners at an American university and identified three common types of anxiety: communication apprehension, fear of negative evaluation, and test anxiety. Communication apprehension is learners' anxiety in using their AL(s) to communicate with others (Uztosun & Kök, 2023). Examples include AL-context anxiety (Alghali, 2016; Gkonou, 2013), trait anxiety (i.e., anxiety that is part of an individual's personality) (Dewaele, 2013; Hashemi, 2011), and AL-learning situation-specific anxiety (Plastina, 2004; K. Wu, 2010). Fear of negative evaluation is the apprehension AL learners have about how others would evaluate them (Papi, 2010), such as when speaking their AL(s) in the presence of their peers in instructed AL-learning settings. Finally, test anxiety is the fear of academic evaluation in AL learners, often stemming from their fear of failing (Liu & Jackson, 2008). For example, in Finn's (2018) study, an ELL stated that a primary language learning challenge was test anxiety, which she believed hindered her ability to articulate ideas using unfamiliar words, causing uncertainty and difficulty in written communication (Finn, 2018).

Another factor that can negatively impact AL learners' confidence level is their insecurity. Here, insecurity refers to AL learners' distorted self-concept, impacting how they perceive their abilities and behaviors in instructed AL learning (Rubio, 2007). In some circumstances, AL learners' insecurity is induced by internal factors. For example, Teimouri's (2018) study with 86 Iranian ELLs found that some learners associated their AL status with a feeling of 'foolishness'. This insecurity might lead to discouragement, embarrassment about proficiency levels, hindered learning progress, and reduced classroom engagement (Dewaele, 2012). In other circumstances, AL learners' insecurity emanates from external factors, like the perception that they are less competent in their AL compared to L1 speakers, regardless of their proficiency levels (Kang, 2005; Marx, 2002). AL learners'

insecurity is, of course, a complicated matter that may derive from both internal and external factors.

Last but not least, another factor that impacts AL learners' confidence level is the feeling of shame (Galmiche, 2017, 2018; Teimouri, 2018). According to Teimouri (2018), when experiencing shame, AL learners may engage in self-critique during their learning processes and perceive themselves as defective AL speakers in the eyes of others (e.g., peers, AL teachers) in instructed AL-learning settings. This sense of shame is evident in Galmiche's (2018) study on French ELLs' learning experiences. Among the 30 participants, 12 explicitly discussed experiencing varying degrees of shame related to their instructed ESOL learning, indicating that shame is a common psychological response. This sense of shame was reported across proficiency levels, from beginners to advanced learners (Galmiche, 2018), suggesting its potential long-term negative impact on how AL learners perceive their overall AL-learning experiences.

**L1 Language Transfer.** L1 language transfer has been identified as a frequent challenge faced by AL learners (Long & Hatcho, 2018; R. Ellis, 1994, 2015). L1 language transfer occurs when AL learners apply their linguistic knowledge and habits from their L1s to their AL(s). As Baetens Beardsmore (1986) states, L1 language transfer often leads to challenges AL learners face in areas such as phonology, lexicon, and syntax. The following paragraphs explain each of these areas, respectively.

L1 phonological transfer occurs when AL learners apply similar speech sounds from their L1s to their AL(s) (Wrembel, 2010), often due to the absence of particular sounds in their L1s. For example, Japanese ELLs may substitute the labialized 'r' sound in the English word 'rice' with the 'l' sound, leading to potential misunderstandings. This transfer is also linked to foreign accents (Flege et al., 2005; Hopp & Schmid, 2013), which can sometimes be

perceived negatively (Dragojevic et al., 2017; Moyer, 2013) and may lead to accent prejudice (see 2.8.3).

AL learners' L1 phonological transfer can impact their perspectives of their AL-learning experiences and expectations (McCrocklin & Link, 2016; Sung, 2016). For example, Sung (2016) studied Hong Kong ELLs' perspectives on their language-learning experiences and linguistic identities. Some participants perceived their local English accent negatively and desired to adopt native-like English accents, citing concerns about intelligibility (Sung, 2016). However, they acknowledged the difficulty of changing their English accents, indicating that maintaining a Hong Kong accent might be inevitable (Sung, 2016). Sung's (2016) study suggests that learners' awareness of their L1 phonological transfer can shape their perceptions of AL-learning experiences, impacting their self-perceived language proficiency and overall evaluation of progress.

Another type of L1 language transfer is lexical transfer, which occurs when AL learners apply incorrect forms or word choices in their ALs (Sunderman & Kroll, 2006). A lexicon refers to grammatical patterns with which particular words are used in a language and the meaning(s) of specific words (Booij, 2007; Goddard & Wierzbicka, 2014). L1 lexical transfer may affect AL learners' use of collocations, general meanings of words, and the plural form of words. According to researchers, such as Ander and Yildirim (2010) and S.-C. Shin (2002), a common L1 lexical transfer is when AL learners use the literal L1 meaning of a particular word and translate it into their AL(s). For example, S.-C. Shin (2002) conducted a pilot study on Australian learners of Korean, focusing on lexical challenges. The study found common lexical errors/mistakes arose from a tendency to interpret words or phrases literally, overlooking set expressions like idioms or collocations within the context (S.-C. Shin, 2002).

Finally, another type of L1 language transfer is syntactic transfer, which occurs when AL learners produce sentences in their AL(s) using the grammatical structures of their L1s, resulting in grammatically incorrect sentences (Ferris, 2002). The term syntax refers to sentence construction, which is how words and phrases are arranged in sentences (Tallerman, 2019). Morett and MacWhinney (2013) studied English-speaking Spanish learners, finding that as they progressed in their learning, they increasingly relied on a combination of animacy cues and subject-verb agreement cues. This syntactic transfer can have both positive and negative impacts on Spanish learning (Morett & MacWhinney, 2013). On the one hand, syntactic transfer may help the learners use familiar cues to interpret Spanish sentences (Morett & MacWhinney, 2013). On the other hand, such transfer can initially be challenging as these learners would need to adapt to cues with high validity in Spanish (Morett & MacWhinney, 2013). However, there is a scarcity of research examining the perspectives of AL learners on the challenges arising from syntactic transfers between their L1s and their ALs in the context of their learning experiences.

**Limited Exposure to the AL(s).** Limited exposure to the AL(s) is a challenge often faced by learners, especially when learning countries/regions where the language(s) is not widely spoken (Sayer & Ban, 2014; Webb, 2010). This limitation can be divided into two situations: in-class and outside-of-class AL environments. Dulay et al. (1982) define the AL environment as “everything the language learner hears and sees in the new language” (p. 13). In this study, the exposure of the participating New Zealand-based teachers to their AL(s), whether ample or limited, is relevant. While some participants learned their ALs in their home countries, others did so in countries where the languages were widely spoken. However, as this study focuses on participants’ perceptions of their in-class experiences as former AL learners and current teachers, the following will review the literature concerning learners’ limited exposure to their ALs within classroom settings.

Limited instruction in learners' AL(s) during class time often leads to learners' having minimal exposure to AL contexts (Alrabai, 2016; de la Campa & Nassaji, 2009). Immersion (i.e., the sole use of the AL) and bilingual-instructional approaches (i.e., the use of L1 and AL) (see 2.5.1 for the explanation for both approaches) directly shape the AL environments created by teachers. Bilingual instruction often entails AL teachers' translanguaging (García et al., 2021; Otwinowska, 2017), which can result in less AL exposure compared to immersion settings. However, research highlights the benefits of teachers using learners' L1s in instruction (e.g., Mak, 2011; Yamashita & Jiang, 2012), including facilitating grammar and vocabulary explanations (Ma, 2019; Sali, 2014), promoting language awareness (Gunning et al., 2016; Widdowson, 2003), and reducing learning anxiety (Gunn, 2003; Hashemi & Sabet, 2013). For example, Japanese ELLs in Carson's and Kashihara's (2002) study reported that using their L1 (i.e., Japanese) in class helped when English explanations did not clear confusion (Carson & Kashihara, 2002). While using AL learners' L1s in teaching is advantageous, overusing it and insufficient use of the AL can hinder AL learning (Yavus, 2012). Limited AL exposure, as argued by Littlewood and Yu (2009) and Nation (2003), also hampers practice opportunities, resulting in unsatisfactory learning outcomes.

This sub-section has examined some challenges learners face in instructed AL-learning processes: AL learners' lack of self-confidence, L1 language transfer, and limited exposure to the AL(s). These challenges are relevant to this study as participants may have encountered them in their past instructed AL learning and observed their ELLs facing similar.

#### ***2.4.5 AL Teachers' Teaching Approaches and Practices***

AL teachers' teaching practices and underpinning approaches can impact learners' learning experiences and outcomes (Brown & Lally, 2019; Petersen & Nassaji, 2016).

Approaches are concerned with the philosophy, theory, and principles underlying learning

and teaching (Richards & Rogers, 2014). Teaching practices, built on approaches, are methods and activities teachers apply in instructed AL-learning settings (Richards & Rodgers, 2014). Methods, in turn, are ways of teaching based on particular approaches and involve systematic procedures (Larsen-Freeman & Anderson, 2011), while activities are the practical enactment of particular methods (Huang et al., 2011). AL teachers' selections of teaching approaches and practices tend to depend on, for instance, the learning objectives, learners' proficiency levels, and student age group.

Researchers (e.g., Brown & Lally, 2019; Petersen & Nassaji, 2016) have identified various factors that could impact learners' perceptions of their AL teachers' utilization of particular teaching approaches and practices, such as personal preferences, learning outcomes, and learning styles. For example, Brown and Lally (2019) conducted a 15-week longitudinal study with 67 international ELLs, exploring their learning experiences and outcomes in either immersive or non-immersive approaches at an American university (see 2.5.1 for the explanation of the immersion approach). A researcher-practitioner served as the ESOL teacher for two immersion and two non-immersion groups. Immersion involves complete AL immersion, while non-immersion includes the continued use of L1 in instruction. Brown and Lally (2019) found that ELLs in non-immersion groups evaluated their classes more favorably regarding the teacher's effort despite similar learning outcomes in both types of groups. ELLs in non-immersion groups may have appreciated the teacher's use of their L1, which personalized individual learners' learning. This finding shows how current and former AL learners, like the New Zealand-based ESOL teachers in this study, may perceive their experiences with AL-teaching approaches and practices.

Researchers have also examined how AL teachers perceive AL teaching approaches and practices (e.g., Li & Zou, 2022; Petersen & Nassaji, 2016). For instance, Petersen and Nassaji (2016) compared and contrasted ELLs' and ESOL teachers' perspectives on project-

based learning (see 2.5.2 for the explanation of the project-based learning method) in language classrooms. They studied 118 participants, including 88 ELLs and 30 ESOL teachers, using written questionnaires and interviews (Petersen & Nassaji, 2016). Both learners and teachers had positive attitudes toward project-based learning but differed in their views on implementation (Petersen & Nassaji, 2016). Exploring ESOL teachers who were former AL learners provides valuable dual perspectives, building on Petersen's and Nassaji's (2016) findings.

Researchers (e.g., C. Lee et al., 2016; Toyama & Yamazaki, 2019) have expressed different viewpoints regarding the relationship between AL teachers' teaching approaches and practices and AL learners' learning styles. As pointed out by C. Lee et al. (2016), there seems to be a common assumption that learners' achievement can be enhanced when AL teachers enact teaching practices that match AL learners' learning styles, some researchers have refuted this notion (e.g., Scott, 2010; Toyama & Yamazaki, 2019). Here, learning styles refer to individuals' preferred and/or most effective ways of learning (R. Ellis, 2005b). For example, Toyama and Yamazaki (2019) studied how matching ESOL teachers' teaching styles with ELLs' learning styles impacted learners' English proficiency and motivation. They had nine ESOL teachers and 331 ELLs, dividing them into matched and mismatched groups based on ESOL teachers' teaching styles and ELLs' learning styles. Both groups showed associations with ELLs' proficiency and motivation outcomes, suggesting a complex relationship between teachers' teaching styles and learners' learning styles (Toyama & Yamazaki, 2019).

This study aims to investigate the impact of instructed language-learning experiences on ESOL teaching, as reported by New Zealand-based ESOL teachers. As participants' perceptions of their AL-learning experiences often depended on their former AL teachers'

teaching approaches and practices, the following section examines and discusses common approaches and practices in AL education.

## **2.5 AL Teaching Approaches and Practices**

AL teachers', including ESOL teachers', teaching approaches and practices constitute a complex and dynamic domain of inquiry within the realm of applied linguistics (Feryok, 2010; Hiver & Whitehead, 2018). Theoretical framings of 'teacher knowledge' and 'teacher linguistic identity' serve as conceptual lenses through which the present study examines the intricate relationship between ESOL teachers' past instructed AL learning, TESOL knowledge, teaching practices, and professional perceptions at both individual and TESOL-sector levels. Through these lenses, teaching approaches and practices that ESOL teachers experienced as AL learners are perceived to potentially shape their professional roles (E. Ellis, 2016b; Rahimi & Zhang, 2015).

Language pedagogy has undergone significant developments and changes in the past few decades, with the emergence of post-method pedagogy (Kumaravadivelu, 1994, 2006), which challenges the notion of a one-size-fits-all approach to AL teaching. As Kumaravadivelu (2006) explains, instead, the post-methods approach emphasizes the importance of contextualization and recognizes the diverse needs of language learners. A key principle of post-methods is recognizing AL learning as a complex, dynamic, and non-linear process, emphasizing individual learners' needs and goals. Furthermore, the developments in language pedagogy, such as the project-based learning method (Beckett & Slater, 2005) and grammaring (Larsen-Freeman, 2003), have brought new dimensions to AL teaching and learning. For example, Larsen-Freeman (2003) introduced 'grammaring', where AL learners develop accurate, meaningful, and appropriate grammar usage through authentic language

examples and self-discovery of grammar rules, promoting a student-centered approach (see 2.5.1 for the explanation of a student-centered approach).

Viewed through the theoretical framings of ‘teacher knowledge’ and ‘teacher linguistic identity’, AL teachers’ decision-making processes and teaching approaches and practices are shaped by various social and sociological factors. These factors encompass elements such as the cultural and linguistic backgrounds of AL teachers and their students (Liddicoat, 2008), the ideologies of their wider community (Singh & Richards, 2006), and the power dynamics within and outside the classroom (Von Esch et al., 2020). AL teachers tend to navigate these complex factors, acknowledging that their pedagogical decisions impact their students’ language-learning experiences and outcomes.

‘Teacher knowledge’ and ‘teacher linguistic identity’ also relate to AL teacher agency, which entails viewing AL teachers as active producers of knowledge rather than mere consumers of theory (Freeman, 2020; Hiver & Whitehead, 2018), as teachers actively produce teaching practices that align with the needs of their students, moving beyond prescribed theories or methods (Freeman, 2020). In this context, AL teacher agency is recognized as the force that propels teacher learning, suggesting that AL teachers, similar to other learners, gain knowledge through their experiences (Freeman, 2020). These experiences include AL teacher education, teachers’ past instructed AL learning, language-teaching experiences, and other life experiences (Demir & Özmen, 2017; Moodie, 2016; Sanchez & Borg, 2014). Furthermore, teacher agency relates to how AL teachers act as agents of change in AL education rather than merely following prescribed teaching approaches and practices (Hiver & Whitehead, 2018). The notion of AL teacher agency emphasizes teachers’ professional autonomy and capacity to adapt teaching approaches and practices to meet diverse student needs (Feryok, 2012), with pedagogical decisions potentially impacted by their teacher knowledge and linguistic identities. The following sub-sections review the

literature with examples and descriptions of approaches, methods, and activities in AL teaching.

### **2.5.1 Approaches**

An approach is concerned with how an AL should be learned and taught (Harmer, 2007; Richards & Rodgers, 2014). The approaches pertinent to this study are teacher-centered, student-centered, communicative, immersive, and bilingual instructional (e.g., Borg & Al-Busaidi, 2012; Mason & Payant, 2018; Tsagari & Giannikas, 2018; Zohrabi et al., 2012) as participants talked about their former AL teachers employing these approaches. Below are reviews of these approaches whilst acknowledging overlaps between different approaches.

**Teacher-Centered Approach.** A teacher-centered approach in AL teaching involves the AL teacher closely managing and controlling lesson content, delivery methods, and activities (Dupin-Bryant, 2004). This approach aligns with traditional approaches, where the AL teacher is viewed as the knowledge provider, and learners tend to play a more passive role in the learning process (e.g., Allan, 2004; Kaymakamoğlu, 2018; Zohrabi et al., 2012). For example, Zohrabi et al. (2012) argue that ELLs in Iran are often seen as passive learners due to the prevalence of a teacher-centered approach. However, it is important to note that some level of teacher-centered teaching typically exists in instructed AL-learning settings, regardless of the enacted approach, such as when AL teachers provide explanations and examples. Nonetheless, the theoretical framing of ‘teacher knowledge’ and ‘teacher linguistic identity’ inform how teachers deliver their lessons by guiding their approach to meeting students’ language-learning needs.

**Student-Centered Approach.** A student-centered approach, sometimes referred to as a ‘learner-centered approach’ in the literature (e.g., Edwards et al., 2019; Yamagata, 2016), emphasizes the active role of learners in learning processes (Leow, 2015). In this approach,

AL learners actively construct new knowledge through social interactions within instructed AL-learning settings (Richards & Rodgers, 2014), as the AL teacher's role is to facilitate and encourage learning through exploration (Martinsen, 2015; Zohrabi et al., 2012). AL learners participate in deciding why, what, and how they learn, and the theoretical lenses of 'teacher knowledge' and 'teacher linguistic identity' align with constructivist principles of the approach by emphasizing teachers' understanding of individual student needs, allowing teachers to assist students in constructing their AL knowledge. According to Yasuda (2017), a student-centered approach is interactive and responsive to individual learners' interests and learning needs. A learning need refers to the gap between a learner's current language knowledge level and the language level the learner is required to attain.

Teacher-centered approaches and student-centered approaches in AL education are not inherently mutually exclusive and can be synergistically integrated to enhance classroom balance and effectiveness. A teacher-centered approach, emphasizing the AL teacher's expertise and classroom control, can incorporate student-centered elements by considering individual student needs, fostering engagement, and encouraging active participation. Likewise, a student-centered approach, emphasizing learner autonomy and collaboration, can benefit from the AL teacher's facilitation, activity structuring, and guidance.

**Communicative Approach.** A communicative approach, although sharing some similarities with a student-centered approach, places a greater emphasis on developing learners' communicative competence in their AL(s) (Denkci-Akkas & Coker, 2016; Mason & Payant, 2018). Bruen and Kelly (2014) assert that the primary principle of a communicative approach involves learners actively using their AL(s) for communication, departing from the passive reception of information seen in the traditional student/teacher-centered dichotomy. This approach recognizes the importance of authentic and meaningful language use in fostering language learning and proficiency.

**Autonomous Learning Approach.** The autonomous learning approach, aligned with student-centered principles, empowers AL learners to take charge of their language learning journey through self-regulated learning (Chong & Reinders, 2022). As Borg and Al-Busaidi (2012) and Reinders (2018) suggest, this approach requires AL learners to assume responsibility for aspects like setting study goals, monitoring their learning, and identifying their learning needs. In this context, the teacher becomes a facilitator, offering guidance and support to help learners develop self-directed AL learning skills and strategies (Reinders, 2018). Embracing this approach enables AL learners to foster independence and autonomy in their language-learning processes, positively impacting their overall proficiency and long-term development.

**Immersion Approach.** The immersion approach involves using only one language within instructed AL-learning and teaching settings (Brown & Lally, 2019; Hoang et al., 2010). Hoang et al. (2010) state that implementing this approach creates an environment where learners are exposed extensively to their AL(s) during instructed AL learning. Researchers like R. Ellis (2005a) and Shvidko (2017) have recognized the positive impact of this immersion environment on developing language skills and fostering fluency among AL learners.

Combining the immersion approach with other approaches can further enhance AL-learning outcomes. For example, integrating an immersive environment with a communicative approach allows AL learners to benefit from both linguistic input and the interactive, student-driven nature of these approaches (Day & Shapson, 2001). For example, Day and Shapson (2001) conducted an experimental study involving 315 French-language learners in Canadian secondary schools. They assessed how a combination of formal, analytic, functional, and communicative approaches in an immersion classroom impacted learners' proficiency in French (Day & Shapson, 2001). Their finding indicated that learners exposed

to such a combination of approaches in an immersive environment showed greater improvement than those not (Day & Shapson, 2001).

**Bilingual-Instructional Approach.** The bilingual-instructional approach involves AL teachers translanguaging between learners' L1 and AL(s) in the classroom, creating a comprehensive and inclusive AL-learning experience (García et al., 2021; Jiang et al., 2014; Otwinowska, 2017). This approach is most commonly employed by AL teachers when they share their students' L1, establishing a strong linguistic and cultural connection (Jiang et al., 2014; Sali, 2014). Recognized for its multifaceted benefits, the bilingual-instructional approach serves as a valuable tool for AL teachers. It aids in checking comprehension, explaining unfamiliar grammar or vocabulary, and activating AL learners' plurilingual repertoires, promoting a sense of linguistic and cultural identity (Lüdi & Py, 2009; Ma, 2016, 2019; Sali, 2014). Moreover, when integrated with established pedagogical approaches like student-centered and communicative approaches (e.g., Jiang et al., 2014; Ma, 2016), the bilingual-instructional approach highlights its versatility and potential for enhancing language learning outcomes.

### **2.5.2 Methods**

A method in AL education is a systematic way of teaching based on specific approaches (Larsen-Freeman & Anderson, 2011). Harmer (2007) states that it is the practical implementation of an approach. However, a method is not confined to specific approaches. In this study, the methods, whether traditional or post-methods, include audio-lingual, grammar-translation, rote-learning, task-based learning (TBL), total physical response (TPR), and TPR storytelling (e.g., Asher, 1977, 2009; Ghofur, 2016; Lichtman, 2018; R. Ellis, 2019; Vermes, 2010; Yang & Dai, 2011). These methods were either explicitly described or identified in participants' recollections of their past instructed AL learning.

**Audio-lingual.** The audio-lingual method, as highlighted by Ghofur (2016) and Richards and Rodgers (2014), primarily focuses on the formation of habits among AL learners, drawing from behaviorist principles (Rivers, 1964). This method follows systematic procedures in which AL teachers provide linguistic stimuli, such as situational dialogues and sentence pattern drills, along with reinforcement through positive and negative feedback (Hall, 2011). According to Larsen-Freeman and Anderson (2011), the audio-lingual method is often associated with a teacher-centered approach, where the AL teacher maintains control over learners' language behaviors. Specifically, during its implementation, AL learners are expected to respond to recorded materials or their teachers' demonstration of the target language (Larsen-Freeman & Anderson, 2011; Rilling, 2018). However, a criticism of the audio-lingual method, as pointed out by Savignon (2018), is its limitation in preparing AL learners for spontaneous communication beyond instructed AL-learning settings. This criticism raises questions about the method's effectiveness in promoting authentic and meaningful language use outside structured learning environments.

**Grammar-Translation.** The grammar-translation method, often associated with a teacher-centered approach (Benati, 2018), relies on AL learners memorizing vocabulary and grammatical rules of their AL(s) (Benati, 2018; Lightbown & Spada, 2006). However, this method has faced criticism due to its inherent limitations. Richards and Rodgers (2014) highlight that the method's primary objective is to enable AL learners to comprehend and interpret literature in their AL(s), with less emphasis on practical language use in real-life contexts. The grammar-translation method prioritizes AL learners' linguistic knowledge (i.e., knowledge of a language's system, structure, and rules) of both their L1 and AL(s), with an emphasis on grammatical analysis and translation (Nation, 2009; Richards & Rodgers, 2014). Since reading and writing skills are the primary focus, the method often neglects the development of AL learners' listening and speaking skills (Benati, 2018; Richards & Rodgers,

2014). That is, this method may fail to equip learners with the necessary skills for effective communication in authentic contexts, limiting their ability to engage meaningfully in interactions.

**Rote-Learning.** The rote-learning method involves learners repeatedly reciting or writing individual items in their AL(s), such as newly-introduced words and phrases, until they are committed to memory (Fewell, 2010; Yang & Dai, 2011). This method is frequently used for tasks like memorizing alphabets, learning new vocabulary, and perfecting the pronunciation of unfamiliar phrases. According to Brown and Lee (2015), the rote-learning method is characterized by the learning and storage of newly-taught language items “in discrete categories unrelated to existing cognitive structure” (p. 637). Advocates of the rote-learning method, such as Nation (2001) and Kember (2016), argue for its efficacy in solidating AL learners’ grasp of target language items, thereby enhancing comprehension. However, critics of the method, including researchers like H. Brown (2014) and Yoo and Yoon (2019), have lambasted it for its lack of meaningful engagement, as it does not require AL learners to consider the meaning of the newly-taught target language items or the purpose of individual tasks. This critical perspective highlights the limitations of the rote-learning method. By focusing solely on memorization without fostering meaningful comprehension, the method neglects the importance of language application in real-life contexts. Such negligence may impede AL learners’ ability to use the memorized items in authentic communicative situations, hindering their overall proficiency in their AL(s).

**Total Physical Response (TPR).** Total physical response (TPR) is an interactive teaching method that involves active engagement of AL learners through physical actions guided by their teacher’s instructions (Harmer, 2007; Richard & Rogers, 2001). Originally developed by Asher (1977, 2009), TPR is a fun and playful method that helps young learners learn their AL(s) (e.g., Er, 2013; Jones et al., 2015; Naeini & Shahrokhi, 2016). However,

despite TPR's kinesthetic nature (i.e., learning through movements), Knight (2001) points out a critical aspect that raises concerns about the method's alignment with a teacher-centered approach, potentially impacting learner autonomy and active participation. The method's heavy reliance on the AL teacher's complete control over the educational content raises questions about the power dynamics in the learning process and the potential limitations it imposes on AL learners' agency.

**TPR Storytelling (TPRS).** TPR storytelling (TPRS), also known as teaching proficiency through reading and storytelling (Lichtman, 2015, 2018), is an extension of the TPR teaching method (see above) (H. Lu, 2019). In TPRS, AL teachers utilize comprehensible stories to introduce specific elements of the target language (Ray & Seely, 2003). This interactive method is rooted in a communicative approach, encouraging learners to actively produce AL output (Lichtman, 2018). TPRS comprises three distinct steps, as explained by Ray and Seely (2003):

- 1) **Introducing meanings of new vocabulary:** In the first step, AL teachers employ various techniques such as body movements, gestures, visual aids, realia, and/or displaying English meanings on the board/screen to introduce new vocabulary. The teachers closely monitor each learner's comprehension before proceeding.
- 2) **Eliciting a story:** The second step involves AL teachers utilizing a prepared script/story to reinforce the newly-introduced vocabulary from step one. The script/story leaves out details the plot. While narrating the story, AL teachers ask questions to prompt learners to recall the vocabulary or contribute missing details, personalizing the narrative.
- 3) **Building literacy through reading the story:** In the third step, AL learners receive a printed version of the script/story, which follows the same structure and includes the newly-taught vocabulary. However, it contains different details from those

added and personalized in the previous step. After reading the script/story, AL teachers use comprehension-checking questions to ensure that all learners understand the newly-taught vocabulary and comprehend the content.

**Project-Based Learning.** The project-based learning method, often associated with student-centered (Beckett, 2006) and autonomy learning approaches (Legutke & Thomas, 2013), signifies a shift towards more learner-active instruction. In this teaching method, considered a post-method in language education, AL learners participate actively in their own learning by undertaking extended tasks posed by the teacher (Beckett & Slater, 2005; Stoller, 2006). These tasks typically require problem-solving, critical-thinking, and interpersonal/intercultural communication skills in instructed AL learning (Beckett & Slater, 2005). Project-based learning prioritizes authentic and meaningful language use, immersing AL learners in real-life scenarios where they actively use the language to accomplish specific goals (Foulger & Jimenez-Silva, 2007). That is, this method empowers AL learners to enhance their linguistic repertoire and skills comprehensively, integrating language production, comprehension, and interaction.

### **2.5.3 Activities**

An activity refers to any procedure used to implement a method in the context of teaching AL (Huang et al., 2011). Activities are used to convey knowledge of newly-taught elements, such as vocabulary, sentence structure, and grammar rules, to AL learners. Examples of activities pertinent to this study include drills, educational games, role plays, watching films in the AL, and oral/written corrective feedback (e.g., Curtis, 2007; R. Ellis, 2006; Roever & Al-Gahtani, 2015; Vazirabad, 2013), as they were either mentioned in or identified from participants' recollections of their past instructed AL learning.

**Drills.** Drills, as instructional activities centered on guided repetition or practice (Chien, 2020; Kahraman, 2012), hold a significant role in instructed AL learning. Harmer (2007) notes that drills are commonly used with learners with low AL proficiency levels, underscoring the need for critically considered application when incorporating them in the classroom. Demirezen (2005) identified a variety of drilling activities, such as repetition, substitution, restatement, and question-answer drills. Each of these drilling activities serves a distinctive function, contributing to different aspects of AL learning and retention. For example, AL teachers employ repetition drills to acquaint learners with particular words or sentence patterns in a short span, facilitating their immediate recall and practical application (Bygate, 2001).

**Educational Games.** Educational games, as the name suggests, are engaging activities designed for specific educational purposes. Vazirabad (2013) highlights that when integrated into AL teaching, these games serve as powerful tools that motivate learners to employ specific strategies to achieve their learning goals. A key feature of educational games lies in their multifaceted nature, often encompassing elements such as a defined learning objective, a task, a set of rules, and competition among learners (Allen et al., 2014; Bahari, 2020; Calvo-Ferrer, 2016; Reinhardt, 2018). These properties combine to create an immersive and interactive learning environment that fosters the attainment of linguistic knowledge and the development of language competencies. Memory games, a notable example of educational games in instructed AL-learning settings (Xanthou, 2010), challenge learners to remember and reproduce the newly-taught target language items. This reinforcement aids memory retention and enhances their understanding of language concepts, including semantics, syntax, and pragmatics.

**Role-Plays.** Role-plays, underpinned by student-centered and communicative approaches, are a vital link between instructed AL-learning settings and real-world language

application (García, 2018). When AL teachers integrate role-plays into their teaching, they create simulated social scenarios within the learning context (Larsen-Freeman & Anderson, 2011). These simulated interactions offer benefits in developing AL learners' fluency by providing an engaging platform for practicing newly-taught target language items (Hayati, 2006; Magos & Politi, 2008; Ross & Zheng, 2021). Richard-Amato (2010) underscores the importance of AL teachers taking on facilitative roles during role-play activities. This involves providing guidance and support when needed and observing and evaluating students' language usage.

**Films in AL.** Incorporating film-watching activities into AL instruction primarily focuses on involving learners' listening skills (Dooley, 2016). Researchers like Bal-Gezegina (2014) and Hwang and Huang (2011) emphasize the importance of using films to introduce authentic language usage into instructed AL-learning settings. Films offer AL learners exposure to a wide range of colloquial and everyday language expressions, which is particularly valuable for those with limited access to native AL-speaking environments (Bajrami & Ismaili, 2016; Webb, 2010, 2015). Albiladi et al. (2018) found that AL learners viewed movies as resources for enhancing their language skills, including listening, speaking, reading, writing, and vocabulary (Albiladi et al., 2018). Furthermore, watching films in learners' AL(s) provides them with an opportunity to observe cultural communication norms to some extent (S. Brown, 2010; Qiang et al., 2007). Despite the benefits of utilizing films in instructed AL teaching, some argue there may be drawbacks, as these films lack explicit instructional and pedagogical purposes (e.g., Kusumaningrum, 2016; Sari & Sugandi, 2015).

**Oral/Written Corrective Feedback.** Oral/written corrective feedback involves the AL teacher responding to errors in learners' speech or written text (I. Lee, 2014; R. Ellis, 2006). These errors typically occur because learners may lack knowledge in particular aspects of their AL(s). For example, an A2-level learner in the Common European Framework of

Reference (CEFR) might misuse gerunds due to insufficient understanding of their appropriate usage. Ellis et al. (2006) suggest that AL teachers' oral/written corrective feedback can take on various forms, including identifying errors, providing the correct target language form, describing and explaining the nature of the error, or using a combination of these techniques. Researchers have varying viewpoints on the use of corrective feedback in AL teaching. For example, Bitchener's and Knoch's (2008) study suggests that learners who receive written corrective feedback perform better than those without such feedback. Conversely, Truscott (1996) argues that such feedback is ineffective in enhancing the accuracy of AL learners' writing.

This section has reviewed examples of approaches in the literature that form the foundation of teaching practices, namely methods and activities. Approaches encompass the pedagogical theories, principles, and philosophies about how an AL should be learned and taught. Approaches are carried out by methods, which consist of activities to reach specific teaching objectives. It is important to note that approaches should not be viewed as segregated compartments, as some aspects of different approaches can overlap.

A literature review shows that ESOL teachers' experiences with their former AL teachers' teaching practices can impact their perceptions of their learning experiences and the effectiveness of various AL-teaching practices. Despite the research conducted by researchers such as E. Ellis (2016b) and Forman (2015) to investigate how ESOL teachers' instructed AL learning can contribute to their teacher knowledge, this area of study remains underexplored, particularly in the New Zealand context. This study aims to fill this gap in the literature and shed light on the potential benefits of ESOL teachers' instructed AL learning on their TESOL knowledge and teaching practices. The following section will delve into these benefits in detail.

## 2.6 Potential Impact of Instructed AL Learning

As this study aims to examine the formal language-learning experiences of New Zealand-based ESOL teachers, this section will review the literature relevant to the associated impact of instructed AL learning, namely plurilingualism (2.6.1) and intercultural communication competence (ICC) (2.6.2). The theoretical lenses of ‘teacher knowledge’ and ‘teacher linguistic identity’ guide the examination of how teachers perceive the reported impacts of their past instructed AL learning, potentially enabling them to foster plurilingualism and enhance ICC among their students.

### 2.6.1 *Plurilingualism*

Researchers have explored the impact of instructed AL learning, with many highlighting plurilingualism as one such impact (e.g., E. Ellis, 2013; Otwinowska, 2014, 2017; Woll & Paquet, 2021). Plurilingualism, as defined by the Council of Europe (2023), involves the dynamic application of multiple languages or language varieties alongside cultural knowledge, awareness and/or experiential acumen in social contexts. Plurilingualism is often equated with bilingualism (i.e., the existence of or the ability to use two languages) (e.g., Claussenius-Kalman et al., 2021; Li et al., 2020) or multilingualism (i.e., the existence of or the ability to use multiple languages) (e.g., Henry, 2020; M. Liu, 2020). However, as the participants in this study may have one or more ALs, the term ‘bilingualism’ is not precise for describing their linguistic identities. While both multilingualism and plurilingualism involve linguistic knowledge and repertoires of different languages, they differ in their conceptual underpinnings and applicability to this study’s context. Multilingualism refers to the coexisting knowledge of different languages separately, often with distinct usage in distinct domains (Council of Europe, 2001). Plurilingualism is more fitting for this study due to its dynamic and holistic nature. Unlike multilingualism, plurilingualism emphasizes the

interconnected and synergistic use of different languages, promoting their active interplay and integration in communication. Furthermore, plurilingualism aligns with the study's theoretical framings of 'teacher knowledge' and 'teacher linguistic identity' as they highlight teachers' understanding of how their plurilingual competence shapes the knowledge they bring into the classroom. Thus, the term 'plurilingual' is used throughout this thesis to refer to the participants' linguistic knowledge, repertoires, and identities. In this study, the participants have self-reported plurilingual competence (see 3.5).

The following sub-sections review how plurilingualism relates to instructed AL learning, exploring its recognized merits identified by researchers. This review will cover impacts such as enhanced cognitive flexibility (e.g., Kuipers & Thierry, 2013; Nicolay & Poncelet, 2013), intercultural empathy (e.g., Dewaele & Stavans, 2012; Drewelow & Finney, 2020), and social flexibility (e.g., Ikizer & Ramírez-Esparza, 2018; Palviainen et al., 2016). As plurilingual and cultural identity are closely intertwined (Galante & dela Cruz, 2021; Prasad, 2012), the sub-section proceeds to explore pertinent literature on such relationships.

**Plurilingualism and Instructed AL Learning.** 'Teacher knowledge' and 'teacher linguistic identity' are the theoretical framings underpinning this study, guiding the understanding of the reported impact of ESOL teachers' past instructed AL learning on their TESOL knowledge, teaching practices, and perceptions of the profession. Plurilingualism, which is concerned with individuals' linguistic knowledge and identities, aligns with these framings as it provides an enriched perspective to examine and understand the complexities of language education. It has been a subject of extensive research in applied linguistics in recent decades, as demonstrated by the work of researchers such as Jeoffrion et al. (2014) and Oliveira and Ançã (2009). For instance, Jeoffrion et al. (2014) examined 684 AL learners' perceptions of plurilingualism and how they can develop plurilingual competence in a predominantly monolingual French academic setting. They found that learners whose AL was

at an advanced level engaged in learning multiple languages and exhibited a more plurilingual posture than beginner AL learners or those studying few ALs (Jeoffrion et al., 2014). According to Jeoffrion et al. (2014), a plurilingual posture refers to learners demonstrating flexible abilities to learn ALs and applying holistic and experiential AL-learning approaches.

A prominent area of inquiry in plurilingualism is the notion of translanguaging. Translanguaging refers to the discourse practices of utilizing multiple linguistic resources and repertoires (Creese & Blackledge, 2015; García & Lin, 2017). According to García and colleagues (García & Kleifgen, 2019; García et al., 2011; García & Wei, 2014), translanguaging recognizes the dynamic and fluid nature of individuals' linguistic repertoires, surpassing the traditional perspective of language as a static system defined by structures and rules. Additionally, translanguaging is a social practice shaped by its context, such as in language classrooms. In this study, the relevance of translanguaging is evident as participants may have encountered and incorporated it in their past AL learning or as part of their teaching practices, making it an integral aspect of teacher knowledge in the study's context.

Although translanguaging and the bilingual-instructional approach involve the use of multiple languages in AL learning/teaching, they differ in their emphasis. Translanguaging encourages fluid language use, drawing on all linguistic resources (García & Lin, 2017), while bilingual instruction involves structured teaching in two languages (Borg & Al-Busaidi, 2012). Various researchers (e.g., Llanes & Cots, 2022; Menken & Sánchez, 2019) have examined the impacts of translanguaging pedagogies in AL classroom settings. For example, Llanes and Cots (2022) conducted a study that compared the outcomes of employing a plurilingual pedagogy incorporating translanguaging with the immersion approach in a business English course at a university in Spain. The study involved 54 Catalan/Spanish ELLs, with 35 in the translanguaging group and 19 in the immersive group. In the

translanguaging group, the teacher encouraged the use of Catalan/Spanish alongside English, while in the immersive group, only English was permitted (Llanes & Cots, 2022). The ELLs underwent a placement test, submitted a written composition, delivered an oral sales pitch, and completed a pre- and post-pedagogical application questionnaire to assess their ESOL development in terms of fluency, lexical complexity, grammatical complexity, accuracy, and other factors (Llanes & Cots, 2022). The results indicated that while both groups of ELLs made similar overall progress, the translanguaging group exhibited some notable advantages over the immersive group, particularly in the context of the sales pitch (Llanes & Cots, 2022). Llanes's and Cots's (2022) study underscores the potential benefits of incorporating translanguaging into instructed language education.

**Enhanced Cognitive Flexibility.** Enhanced cognitive flexibility has been identified as a potential impact of AL learners' plurilingualism (e.g., Kuipers & Thierry, 2013; Nicolay & Poncelet, 2013). Cognitive flexibility is individuals' ability to switch between thoughts and behaviors within particular situations (Chevalier & Blaye, 2009) and is often associated with open-mindedness (Christmas & Barker, 2014). Enhanced cognitive flexibility often emerges from individuals constantly switching between two or more languages (Prior & MacWhinney, 2010; Seçer, 2016). For example, in a study by Prior and MacWhinney (2010), 45 monolingual and 27 bilingual university students in the United States were compared using a task-switching paradigm. Findings in the study showed that the bilinguals experienced reduced switching costs (i.e., time and cognitive effort) in the task-switching paradigm compared to the monolinguals. This finding suggests that the bilinguals' lifelong experience of switching between two languages may have contributed to their heightened ability to shift between mental tasks flexibly (Prior & MacWhinney, 2010). Notably, the study found no significant difference in the cost of performing mixed-task blocks compared to single-task blocks for both bilinguals and monolinguals. Consequently, Prior and MacWhinney (2010)

concluded that the advantages observed in the bilinguals' executive functions extended beyond merely inhibiting or controlling competing responses. Instead, the bilinguals also demonstrated an enhanced ability to flexibly shift their attention and cognitive focus between different tasks or mental sets (Prior & MacWhinney, 2010). The finding regarding the correlation between individuals' linguistic knowledge, linguistic repertoires, and enhanced cognitive flexibility is relevant for this study as the participants identify as bilingual/plurilingual.

**Enhanced Cultural Empathy.** In addition to enhanced cognitive flexibility, researchers (e.g., Dewaele & Stavans, 2012; Drewelow & Finney, 2020) have identified enhanced cultural empathy as another potential positive impact of AL learners' plurilingualism. Empathy, defined as the ability to understand and share others' feelings (see 2.7.1 for further details on empathy and its types), encompasses cultural empathy, which is an individual's learned ability to empathize with individuals from different cultural backgrounds (Dewaele & MacIntyre, 2019). Existing literature suggests a strong connection between cultural empathy and instructed AL learning, language awareness, and cultural awareness (e.g., Dewaele, 2012; Dewaele & van Oudenhoven, 2009) due to the intertwined nature of language and culture. For example, Dewaele and van Oudenhoven (2009) conducted a study in the United Kingdom involving two groups of teenagers. One group was comprised of UK-born individuals, while the other consisted of individuals born abroad but raised in the UK during childhood (Dewaele & van Oudenhoven, 2009). The latter group demonstrated higher levels of open-mindedness and cultural empathy than the former (Dewaele & van Oudenhoven, 2009). Furthermore, Deawele and van Oudenhoven (2009) found that plurilingual participants scored significantly higher in open-mindedness and marginally higher in cultural empathy when compared to their monolingual counterparts. These findings indicate that cultural empathy is associated with individuals' cultural knowledge and

plurilingual linguistic identity. Consequently, these insights are relevant to the present study, which aims to examine the reported impact of ESOL teachers' past instructed AL learning on their TESOL knowledge and teaching practices.

Although some researchers have observed correlations between individuals' plurilingualism and cultural empathy (e.g., Dewaele, 2012; Dewaele & van Oudenhoven, 2009), others have expressed contrasting viewpoints. For instance, Drewelow and Finney (2020) have raised doubts about this association. They argue that learning an AL does not necessarily result in the development of cultural empathy (Drewelow & Finney, 2020). From their perspective, true cultural empathy can only be nurtured through a deeper understanding, appreciation, and analysis of the similarities and differences between one's own culture(s) and other cultures (Drewelow & Finney, 2020).

**Enhanced Social Flexibility.** Plurilingualism has also been associated with enhanced social flexibility, as evidenced in several studies (e.g., Ikizer & Ramírez-Esparza, 2018; Palviainen et al., 2016). Social flexibility refers to individuals' ability to adapt to different social contexts (Ikizer and Ramírez-Esparza, 2018), suggesting that this adaptability is a crucial component of interpersonal and intercultural competence. Research shows that plurilingual individuals' ability to translanguage contributes to their enhanced social flexibility (e.g., Blackburn, 2018; Ikizer & Ramírez-Esparza, 2018). For example, a study conducted by Ikizer and Ramírez-Esparza (2018), which employed the Trait Emotional Intelligence Questionnaire (Petrides, 2009), underscores the connection between bilingualism and higher levels of social flexibility when compared to monolingual individuals. Their research highlights the positive impact of linguistic knowledge and plurilingual repertoire on individuals' ability to navigate complex social situations and establish meaningful relationships with people from diverse linguistic and cultural backgrounds (Ikizer & Ramírez-Esparza, 2018). The finding suggests that the plurilingualism of the New Zealand-

based ESOL teachers in the present study may enhance their social flexibility. This, in turn, could have implications for the teachers' interactions with linguistically diverse students as part of their teaching practices.

**Plurilingualism and Cultural Identity.** The literature on plurilingualism often addresses cultural identity due to the interconnectedness between language and culture (e.g., Galante & dela Cruz, 2021; Prasad, 2012). Unlike linguistic identities (i.e., how individuals perceive themselves as speakers and/or learners of one or more languages; also see 2.2.3), cultural identities pertain to individuals' self-identification with specific cultural group(s) (Nguyen & Benet-Martínez, 2010; Verderber et al., 2010). As there is an intertwined relationship between linguistic and cultural identities (Norton & Toohey, 2011; Otcu-Grillman, 2016), the applied linguistics literature suggests that individuals who have undergone or are undergoing AL learning may identify with multiple cultures and exhibit cultural competence in various cultural contexts, making them bicultural (Brannen & Thomas, 2010), multicultural (Fitzsimmons, 2013), transcultural (Trenchs-Parera & Pastena, 2021), or pluricultural individuals (Galante & dela Cruz, 2021). The term 'bicultural' describes individuals who have internalized two sets of cultural schemata in the literature (e.g., Brannen & Thomas, 2010; Furusawa & Brewser, 2015), encompassing social roles and cultural values. Those who have internalized more than two sets of distinct cultural schemata are considered multicultural (Fitzsimmons, 2013). According to Trenchs-Parera and Pastena (2021), a transcultural identity is a multifaceted construct that emerges from integrating intercultural friendships and personal and family plurilingualism, showcasing individuals' competence in navigating diverse cultural contexts. In this thesis, I use 'pluricultural' to refer to individuals who internalize more than one set of interconnected cultural schemata. I choose this term because it captures the multifaceted nature of individuals' cultural identity, embracing diverse cultural impacts and promoting a holistic understanding of various

interconnected cultures and sub-cultures. However, it is important to emphasize that not all plurilingual individuals are pluricultural, as one does not guarantee the other, although pluricultural individuals are likely to be plurilingual.

Like plurilingual individuals, the literature suggests that pluricultural individuals have various advantages, including enhanced cognitive flexibility, cultural empathy, and social flexibility (e.g., Christmas & Barker, 2014; Cassels et al., 2010; Tadmor et al., 2009). For example, Tadmor et al. (2009) found that among their 75 participants, those who identified as bicultural exhibited greater socio-cognitive skills through advanced reasoning compared to monocultural participants. Other researchers have also observed that pluricultural individuals excel in intercultural settings, smoothly transitioning between two or more cultural orientations (e.g., Nguyen & Benet-Martínez, 2013; Padilla, 2006). A meta-analysis by Nguyen and Benet-Martínez (2013) illustrates the correlation between plurilingual identities and adjustment. The findings indicated that pluricultural individuals are likely to demonstrate competence in effective communication in intercultural settings (Nguyen & Benet-Martínez, 2013), such as the instructed ESOL-learning settings where participants of this study teach. Analyzing keywords associated with plurilingualism and pluriculturalism, namely language, cultural empathy, and communication, the following sub-section examines the interrelationships among instructed AL learning, cultures, and ICC.

### ***2.6.2 Intercultural Communication Competence (ICC)***

Researchers have identified the impact of individuals' plurilingual competence: their enhanced intercultural communication competence (ICC) (e.g., Arasaratnam-Smith, 2016; Fenner, 2008). ICC refers to individuals' "ability to communicate effectively and appropriately in intercultural situations based on one's intercultural knowledge, skills, and attitudes" (Deardorff, 2004, p. 194). However, it is crucial to note that merely learning

another language and becoming plurilingual is insufficient to develop ICC in AL learners, including ELLs.

For Byram (1997, 2003), ICC consists of the following four components.

- Linguistic competence: the ability to apply linguistic knowledge in both spoken and written language production and comprehension;
- Sociolinguistic competence: the ability to apply social language norms and understand implied meanings shared by conversational partners, irrespective of their linguistic identities;
- Discourse competence: the ability to apply strategies for creating and comprehending various discourse genres while adhering to the interlocutor's cultural conventions or engaging in negotiation to understand intercultural texts;
- Intercultural competence: the ability to utilize one's knowledge (of self and others), skills (to interpret and relate, and discover and/or interact), and attitudes (to relativize self and value others) for appropriate interaction with individuals from diverse linguistic and cultural backgrounds. These factors in intercultural communication were summarized based on Byram's (1997) work.

Researchers have identified numerous benefits associated with enhanced ICC (e.g., Brunsmeier, 2017; Cetinavci, 2012). Similar to the advantages of plurilingualism (see 2.6.1), these benefits include, but are not limited to, enhanced cultural empathy (e.g., Calloway-Thomas et al., 2017; Deardorff, 2006) and improved cognitive flexibility (e.g., Griffith et al., 2016; Moeller & Osborn, 2014). For example, Deardorff's (2006) study aimed to define ICC and identify suitable assessment methods with input from a worldwide panel of renowned intercultural experts. Among the identified components, cultural empathy emerged as a

crucial aspect of ICC (Deardorff, 2006). Another benefit of enhanced ICC is effective communication skills across cultures (e.g., Penbek et al., 2012; Young & Sachdev, 2015). These communication skills encompass both interpersonal and intercultural aspects. Interpersonal communication relates to interactions between individuals, while intercultural communication involves individuals from diverse cultural backgrounds (e.g., Gudykunst, 2003; Scollon et al., 2012). ICC is particularly relevant to this study because AL-learning settings often take place in intercultural sociocultural contexts (e.g., E. Ellis, 2004a; Zhang & Pelttari, 2013). As emphasized by Williams et al. (2015), “learners in our language classroom can never be separated from the other areas of their lives” (p. 145).

Thus far, this section has shown the impact of instructed AL learning. The literature suggests that the interwoven relationships between language (including both L1 and AL(s)) and culture are broad and multidimensional. In the context of this study, participants’ linguistic identities can impact how they perceive the intricate relationship between their past instructed AL learning, TESOL knowledge, teaching practices, and professional perceptions at both individual and TESOL-sector levels. Consequently, the following summarizes the potential impact of past instructed AL learning:

- enhanced cognitive flexibility;
- enhanced cultural empathy;
- enhanced social flexibility;
- linguistic knowledge of L1 and AL;
- cultural knowledge of self and others;
- improved interpersonal and intercultural communication skills; and
- critical cultural awareness.

Examining the potential impact of ESOL teachers' instructed AL-learning experiences offers insights into how these experiences can shape their TESOL knowledge and teaching practices. The impacts listed above are relevant to this study, particularly concerning the enhanced cultural empathy of AL learners. Recognized is the critical role that empathy from AL teachers, including ESOL teachers, plays in ensuring effective teaching. Therefore, the subsequent section will review the existing literature on AL teachers' empathy for their students.

## **2.7 AL Teachers' Empathy for Language Learners**

Research supports the notion that teachers' empathy for students leads to positive learning outcomes (e.g., Mercer, 2016; Zhang, 2022). Empathy, broadly defined as the ability to understand others' feelings or experiences (Baumeister & Vohs, 2007), is a key focus in discussions about AL teachers' empathy for their students. These discussions connect AL teachers' empathy and teacher knowledge, drawing from various sources such as teaching experiences, teacher education and training, and instructed AL-learning experiences (e.g., Daniel, 2015; Warren, 2018). Teaching with empathy is particularly important in AL education, where classrooms (including ESOL classrooms) often involve intercultural and sociocultural contexts (e.g., E. Ellis, 2004a; Zhang & Pelttari, 2013), with learners and teachers from different linguistic and cultural backgrounds. This holds true in the New Zealand TESOL sector, whether public or private, making ESOL teachers' empathy for ELLs pertinent to this study.

In the applied linguistics literature, empathy is generally referred to as AL teachers' ability to comprehend their students' perspectives and experiences (e.g., E. Ellis, 2004a, 2004b; Washburn, 2008; Wright-Maley & Green, 2015). However, this definition is somewhat ambiguous as researchers (e.g., A. Smith, 2006; Drewelow & Finney, 2020) have

identified distinct types of empathy, such as emotional and cultural empathy, and acknowledge that empathy levels can vary due to factors like learning experiences and outcomes. That is, convergence and divergence among AL teachers' knowledge and linguistic identities may lead to teachers exhibiting diverse levels of empathy and empathetic responses. While previous studies have explored the connection between ESOL teachers' experiences as former AL learners and their empathy levels for students (e.g., E. Ellis, 2004a, 2004b; Moodie, 2016), scant attention has been given to examining the various characteristics of ESOL teachers' empathy. Addressing this gap, the present study seeks to contribute to a deeper understanding of these dimensions.

The sub-sections below review three common types of empathy found in the literature on education and psychology: cognitive empathy, emotional empathy, and compassionate empathy (e.g., Decety & Jackson, 2004; Dewaele & Wei, 2012; Meyers et al., 2019). This exploration is important because the notion of empathy is often left undefined in the literature on language education (e.g., Marx & Pray, 2011; McAlinden, 2014).

### **2.7.1 *Types of Empathy***

Existing research in language education recognizes the critical role of teachers' empathy for their students (e.g., Mercer, 2016; Turgut Dost, 2016). However, the term 'empathy' has somewhat become overused, with researchers often failing to provide a clear definition in their studies. In addition, there is a lack of clear descriptions regarding how ESOL teachers perceive the connections between their instructed AL-learning experience and the types and levels of empathy they have for and their empathetic responses to their students. Therefore, it is important to identify different types of empathy teachers may have for their students to understand how teachers' emotional support and teaching practices can impact language-learning outcomes and overall educational experiences. To better understand the factors shaping ESOL teachers'

empathy for their students, I will examine common categorizations of empathy found in the literature on education and psychology: cognitive, emotional, and compassionate empathy.

**Cognitive Empathy.** Cognitive empathy involves individuals using evidence or prior knowledge to intellectually infer the mental states or perspectives of others (Decety & Jackson, 2004; A. Smith, 2006). In the context of AL teaching (including ESOL teaching), teachers' cognitive empathy enables them to understand their students' perceptions of instructed language-learning processes by imagining having gone through similar experiences. To the best of my knowledge, the field of applied linguistics has not extensively explored AL teachers' cognitive empathy for their students. However, it is worth noting that cognitive empathy can have various impacts on instructed AL learning, particularly for AL learners who later become AL teachers (including ESOL teachers) (also see 2.2.2 for the apprenticeship of observation). The following examines how these impacts can shape AL learning and teaching practices.

Teachers' cognitive empathy entails comprehending and recognizing the experiences of their students (Wink et al., 2021). This understanding and recognition can make AL learners feel that their experiences are acknowledged and validated, fostering a positive connection between students and teachers (Wink et al., 2021), which may increase learners' motivation and sense of agency in learning (Glas, 2015). It can be assumed that when AL learners feel that their teachers understand them, they are likely to feel empowered to take ownership of their learning. These experiences can inform future AL teachers about the impact that cognitive empathy can have on their students' language-learning experiences. For example, future AL teachers may strive to establish a strong rapport with their own students, promoting open communication and trust.

Teachers who exhibit cognitive empathy may better be able to understand their students' personal and social circumstances (Meyers et al., 2019). These circumstances may include challenges that AL learners face, such as anxiety, fear of making mistakes, and shame (Bernal Castañeda, 2017; Dörnyei, 2005; Teimouri, 2018). By exhibiting cognitive empathy, AL teachers can establish safe learning environments where students feel comfortable, even when making mistakes. Consequently, in such classrooms, AL learners may be more likely to take risks and experiment with the newly-learned language, which can boost their confidence and proficiency.

**Emotional Empathy.** Emotional empathy, also known as 'affective empathy' or 'sympathy' (Sallquist et al., 2009; Zhang, 2022), involves individuals sharing a 'fellow feeling' with others due to shared experiences (Hodges & Myers, 2007). In the context of AL education (including ESOL education), emotional empathy pertains to how AL teachers who have faced language-learning challenges can connect emotionally with students undergoing similar struggles. While some research has examined AL teachers' empathy for their students (e.g., Washburn, 2008; Zhang, 2022), no previous study in applied linguistics has investigated the impact of emotional empathy on instructed AL-learning experiences. Nonetheless, it is important to acknowledge that AL teachers' emotional empathy can impact their students' learning experiences, prompting this study to examine the reported impact of the participants' past instructed AL learning. Therefore, the following examines how AL teachers' emotional empathy can shape learning experiences.

Emotional empathy, which involves emotion contagion (Reniers et al., 2011), can enable AL teachers to address shared emotional challenges with their students because it strengthens their rapport with students. As Meng (2021) notes, a positive student-teacher relationship encourages active student participation. This study deems emotional empathy relevant to the research aim, as ESOL teachers with firsthand AL-learning challenges (i.e., a

part of their teacher knowledge) are likely to develop emotional empathy for their students (i.e., an integral aspect of their teaching practice).

**Compassionate Empathy.** Compassionate empathy, building on cognitive and/or emotional empathy, goes beyond understanding or feeling others' suffering by driving individuals to take deliberate actions to alleviate others' difficulties (Maxwell, 2008, 2017). In the context of AL teaching, compassionate empathy pertains to teachers implementing specific teaching practices to help their students overcome adversity. Prior research concerning AL teachers' empathetic responses to their students' struggles has primarily focused on how these responses were executed (e.g., Al-Tamimi & Gregersen, 2023; Meyers et al., 2019) rather than exploring their impact on AL learners' experiences. However, since empathetic responses are integral to ESOL teachers' teaching practices based on their teacher knowledge, compassionate empathy is relevant in this study. The following will examine how AL teachers' compassionate empathy can impact learners' experiences in instructed AL learning.

As compassionate empathy involves actively engaging with others' adverse states (Maxwell, 2017), AL teachers with this empathy are likely to utilize teaching practices attuned to their students' academic and emotional needs. They made use their teacher knowledge to address emotional challenges that can hinder AL learners' language performance. These practices that can impact the learning experiences of AL learners, especially future AL teachers, who may adopt similar approaches based on their observations of effective empathetic responses from their former AL teachers (also refer to 2.2.2 for the apprenticeship of observation).

Academic literature on AL teachers' empathy has mainly focused on empathizing with learners' negative experiences (e.g., E. Ellis, 2004a; Wright-Maley & Green, 2015),

neglecting teachers' empathy for and empathetic responses to their students' positive learning experiences. The existing categorizations of empathy in the educational and psychological literature (i.e., cognitive, emotional, and compassionate) do not provide a comprehensive view of AL teachers' empathy. Furthermore, little is known about how ESOL teachers' instructed AL-learning experiences impact on the types and levels of their empathetic responses to ELLs, despite its significance in shaping their teaching practices. This study contributes to filling the gap. The following section reviews the literature on how ESOL teachers' linguistic identities are perceived in the sector.

## **2.8 TESOL Sector's Perception of ESOL Teachers' Linguistic Identities**

In the context of exploring how New Zealand-based ESOL teachers' instructed AL-learning experiences inform their TESOL knowledge, teaching practices, and perceptions of the profession, this study employs 'teacher knowledge' and 'teacher linguistic identity' as theoretical framings to help understand the reported impact of these experiences. Here, teacher knowledge refers to teachers' understanding of the subject they teach and their teaching practices. Linguistic identity pertains to how individuals perceive themselves as speakers and/or learners of one or more languages (E. Ellis, 2016b; Smirnova & Iliev, 2016). In the applied linguistics literature, ESOL teachers are often categorized into two groups: native English-speaking teachers (NESTs) and non-native English-speaking teachers (non-NESTs) (e.g., Moussu & Llurda, 2008; Walkinshaw & Oanh, 2014). This NEST/non-NEST dichotomy reflects how the linguistic identities of these teacher populations are perceived within the TESOL sector. The following sub-sections will provide a review of the literature concerning the NEST/non-NEST binary (2.8.1), native-speakerism (2.8.2), accent prejudice (2.8.3), and white privilege (2.8.4).

### **2.8.1 NEST/Non-NEST Dichotomy**

Research on ESOL teachers' linguistic identities (i.e., L1 and/or AL) typically focuses on teachers' perceived strengths and weaknesses (e.g., Moussu, 2018; Rao & Chen, 2019), linking them to TESOL knowledge and teaching practices. For example, various studies show that NESTs excel in teaching English listening and speaking (e.g., Lasagabaster & Sierra, 2005; Pacek, 2005), while non-NESTs are effective at teaching English reading and grammar (e.g., Macaro & Lee, 2013; Mahboob, 2004). Researchers such as Y. Butler (2007) and Walkinshaw and Oanh (2014) suggest that non-NESTs' strengths often relate to their linguistic identities and experiences as former ELLs. However, limited attention has been given to exploring NESTs' linguistic identities as former AL learners (e.g., Walkinshaw & Oanh, 2014; Zhang-Wu, 2021), potentially leading to an incomplete understanding of their teacher knowledge and teaching practices and perpetuating biases in the TESOL sector.

The debate over categorizing ESOL teachers as either NESTs or non-NESTs has sparked discussions in the TESOL sector (e.g., E. Ellis, 2016b; Medgyes, 2020, 2021). For example, Medgyes (2020) argues that both NESTs and non-NESTs face challenges in ESOL teaching, emphasizing the importance of TESOL qualifications and experience for both groups. He suggests that ideally NESTs should speak "the local language" (Medgye, 2020, p. 40) (i.e., their ELLs' L1), while ideally non-NESTs should have high English proficiency. This perspective underscores the problematic nature of binary categorization of ESOL teachers, as it oversimplifies teachers' linguistic identities, particularly for those with multiple languages, reinforcing the notion of a rigid division between NESTs and non-NESTs.

The NEST/non-NEST dichotomy implies a clear separation between the two teacher groups but overlooks the diversity within each. X. Zheng's (2017) study challenges this binary categorization by examining the experiences of two ESOL teaching assistants at an

American university. Despite both being perceived as non-NESTs in the TESOL sector, their linguistic identities and linguistic repertoires differed (one Mandarin-speaking and the other Arabic-speaking) (X. Zheng, 2017). The Mandarin-speaking teaching assistant adopted a monolingual approach, while the Arabic-speaking one encouraged translanguaging in the classroom (X. Zheng, 2017). X. Zheng's (2017) study underscores the importance of ESOL teachers recognizing the connection between their linguistic identities and their own language pedagogy, enabling them to effectively leverage diverse linguistic resources in the classroom to the benefit of both educators and learners.

Researchers (e.g., E. Ellis, 2016b; Medgyes, 2017, 2021) reject the categorization of ESOL teachers into NESTs and non-NESTs based on their linguistic identities. Medgyes (2017) contends that labeling non-NESTs with the prefix 'non-' implies that they are deficient users of the English language, which is a negative and unfair characterization. Categorizing ESOL teachers should consider their plurilingual linguistic identities. Relying solely on their L1s for categorization can lead to misrepresentations of teachers' language proficiency and linguistic identities, resulting in inaccurate assumptions undermining the importance of plurilingualism in language learning and teaching.

Finally, the NEST/non-NEST dichotomy binary perpetuates the outdated belief in the superiority of 'native English speakers' over those with English as their AL, neglecting the diverse linguistic identities and repertoires of ESOL teachers from various backgrounds. Instead, a perspective that emphasizes ESOL teachers' proficiency as AL users, regardless of their L1(s), offers a more relevant and meaningful identity position. This recognition underscores the significance of teachers' TESOL knowledge and pedagogical skills over mere nativeness. By shifting away from the limiting NEST/non-NEST dichotomy and embracing proficiency as AL users, the TESOL sector can unlock its full potential, fostering a more equitable, innovative, and transformative language education landscape.

### 2.8.2 *Native-Speakerism*

Native-speakerism is a pervasive preconception within the TESOL sector, underpinning the NEST/non-NEST dichotomy, which assumes that NESTs embody advanced TESOL knowledge and teaching practices (Holliday, 2006, 2017). However, this notion has faced critical scrutiny in applied linguistics literature (e.g., Holliday, 2015, 2017; Wang & Fang, 2020). For example, Holliday (2017) argues that native-speakerism is a neo-racist ideology, falsely positioning NESTs as linguistically superior and non-NESTs inferior. Given one of the theoretical framings of this study (i.e., teacher linguistic identity), native-speakerism is of particular relevance and interest for examination.

Native-speakerism wrongly positions NESTs in a superior position over non-NESTs, creating a hierarchy within the TESOL sector that privileges the former. Kiczkowiak and Wu (2018) and Wang and Lin (2013) explain that this hierarchy has led some employers to prefer NESTs during the hiring process. Moreover, in some parts of the world, NESTs' linguistic identities as native speakers of English are seen as important for TESOL positions, as indicated in job advertisements analyzed by Mahboob and Golden (2013) for ESOL teachers in East Asia and the Middle East. Of the 77 advertisements they analyzed, only ten did not require ESOL teachers to be from English-speaking countries (e.g., the United Kingdom, the United States) or have English as their L1 (Mahboob & Golden, 2013). Jenkins (2017) and Floris and Renandya (2020) have also reported similar findings, highlighting the common occupational requirement for ESOL teachers to possess a native-English-speaking linguistic identity in the TESOL sector.

Researchers have found that some employers' preference for NESTs stems from the commercialization of the TESOL sector, particularly in private language schools (e.g., Clark & Paran, 2007; Holliday, 2005; Medgyes, 2001). The business-oriented nature of ESOL

education is evident in the way ELLs are referred to as ‘clients’ or ‘customers’ in the literature (e.g., Breshears, 2004; Phillipson, 2009; Walker, 2010). Private language schools, being businesses, prioritize profitability. To please student-customers and safeguard their business interests, some employers in the private for-profit TESOL sector prioritize NESTs. They argue that ELLs prefer to learn from NESTs because they want to learn authentic English (Huang, 2018; Huo, 2020; Kiczkowiak, 2020). One key argument for the ‘authenticity’ of Englishes spoken by NESTs is their ‘native accents’. Next, the literature on accent prejudice in the TESOL sector, an extension of native-speakerism, is reviewed.

### **2.8.3 *Accent Prejudice***

Accents play a significant role in how ESOL teachers are perceived in the TESOL sector (Lippi-Green, 1997). An accent refers to the way(s) individuals pronounce words or phrases in their language(s) (L1 and AL), reflecting specific phonetic features and intonation patterns (Baratta, 2018; Derwing & Munro, 2005). Factors impacting accents include geographical backgrounds, sociocultural backgrounds, and L1s (Lippi-Green, 2004, 2012). Researchers like Kelch and Santana-Williamson (2002) and Sung (2014) have noted that native-speakerism and the NEST/non-NEST dichotomy shape how ESOL teachers are perceived and treated in the sector, leading to varying degrees of accent prejudice. Accent prejudice is the perception that particular accents are superior to others (Baratta, 2018). For instance, Sung (2014) explored 25 Hong Kong secondary ELLs’ perceptions of NESTs and non-NESTs, finding that NESTs were seen as having accurate accents, while non-NESTs’ accents were perceived as inaccurate. Similarly, Kelch and Santana-Williamson (2002) reported that non-native accents could lead to negative perceptions of teachers’ knowledge and skills in ESOL teaching. Considering the theoretical framings of ‘teacher knowledge’ and ‘teacher linguistic identity’, which encompass linguistic repertoires and accents, the English

accents of New Zealand-based ESOL teachers participating in this study are of interest due to their diverse range of accents.

The applied linguistics literature reports that ELLs generally prefer NESTs' accents (e.g., Levis et al., 2016; Sung, 2014). For example, Levis et al. (2016) conducted a study involving 32 ELLs from various language backgrounds (Mandarin, Spanish, Portuguese, Russian, and Vietnamese) at an American university. These ELLs participated in an ESOL course taught by both an American ESOL teacher and a Turkish ESOL teacher, each delivering pronunciation lessons with identical content over a seven-week period (Levis et al., 2016). The learners were then asked to rate the accents of both teachers. The findings indicated that, despite many learners expressing a preference for NESTs, the ELLs rated the comprehensibility of both teachers similarly (Levis et al., 2016).

While some researchers (e.g., Buckingham, 2015; Y. Butler, 2007) suggest that ELLs prefer NESTs' accents because they aim to achieve native-like accents, various studies challenge this perspective (e.g., Alghofaili & Elyas, 2017; Tsang, 2017). For example, Alghofaili and Elyas (2017) investigated the English-accent preferences of Saudi university ELLs who were taught by both NESTs and non-NESTs from various countries (the United States, the United Kingdom, Canada, Pakistan, India, Syria, Malaysia, Egypt, Turkey, and Saudi Arabia). The ELLs were asked to provide feedback on their ESOL teachers' accents (Alghofaili & Elyas, 2017). The study found that these ELLs preferred ESOL teachers with English accents that they were familiar with, specifically Saudi-English accents and native-English accents (i.e., American, British, and Canadian) (Alghofaili & Elyas, 2017). As a result, Alghofaili and Elyas (2017) concluded that Saudi ELLs did not favor NESTs or non-NESTs, and the comprehensibility of their ESOL teachers determined their preference for particular accents.

Despite differing findings, Levis et al. (2016) and Alghofaili and Elyas (2017) shared the viewpoint that ESOL teachers' linguistic identities and accents do not significantly impact ELLs' learning outcomes. That is, their studies indicated that ESOL teachers' linguistic identities and accents were irrelevant to ELLs' learning outcomes. Levis et al. (2016) concluded that effective pronunciation teaching is related to ESOL teachers' TESOL knowledge and teaching practices rather than their linguistic identities and accents.

#### **2.8.4 *White Privilege***

ESOL teachers' physical appearances, particularly their skin tone and facial features, have an impact on how they are perceived in the TESOL sector (Ruecker & Ives, 2015). Several researchers (e.g., Huo, 2022; Kubota & Fujimoto, 2013) have discussed white privilege within the sector. In this context, white privilege refers to the advantages 'white' ESOL teachers have over 'non-white' ESOL teachers, particularly in the hiring process (Grant & Wong, 2008; Ruecker & Ives, 2015). Although ESOL teachers' physical characteristics linked to their ethnic backgrounds are not necessarily related to their linguistic identities, the literature suggests that native-speakerism is entwined with how stakeholders in the TESOL sector (e.g., employers, ELLs) perceive ESOL teachers' 'whiteness' or 'non-whiteness' (e.g., Romney, 2010; Stephan, 2006). Native-speakerism has resulted in implicit biases toward ESOL teachers' appearances (Kubota, 2015; Kubota & Lin, 2006). Implicit bias refers to subconscious perceptions and stereotypes that impact individuals' attitudes, behaviors, and decisions toward others (Al-Hoorie, 2015; Harrison-Bernard et al., 2020). For example, Kubota and colleagues (Kubota & Fujimoto, 2013; Kubota & Lin, 2006) found that ELLs and employers have implicit biases that associate 'whiteness' and 'Western' appearances (e.g., blond hair, blue eyes) with native English speakers. ESOL teachers' appearance is of interest in this study as participants (both NESTs and non-NESTs) have

identified prejudicial attitudes among TESOL stakeholders toward teachers who are either perceived as ‘white’ or ‘non-white’.

In the TESOL sector, a common implicit bias is represented by the “native speaker = standard English speaker = White” (Kubota & Lin, 2006, p. 481) ‘formula’. This ‘equation’ can lead to the association of ‘non-white’ ESOL teachers’ appearances with non-native English-speaking linguistic identities regardless of their L1 (Kubota, 2019). Kubota (2019) argues that, alongside native-speakerism, implicit bias has resulted in white privilege in the TESOL sector’s hiring process. For example, Ruecker’s and Ives’s (2014) critical discourse analysis of ESOL-teacher-recruitment advertisements across 59 websites found a significant preference for ‘white’ NESTs in language schools in Thailand, Taiwan, Korea, Japan, and China. They concluded that there is a strong connection between native-speakerism and white privilege in the sector.

In addition to studies highlighting white privilege in the TESOL sector (e.g., Flores & Rosa, 2019; Kubota & Fujimoto, 2013; Mahboob, 2009a), in-service ESOL teachers and journalists have shared their observations of and experiences regarding the disparities between ‘white’ and ‘non-white’ ESOL teachers. For example, Jung (2014), a journalist from The Korea Times, contends that in South Korea, ESOL teachers’ skin tone and facial features often hold more importance than their teaching skills. He also asserts that discrimination against ‘non-white’ ESOL teachers is prevalent in the hiring process within South Korea’s private for-profit TESOL sector (Jung, 2014). Jung (2014) further points out that employers can easily exclude ‘non-white’ ESOL teachers early in the hiring process because teachers are required to submit a photo with their résumés. This observation underscores the need to examine how such factors may impact the professional roles of ESOL teachers and the TESOL sector, both internationally and within the specific context of New Zealand.

This section has reviewed the literature on how ESOL teachers' linguistic identities are perceived in the sector. The literature shows an inter-relationship between the NEST/non-NEST dichotomy, native-speakerism, accents, and appearances and how these factors are supposed to relate to the TESOL knowledge and teaching practices of ESOL teachers in some parts of the sector. Native speaker privilege and associated prejudice (i.e., NEST/non-NEST binary, native-speakerism, accent prejudice, and white privilege) have led to some discriminatory hiring practices against ESOL teachers who do not fit the traditional mold of a native English speaker, regardless of their teacher knowledge and linguistic identities. Researchers have criticized and called for an end to such discriminatory practices (e.g., Holliday, 2015, 2017; Ruecker & Ives, 2015). Furthermore, there is a consensus among researchers that all ESOL teachers, regardless of their L1(s), need to possess TESOL knowledge to be effective educators (e.g., Farrell & Bennis, 2013; Moussu, 2010). Of particular interest to this study is the relationship between ESOL teachers' past instructed AL learning, TESOL knowledge, teaching practices, and professional perceptions at both individual and TESOL-sector levels. The subsequent section will review existing research on the impact of ESOL teachers' past instructed AL learning.

## **2.9 ESOL Teachers' Past Instructed AL Learning**

Research on ESOL teachers' instructed AL-learning experiences has highlighted the relationships between these experiences and teachers' teaching practices (e.g., E. Ellis, 2013, 2016b; Moodie, 2016). Additionally, researchers (e.g., Cancino et al., 2020; Phipps & Borg, 2009) have emphasized that teachers' experiences as language learners shape their initial conceptualizations of language teaching while also providing them with firsthand insights into the challenges learners encounter in instructed AL-learning settings.

Various researchers (e.g., E. Ellis, 2004a, 2016b; Forman, 2015) have examined how learning another language contributes to ESOL teachers' understanding of AL-learning processes. For instance, E. Ellis (2004a) conducted a study involving 31 in-service ESOL teachers in Australia, including both NESTs and non-NESTs. Despite all having tertiary qualifications in TESOL, these teachers reported that their past instructed AL learning granted them valuable insights into language-learning processes from various aspects of their experiences, including:

- language awareness;
- effective AL-learning strategies;
- empathy for AL learners;
- challenges faced by AL learners;
- experience of an immersion approach as AL learners; and
- experience of particular AL teaching practices as AL learners (E. Ellis, 2004a).

Findings in E. Ellis's (2004a) suggest that the ESOL teachers viewed their past AL learning, both in and out of the classroom, as a valuable resource in their teaching (E. Ellis, 2004a). They readily drew upon their experiential knowledge in AL learning, which shaped their perspectives on language teaching (E. Ellis, 2004a). E. Ellis (2004a) observed that plurilingual teachers had a broader range of resources to utilize compared to monolingual teachers, highlighting the distinctions between the two groups. An example of utilizing past AL learning as resources, as reported in E. Ellis's (2004a) study, is evident when the participants discussed how their prior experiences as AL learners helped them recognize the importance of slowing down their speech and repeating specific words to allow their ELLs time to process the newly-taught target language items. Despite the value of ESOL teachers' AL-learning experiences, E. Ellis (2016b) concluded, after conducting another study based on three separate studies involving 115 ESOL teachers from eight different countries, that these

experiences are overlooked in the TESOL profession. Her (E. Ellis, 2004a, 2016b) findings emphasize the importance of examining the reported impact of New Zealand-based ESOL teachers' instructed AL-learning experiences on their TESOL knowledge, teaching practices, and professional perceptions at both individual and TESOL-sector levels.

Previous research (e.g., Altan, 2012; Cancino et al., 2020) has shown that ESOL teachers with past instructed AL learning (both experienced and pre-service teachers), identified teaching practices enacted by their AL teachers that either enhanced or hindered their learning. Furthermore, these studies found that some ESOL teachers avoided, adapted, or adopted elements of their former AL teachers' practices (e.g., Cancino et al., 2020; Davin et al., 2018; Moodie, 2016). Given the relevance of ESOL teachers' instructed AL-learning experience to this study, the following examples illustrate the impact of formal AL learning on the teaching practices of experienced and pre-service ESOL teachers.

Experienced ESOL teachers, as seen Moodie's (2016) study of 18 Korean public school ESOL teachers who were former ELLs in South Korea, sometimes avoid replicating the teaching practices of their former AL teachers. Moodie (2016) introduced the concept of the "anti-apprenticeship of observation" (p. 34), which refers to how ESOL teachers draw lessons from their past instructed AL learning on what not to do as teachers (Moodie, 2016). For instance, some participants expressed negative views of their former ESOL teachers' teaching practices, including uninteresting English lessons, grammar-focused pedagogy, and corporal punishment (Moodie, 2016). Consequently, as current ESOL teachers, they consciously avoided adopting aspects of their former AL teachers' practices that they disliked or found ineffective (Moodie, 2016).

Pre-service ESOL teachers' replication of aspects of their former AL teachers' teaching practices is evident in Cancino et al.'s (2020) study. In their study, eight Chilean

pre-service ESOL teachers reported how their experiences as ELLs impacted their teaching practices during their teaching practicum (Cancino et al., 2020). Some participants mentioned incorporating activities like telling jokes and playing educational games, practices they had appreciated and found effective from their former ESOL teachers. Although Cancino et al.'s (2020) study confirmed that these participants replicated some teaching practices from their past experiences as ELLs, the extent of this replication remains unclear.

The existing literature largely concentrates on how ESOL teachers' language-learning experiences impact their teaching practices on corrective feedback (e.g., Rahimi & Zhang, 2015; Wei & Cao, 2020). However, there is a dearth of knowledge concerning the impact of these experiences on other language-teaching practices. This study contributes to filling this gap. Furthermore, within the context of New Zealand-based research on ESOL teachers' teaching practices, there is a void regarding the impact of their former AL teachers' practices on their teaching, a gap that this study seeks to address in the literature.

## **2.10 Conclusion and Research Gap**

This chapter reviewed the literature on how ESOL teachers' instructed AL-learning experiences impact their TESOL knowledge, teaching practices, and professional perceptions at both individual and TESOL-sector levels. The chapter began with an overview of teacher cognition, covering teacher beliefs, attitudes, and knowledge. The focus then narrowed to AL teacher knowledge, including teachers' linguistic repertoires as part of their linguistic identities. It explained how teachers' past instructed AL learning (i.e., part of teachers' linguistic identities) can be a source of their TESOL knowledge (i.e., part of teachers' knowledge) and impact their pedagogical practices. The chapter also contextualized relevant literature in AL education, ESOL education, factors impacting instructed AL-learning processes, AL teaching approaches and practices, benefits of instructed AL learning, AL

teachers' empathy for language learners, the TESOL sector's perception of ESOL teachers' linguistic identities, and existing research on ESOL teachers' experiences with instructed AL learning.

This review has identified research gaps in understanding how New Zealand-based ESOL teachers perceive the impact of instructed AL learning on their TESOL knowledge, teaching practices, and perceptions of the profession at both individual and TESOL-sector levels. By exploring the reported impact of past instructed AL learning within the theoretical framings of 'teacher knowledge' and 'teacher linguistic identity', this research aims to examine how these teachers' experiential and linguistic knowledge developed as former AL learners. A description of the qualitative research design, utilizing interpretative phenomenological analysis (IPA) (see 3.2.2), will provide insights into what this reported impact signifies to these teachers.

This literature review has shown that while some research has identified the benefits of ESOL teachers' past instructed AL learning, there are still gaps in understanding how ESOL teachers perceive the impact of their earlier language-learning experiences on their professional roles, particularly in the New Zealand context. The identified research gaps throughout this chapter include:

- how different teaching practices ESOL teachers experienced as AL learners impact their TESOL knowledge;
- how their past instructed AL learning impacts their teaching practices;
- whether or how ESOL teachers incorporate teaching practices they experienced as AL learners into their teaching;
- whether there are correlations between ESOL teachers' language-learning experiences and their levels of empathy for ELLs; and

- how ESOL teachers' experiences as AL learners impact their professional lived experiences in the TESOL sector.

The study was therefore designed and implemented to provide answers to the overarching research question (ORQ) and the sub-questions (SQs):

ORQ: How do New Zealand-based plurilingual ESOL teachers' instructed additional-language (AL) learning experiences impact their professional roles?

SQ1: How do ESOL teachers perceive the impact of their past instructed AL learning on their TESOL knowledge?

SQ2: In what ways do or don't they integrate their past instructed AL learning into their ESOL teaching practices?

SQ3: How do ESOL teachers perceive the impact of their instructed AL-learning experiences on their individual professional standing and the broader TESOL profession?

The next chapter is the methodology chapter, which presents IPA's three key areas of the philosophy of knowledge and how they align with the theoretical framings underpinning this study, the research design, data analysis procedures, researcher positionality, and trustworthiness.

## **Chapter Three: Methodology**

### **3.1 Introduction**

This qualitative study sought to investigate how New Zealand-based ESOL teachers perceived the intricate relationship between their past instructed AL learning, TESOL knowledge, teaching practices, and professional perceptions at both individual and TESOL-sector levels. This chapter describes the research design of the present study used to answer the overarching research question (ORQ) and its sub-questions (SQ1, SQ2, and SQ3) posed at the end of the literature review chapter. The first main section (3.2) explains the methodological approach, encompassing the research design and its alignment with the underpinning theoretical framings of this study (i.e., teacher knowledge and teacher linguistic identity). Additionally, the section delves into the three key areas of the philosophy of knowledge of interpretative phenomenological analysis (IPA), their applications, and the research process employed in this study. Next, ethical considerations are addressed in 3.3, which are followed by a description of the pilot study (3.4), participant recruitment processes and participant profiles (3.5), the data collection methods (3.6), and the analytical procedures with an example of the presentation of findings (3.7). Then, my positionality as the researcher of this study is explained in 3.8, while 3.9 explores the notion of ‘trustworthiness’ in the context of qualitative research and its practical application in this study. Finally, 3.10 concludes the chapter.

### **3.2 The Methodological Approach**

This section begins by describing why a qualitative approach was adopted in this study and how such an approach aligns with the theoretical framings of ‘teacher knowledge’ and ‘teacher linguistic identity’ underpinning this study. Then, it discusses the three key areas

of the philosophy of knowledge of IPA (i.e., phenomenology, hermeneutics, and idiography), how they align with the theoretical framings, and how they are applied in research. Finally, the section moves on to outline the research process.

### ***3.2.1 Design of the Research***

A research design is a set of methods and procedures designed to collect and analyze data to answer research questions posed for a particular study (Creswell & Creswell, 2018). A qualitative methodological approach with the application of IPA was selected for this study. According to Hesse-Biber and Leavy (2006), researchers employ a qualitative design to investigate, understand, and explain issues of interest through texts and images as opposed to statistical data. The research questions raised in the literature review chapter warrant a qualitative design that facilitates an in-depth exploration of the ‘how’ and ‘why’ aspects of the research. The theoretical framings of ‘teacher knowledge’ and ‘teacher linguistic identity’ underpinning this study are manifested in the way the study is structured and carried out to answer the research questions. These framings inform the selection of research design, data collection methods, and data analytical approach, all of which are purposed to examine the connections between former language instruction and current language teaching practice and professional positioning.

In the investigation of participants’ ‘teacher knowledge’, employing a qualitative design enables a comprehensive exploration of teachers’ tacit and context-specific knowledge (e.g., TESOL knowledge, experiential knowledge gained through learning/training). Unlike quantitative designs, which may fall short of capturing the depth and nuances of teacher knowledge, qualitative designs offer a comprehensive understanding of how such knowledge impacts teachers’ teaching practices. Similarly, when examining participants’ ‘teacher linguistic identity’, a qualitative design facilitates an in-depth exploration of how language

plays a role in shaping participants' sense of self (e.g., plurilingual competence, linguistic repertoire) and teaching practices. Furthermore, when examining teacher knowledge and linguistic identities, it is important to understand that there is no singular objective reality. Instead, there can be various perspectives and interpretations, as individuals' experiences and understandings may differ, leading to multiple ways of perceiving their lived experiences. Therefore, utilizing a qualitative research design is advantageous in examining ESOL teachers with past instructed AL learning.

The theoretical framings of 'teacher knowledge' and 'teacher linguistic identity' also shaped my choice of the data collection methods for this study: focus-group discussions and one-on-one interviews. Both data collection methods elicit rich, in-depth, and first-person recollections of research participants' lived experiences. Focus-group discussions were selected for their potential to foster dynamic interactions among participants, enabling them to share their experiences and perceptions. This process parallels the concept of one participant's recollections stimulating or prompting the recollections and stories of others, collectively contributing to a comprehension of the interplay between past instructed AL learning and their professional roles. One-on-one interviews were chosen to delve deeply into participants' experiences and individual accounts, allowing thorough examination and enriching insights with a diverse range of experiences. This method aligns with the theoretical framings underpinning the present study by facilitating an in-depth exploration of the intricate relationships between the participants' teacher knowledge and linguistic identities at a personal level. Further elaboration on the utilization of focus-group discussions and one-on-one interviews as methods for collecting data are provided in 3.6.

The theoretical framings also guided my selection of the data analytical approach (i.e., IPA) and the data analysis process. IPA is a qualitative approach that aims to analyze individuals' lived experiences and subjective interpretations of these experiences (Smith et al.,

2009). Given that teachers' knowledge and linguistic identities involve personal experiences and perceptions, IPA is an appropriate data analytical approach for this study. Furthermore, IPA allows researchers to delve deeply into the participants' constructed meanings of their lived experiences and the underlying themes that emerge from their accounts (Smith et al., 2009). During the data analysis process, the theoretical framings guided me to identify themes and sub-themes that resonate with the notions of 'teacher knowledge' and 'teacher linguistic identity'. That is, the participants' understanding of how their past instructed AL learning impacted their TESOL knowledge, teaching practices, and professional perceptions at both individual and TESOL-sector levels arose from the data. The following sub-section (3.2.2) presents the three key areas of the philosophy of knowledge of IPA (i.e., phenomenology, hermeneutics, and idiography), while elaboration on the process of data analysis can be found in 3.7.

### ***3.2.2 IPA: Key Areas of the Philosophy of Knowledge and Applications***

Interpretative phenomenological analysis (IPA) is an approach that allows researchers to analyze how their participants perceive particular experiences (J. Smith, 2004; Smith et al., 2009). Although IPA has roots in qualitative psychology, Eatough and Smith (2017) have noted that its application has expanded to encompass various domains, such as organizational studies, education, health, sports science, and the humanities. Examples of IPA applied in the humanities include studies conducted by Oudet et al. (2022) and Nazari et al. (2023). Furthermore, IPA has also been applied in interdisciplinary language-related studies, such as in research addressing the beliefs of ESOL teachers, migrants' perceptions of their linguistic identities, and the work experience of bilingual professionals (e.g., Chung, 2014; Farr et al., 2018; Gulina & Dobrolioubova, 2018). Eatough and Smith (2017) assert that researchers from these different disciplines are drawn to IPA due to its "explicit commitment to

understanding phenomena of interest from a first person perspective and its belief in the value of subjective knowledge for psychological understanding” (p. 1). Therefore, in the realm of AL education, including ESOL education, IPA provides an approach to analysis that can describe nuanced language-related phenomena (e.g., AL learning, ESOL teaching, the formation of linguistic identities) from a firsthand standpoint. That is, IPA fosters a deep understanding while propelling the exploration of dynamics surrounding ‘teacher knowledge’ and ‘teacher linguistic identity’ in varied ESOL educational contexts.

With the primary aim to investigate the reported impact of New Zealand-based ESOL teachers’ past instructed AL learning, I posed research questions that were “exploratory [and] not explanatory” (Smith et al., 2009, p. 47). Exploratory questions aim to examine a topic without bias and preconceptions.

IPA has three key areas of the philosophy of knowledge (Smith et al., 2009): phenomenology (the study of experience) (Husserl, 1931/1960, 1964/1999), hermeneutics (the practice of interpretation) (Heidegger, 1927/1962; Gadamer, 1960/2004), and idiography (the focus on individuals) (Eatough & Smith, 2017). IPA is phenomenological and aligns with the theoretical framings of ‘teacher knowledge’ and ‘teacher linguistic identity’. It accomplishes this alignment by exploring participants’ recollections of their instructed AL-learning experiences and how these encounters shape their professional roles as ESOL teachers. As participants’ perceptions of their experiences involve their interpretations and the analysis of these perceptions necessitates the researcher’s interpretation, IPA is, therefore, hermeneutic. Hermeneutics aligns with the study’s theoretical framings, recognizing individuals as active constructors of knowledge. Furthermore, IPA adopts an idiographic approach, analyzing individual participants’ accounts of their experiences, aiming to uncover unique personal perspectives and meanings attributed to such experiences. In summary, IPA is appropriate in this study as it connects with the theoretical framings of the study, offering a

holistic and in-depth understanding of how the participants' instructed AL-learning experiences impact their language teacher knowledge and linguistic identities. Within these framings, IPA supported the analysis of the data to:

- Gain insights into how New Zealand-based ESOL teachers perceived their formal language-learning experiences through their descriptive accounts of their experiences (i.e., phenomenology);
- Interpret participants' specific uses of language in their recollections of their experiences by considering their historical, cultural, and contextual backgrounds (i.e., hermeneutics);
- Maintain the uniqueness of individual participants' experiences through an idiographic focus on each transcript before finding common themes across participant accounts (i.e., ideography).

In tandem with the theoretical framings of 'teacher knowledge' and 'teacher linguistic identity' that have shaped the selection of the data analytical approach for this study, there are several reasons why IPA was chosen. The reasons can be viewed from four perspectives: my ontological stance, my epistemological stance, the non-linear nature of instructed AL learning, and participants' insider perspectives as ESOL teachers. The reasons are explained in the following.

As mentioned and explained in 1.5, I have taken the ontological stance of relativism and the epistemological stance of interpretivism for this study. IPA strongly aligns with the ontological stance of relativism, as participants' perceptions of their experiences are subjective. From a relativist ontological stance, 'reality' is constructed based on human experiences (Creswell & Creswell, 2018; Denzin & Lincoln, 2018). That is, 'reality' is relative to individual participants as the ways they interpret their experiences are influenced

by various factors, such as their lived experiences, knowledge, and sense of self. As a relativist ontological stance acknowledges the meaning variance of individual participants' perceptions of their experiences, this enables the capture of convergent and divergent perceptions of similar experiences among participants.

IPA also aligns with the epistemology of interpretivism. Interpretivists assume that research knowledge is gained through language and meanings in an understanding that is jointly constructed by participants and the researcher (Myers, 2009). This alignment emphasizes the importance of open-ended dialogues between researchers and their participants when employing IPA as an analytical approach. Such dialogues can lead to unexpected insights and fresh perspectives on the research questions being explored. Researchers employ a double-hermeneutic approach during the data analysis process (Smith & Osborn, 2008). First, research participants convey their perceptions of their lived experiences, which inherently involve their interpretation. Second, researchers interpret their participants' perceptions (including participants' interpretations).

As participants are regarded as experts on their lived experiences in IPA studies, the data-driven nature of IPA allowed me to examine a range of perceptions from individual ESOL teachers regarding the reported impact of their past instructed AL learning. Given the non-linear nature of instructed AL learning, where various external and internal factors impact learners' AL development and shape their perceptions of their learning experiences (also see 2.4), IPA's emphasis on understanding both similarities and differences among the research participants made it an appropriate analytical approach for this study. IPA, as a data-oriented approach that does not seek generalization (Smith et al., 2009), provided the opportunity to examine individual participants' perspectives on their experiences. Furthermore, it allowed me to approach the collected data with an open mind, free from preconceived notions, facilitating deep and sometimes unexpected reported insights into the

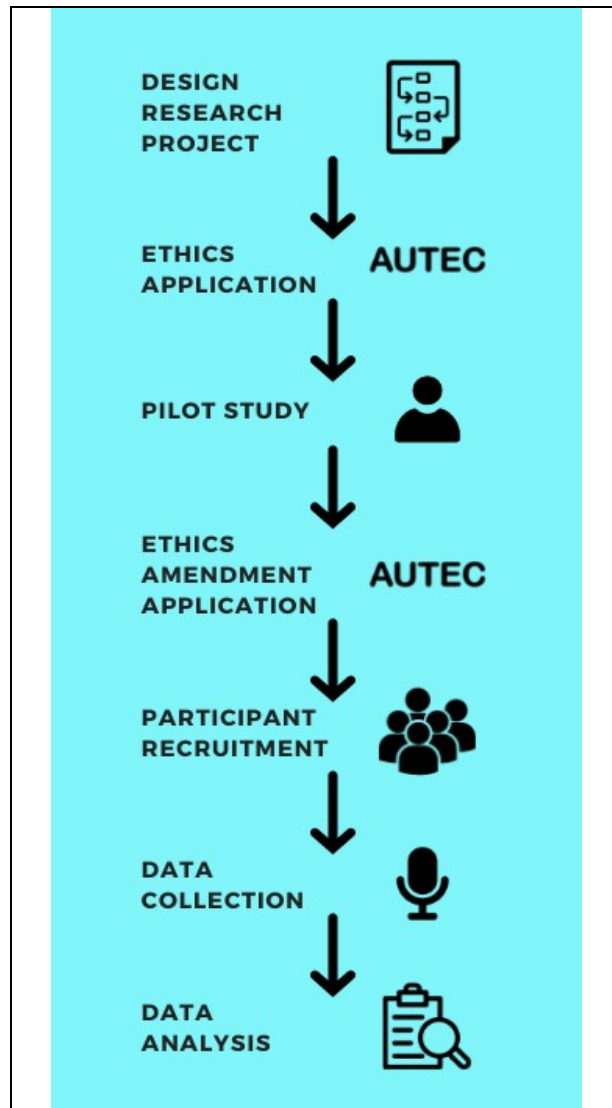
teaching of ESOL in New Zealand with past instructed AL learning. Most importantly, IPA's idiographic focus offered insights into how individual ESOL teachers viewed the relationship between their language-learning experiences, TESOL knowledge, teaching practices, and professional perceptions at both individual and TESOL-sector levels.

### **3.2.3 Research Process**

To approach this research, I followed the process below. The process began with the design of this research (3.2.1). Then, an ethics application was submitted to the Auckland University of Technology Ethics Committee (AUTEK) for approval (3.3). After the application was approved, a pilot study was conducted (3.4). An amendment of the ethics application was submitted after the pilot study. Participants for focus-group discussions and one-on-one interviews were recruited after the amendment of the application was approved by AUTEK (3.5). The participant-recruitment process was followed by data collection (3.6). Finally, the data were analyzed (3.7). Figure 3 illustrates an overview of the research process (see below).

**Figure 3**

*Overview of the Research Process*



### 3.3 Ethical Considerations

This study was conducted under AUTEAC reference number 16/140. The initial approval for the study was obtained in May 2016 (see Appendix A), and a subsequent amendment was granted in March 2017 to include focus-group discussions as a data collection method (see Appendix B).

Once AUTEK approved the amendment application, the participant-recruitment process began (see 3.5 for details of the process). A participation information sheet was provided to ensure that potential participants understood the intended study (see Appendix C and Appendix D). The information sheet disclosed the purpose of the study, data collection methods, how the data would be managed, who would have access to the collected data, and whom to contact when concerns regarding the study arose.

Voluntary written consent was obtained from all participants prior to data collection. A total of 15 participants, including the pilot participant, signed the required AUTEK consent forms. Participants' consent granted me the right to audio record with a digital recorder and take notes during focus-group discussions and the one-on-one interviews (see Appendix H). These consent forms also enabled me to contact the participants if I had follow-up questions. Before signing the consent forms, participants were made aware of their right to withdraw their participation or to request to have their data removed from this study. None of the participants withdrew from the study.

To maintain participants' privacy and confidentiality, their names were replaced by pseudonyms in all sections of this thesis. Any hint of the participants' current and previous workplaces was also removed from the transcripts. To further protect their privacy, I used five-year brackets to refer to their TESOL experience (e.g., 5 to 10 years) instead of giving precise numbers.

### **3.4 Pilot Study**

After obtaining the initial ethics approval from AUTEK in May 2016 (see 3.3), I decided to conduct a pilot study prior to the main study. The rationale for this was:

- To test the interview guide (see Appendix G);

- To refine my interview questions; and
- To fix potential problems or difficulties with the initial design (i.e., one-on-one interview).

I found the pilot-study participant Amanda (pseudonym) through personal contact (see recruitment process in 3.5). Amanda is from Australia, and English is her L1. She is of European descent. Her schooling was completed in English. She learned the German language in school and Mandarin in Taiwan as an adult learner. She has about 15 to 20 years of TESOL experience, and her teaching career began in Australia, where she taught former refugees. At the time of data collection, Amanda was teaching in the tertiary TESOL sector in New Zealand.

Two main discoveries that arose from my pilot study with Amanda were: one, to be more specific when asking follow-up questions (e.g., “Now that you are an ESOL teacher, how do you feel about that particular teaching method that your Mandarin teacher used?”) and; two, to include an additional data collection method. The initial research design was to conduct only semi-structured one-on-one interviews. However, the pilot study showed that the interview did not elicit enough in-depth data as I did not feel that I was successful in activating Amanda’s recall of her experiences as a former AL learner and their impact on her as an ESOL teacher as I often had to share my own experiences as probes. One possible explanation for this, as confirmed by participants in a study conducted by Ellis (2016b), is that teachers are unaccustomed to being asked to reflect on their AL-learning experiences. My recollections of my language-learning and teaching experiences might have prompted and encouraged Amanda to share similar views or issues. However, the sharing of the researcher’s experiences and knowledge is considered poor practice in IPA studies (Smith et al., 2009). Due to this, data collected through the pilot study were not included in the final analysis.

The pilot study showed that an additional data collection method that would encourage dialogue without sharing my experiences was needed to get more in-depth data. Focus-group discussions, therefore, were added to the data collection process. A focus-group discussion generally refers to a method that aims to collect data from a group of purposively selected individuals who were gathered to participate in a singular or a series of discussions on the studied matter (Boddy, 2005; Wilkinson, 2004). Focus-group discussions and interviews are both appropriate for studies using IPA (Smith et al., 2009). Section 3.6 details both data collection methods.

### **3.5 Participant Recruitment and Participant Profiles**

During the participant-recruitment process, I employed purposive sampling, as Smith et al. (2009) suggested. For this study, the following criteria were applied for participant recruitment:

- Experience in learning at least one additional language in instructed settings (in New Zealand and/or in other countries);
- Bilingual/plurilingual competence (self-reported competence);
- TESOL certified (e.g., Cambridge Certificate in Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages (CELTA), certificate/diploma in TESOL); and
- A minimum of three years' ESOL-teaching experience (in New Zealand and/or in other countries).

These criteria were formulated for specific reasons. As this study aimed to investigate ESOL teachers' perceptions of the reported impact of their past instructed AL learning on their TESOL knowledge, teaching practices, and professional perceptions at both individual and TESOL-sector levels, participants would need to have both language-learning and teaching experiences to provide their perceptions. The requirement for three or more years of

TESOL experience was to ensure that participants had a proficient understanding of the profession and the sector. The criterion of bilingual/plurilingual competency, although self-reported, was important as it meant that participants would have the experience of going through different stages of AL development. Requesting participants to self-report their linguistic competencies was appropriate in this study as the study aimed to explore ESOL teachers' subjective perceptions of the reported impact of their instructed AL-learning experiences. Drawing from a research endeavor undertaken by Marian et al. (2007), it was found that self-reported speaking proficiency in an AL serves as a reliable indicator. However, participants' self-reported bilingual/plurilingual competence has some limitations, as such reporting relies on participants' perceptions of their language proficiencies, which may not align with objective measures or descriptors, such as the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR). Finally, the requirement for a qualification in TESOL was to ensure participants' competencies in TESOL and language pedagogical knowledge. Such a requirement was crucial for maintaining a standard of knowledge and skills among the participants.

To recruit participants for this study, I placed a research participant recruitment advertisement on [www.tesolanz.org.nz](http://www.tesolanz.org.nz). However, no potential participants responded to the advertisement over months of it being posted. Therefore, I applied a second participant recruitment method, which was personal references. Personal references involved asking for referrals within personal and professional networks. However, the recruiting of participants remained challenging. Therefore, once I recruited the first few participants, I employed a third participant recruitment method – snowball sampling or snowballing. Snowballing is a method that expands a study sample through referrals made by existing participants (Beauchemin & González-Ferrer, 2011; Merriam & Tisdell, 2016), as they are likely to know other individuals who share similar lived experiences.

In total, 14 participants were recruited for the main study. This number of participants was sufficient for this doctorate study, as studies that use IPA “have been published with samples of one, four, nine, fifteen and more” (Smith & Osborn, 2008, p. 56). Although Smith et al. (2009) suggest between three and six participants for undergraduate and graduate-level studies, they maintain that it is “difficult to give a number for PhD studies which are obviously on a different scale” (p. 51).

As a qualitative study, the decision to include 14 participants rather than a smaller number, such as four or five, was driven by several considerations. The research aimed to explore diverse participant perspectives on the relationship between their past instructed AL learning, TESOL knowledge, teaching practices, and professional perceptions at both individual and TESOL-sector levels. Due to the complexities of language-learning processes, the development of teacher knowledge, and the formation of teacher linguistic identity, a larger participant pool would capture a broader spectrum of insights and nuances, leading to a more comprehensive understanding of the reported impact of their instructed AL-learning experiences. That is, a larger participant cohort could increase the study’s capacity to detect patterns and anomalies that might emerge, thereby enhancing the study’s overall robustness and validity. Another consideration was the representation of demographic characteristics of ESOL teachers, such as L1(s), AL(s), country of origin, ethnicity, and culture(s). A larger participant size would render the study more inclusive.

Table 1 (below) presents the participant ESOL teachers’ profiles followed by brief descriptions of each participant, excluding the pilot participant (see 3.4 for the pilot participant’s description). Due to the idiographic nature of IPA during the analytical process, providing brief descriptions of individual participants helps the reader comprehend the meaning of each participant’s account of particular experiences (Smith et al., 2009). Throughout this study, pseudonyms were used to protect participants’ confidentiality.

**Table 1***Participant Profiles*

	<b>Participant (Pseudonym)</b>	<b>Citizenship</b>	<b>L1(s) (Chronological)</b>	<b>Formally Learned AL(s)</b>
<b>pilot</b>	Amanda	Australian	English	German & Mandarin
<b>1</b>	Bernice	Filipino	Tagalog	English
<b>2</b>	Catherine	Filipino	Hokkien & Tagalog	English & Mandarin
<b>3</b>	Deborah	Dutch/New Zealander	Dutch	English, French, & German
<b>4</b>	Enna	Chinese	Cantonese & Mandarin	English
<b>5</b>	Fang	Chinese	Cantonese & Mandarin	English & Japanese
<b>6</b>	Gregory	American	English	Japanese & Spanish
<b>7</b>	Hunter	New Zealander	English	French & Japanese
<b>8</b>	Isabella	New Zealander	English	French
<b>9</b>	Jasmin	Iranian	Farsi	English
<b>10</b>	Kimiya	Iranian	Farsi	English
<b>11</b>	Lawrence	New Zealander	English	French & Spanish
<b>12</b>	Marie	French	French	English & Spanish
<b>13</b>	Naifa	Indian	Malayalam	English & Hindi
<b>14</b>	Oliver	New Zealander	English	Japanese & Mandarin

**Participant #1 – Bernice.** Bernice is from the Philippines, and Tagalog is her L1. Her schooling was mainly completed in English. She has a Cambridge Certificate in Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages (CELTA) and a certificate in teaching English as a foreign language (TEFL). Bernice has 10 to 15 years of experience teaching ESOL. Her ESOL teaching career began in the Philippines, where she worked for a company that provided English conversation lessons on the phone to adult ELLs in South Korea. At the time of data collection, Bernice was teaching in the private tertiary TESOL sector in New Zealand.

**Participant #2 – Catherine.** Catherine is from the Philippines and of Chinese and Filipino descent. Hokkien (a dialect from Fujian province in China, also spoken in Taiwan and some regions in Southeast Asia) and Tagalog are her L1s. She attended a Mandarin-medium school where she learned the language as an AL. Catherine also learned English as an AL. She has a CELTA and 6 to 10 years of experience teaching ESOL. Catherine started her teaching career as a preschool teacher before teaching ESOL to adult ELLs in the Philippines. She was teaching in the private tertiary TESOL sector in New Zealand during the current study.

**Participant #3 – Deborah.** Deborah is from the Netherlands and moved to New Zealand when she was around five years old. Dutch is her L1, but her schooling was completed entirely in English. In addition to learning English in submersion settings, she learned French and German languages formally. In university, Deborah studied German up to Honor's level. She has a CELTA, a teaching diploma, and 6 to 10 years of experience teaching ESOL. Prior to teaching ESOL, Deborah taught French and German for 40 to 45 years. During the present study, she was teaching ESOL at a New Zealand secondary school.

**Participant #4 – Enna.** Enna is from China, and Cantonese (a dialect from Guangdong province in China, also spoken in Hong Kong, Macau, and some regions in Southeast Asia) and Mandarin are her L1s. Her schooling was completed in Mandarin. She first started formally learning ESOL in secondary school. Enna majored in English language and literature in university. She has a New Zealand graduate diploma in secondary teaching English in schools for speakers of other languages (TESSOL) and 10 to 15 years of experience teaching ESOL. Her ESOL teaching career started in China, where she taught adult ELLs. Enna was teaching ESOL at a New Zealand secondary school during this study.

**Participant #5 – Fang.** Fang is from China, and Cantonese and Mandarin are her L1s. Her schooling was completed in Mandarin. She first started formally learning ESOL in secondary school. While studying for her undergraduate degree in English language and literature, she also learned Japanese. She has a certificate in TEFL and 15 to 20 years of experience teaching ESOL. She began teaching ESOL in China to mostly Chinese adult ELLs. At the time of data collection, Fang was teaching in the private tertiary TESOL sector in New Zealand.

**Participant #6 – Gregory.** Gregory is from the United States, of European descent, and English is his L1. His schooling was completed in English. He formally learned Spanish in high school. When he was in university, he majored in Asian studies and was given the opportunity to move to Japan as an exchange student for two years (US undergraduate degrees typically require four years of study), where he learned Japanese. He has a master's degree in TESOL and 10 to 15 years of experience teaching ESOL. His ESOL teaching career began in Japan, where he taught adult ELLs. He was teaching in the New Zealand private tertiary TESOL sector during data collection.

**Participant #7 – Hunter.** Hunter is a European New Zealander, and English is his L1. His schooling was completed in English. He formally learned French in secondary school and Japanese as an adult. Hunter has a CELTA and a Cambridge Diploma in Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages (DELTA), and 20 to 25 years of experience teaching ESOL. His ESOL teaching career started in New Zealand. He has also taught ESOL in Australia and Japan. When data was collected for the current study, Hunter was teaching in the private tertiary TESOL sector in New Zealand.

**Participant #8 – Isabella.** Isabella is from New Zealand, of European descent, and English is her L1. Her schooling was completed in English. She formally learned French first in secondary school in New Zealand, then intensified her learning of the language in France. Isabella has a certificate in language teaching to adults (CLTA). Her teaching career began when she taught French to New Zealand learners. She has 15 to 20 years of experience teaching ESOL, has taught in the private TESOL sector, at secondary schools, and community colleges. At the time of data collection, she was taking a break from teaching.

**Participant #9 – Jasmin.** Jasmin is from Iran, and Farsi is her L1. Her schooling was completed in Farsi. She started formally learning English when she was in primary school. In university, she majored in English/Farsi translation. Jasmin worked as a translator in Iran for some years. At the same time, she taught translation. She has a CELTA and has 5 to 10 years of experience teaching ESOL. Her ESOL teaching career began in Malaysia, where she taught adult ELLs. Jasmin was teaching in the private tertiary TESOL sector in New Zealand when data was collected for this study.

**Participant #10 – Kimiya.** Kimiya is from Iran, and Farsi is her L1. When she was around 5 years old, her family moved to Australia. She attended school and learned English in submission settings for some years before her family moved back to Iran. Kimiya obtained

an undergraduate degree in English-Farsi translation studies and a master's degree in TEFL. She has 10 to 15 years of experience teaching ESOL. Her TESOL career began in Iran, where she taught adult ELLs. At the time of data collection, she was teaching in public and private tertiary TESOL sectors in New Zealand.

**Participant #11 – Lawrence.** Lawrence is a European New Zealander, and his L1 is English. He started formally learning French in secondary school. He has an undergraduate degree in language studies, with French as his focus. Lawrence also learned Spanish formally as an adult learner. He has a CELTA and has 10 to 15 years of experience teaching ESOL. His ESOL teaching career began in South Korea, where he taught young learners. He also taught ESOL in Colombia and was teaching in the private tertiary TESOL sector in New Zealand during data collection.

**Participant #12 – Marie.** Marie is from France, French is her L1, and her schooling was completed in French. She formally learned English and Spanish languages in secondary school. After university, she moved to the United Kingdom, where she completed her Postgraduate Certificate in Education (PGCE) qualifications and became a certified Spanish and French teacher. She also has a CELTA. Her teaching career began when she started teaching French. She started teaching ESOL in New Zealand and has 5 to 10 years of TESOL experience. During this study, she was teaching in the private tertiary TESOL sector in New Zealand.

**Participant #13 – Naifa.** Naifa is from India, and Malayalam (a Dravidian language spoken in Kerala state in India) is her L1. Her schooling was completed in English and Hindi (one of the two official languages of India). She also speaks Telugu (a Dravidian language spoken in the Indian states of Andhra Pradesh and Telangana), although she never learned the language in a formal classroom setting. Naifa started her teaching career as a secondary

school teacher in India. She has a graduate diploma in language teaching as well as a Trinity Certificate in TESOL. Naifa has 15 to 20 years of experience teaching ESOL and was teaching in the tertiary TESOL sector in New Zealand when data were collected.

**Participant #14 – Oliver.** Oliver is a European New Zealander, and English is his L1. He learned Japanese in secondary school and majored in Chinese language and literature in university, which included learning Mandarin in Taiwan for one year. He has a postgraduate diploma in primary education and a Trinity Diploma in TESOL. Oliver has 15 to 20 years of experience teaching ESOL. He started teaching ESOL to private ELLs in New Zealand before teaching in classrooms and has taught adult ELLs in China. During this study, he was teaching ESOL and managing ESOL teachers in the private tertiary TESOL sector in New Zealand.

### **3.6 Data Collection Methods**

Data were mainly collected using focus-group discussions and one-on-one interviews, between May 2017 and August 2018. With the participants' permission, all face-to-face focus-group discussions and one-on-one interviews were audio-recorded, and I took notes during the discussions and interviews. Ten participants took part in the two five-person focus groups. In addition, I interviewed nine of these ten participants and four others who did not wish to or were unavailable to participate in focus-group discussions. Table 2 (below) shows in which data collection method(s) each participant participated.

**Table 2***Data Collection Method(s) Participants Participated*

	<b>Participant (pseudonym)</b>	<b>Focus-Group Discussion</b>	<b>One-on-One Interview</b>
<b>1</b>	Bernice	✓	✗
<b>2</b>	Catherine	✓	✓
<b>3</b>	Deborah	✓	✓
<b>4</b>	Enna	✓	✓
<b>5</b>	Fang	✓	✓
<b>6</b>	Gregory	✓	✓
<b>7</b>	Hunter	✓	✓
<b>8</b>	Isabella	✓	✓
<b>9</b>	Jasmin	✓	✓
<b>10</b>	Kimiya	✓	✓
<b>11</b>	Lawrence	✗	✓
<b>12</b>	Marie	✗	✓
<b>13</b>	Naifa	✗	✓
<b>14</b>	Oliver	✗	✓

Focus-group discussions were conducted first. The sessions lasted between 70 to 100 minutes. The questions (see Appendix H) asked in the focus groups were broad and merely focused on participants' experiences as ESOL teachers, with follow-up questions arising from the discussions. As mentioned in 3.4, I opted to incorporate focus-group discussions as an additional data collection method following the pilot study. This decision stemmed from the realization that relying solely on one-on-one interviews might not sufficiently elicit the in-depth perspectives I sought to explore among the participants. Although focus groups are uncommon in IPA studies (e.g., Flowers et al., 2001; MacLeod et al., 2002), conducting such discussions first was not just a data collection method but a strategy for me to support the recall of the participants' experiences as ESOL teachers with past instructed AL learning.

That is, focus group discussions would allow participants to feed off each other's experiences. However, focusing on individual experiences within a group setting might lead to a potential drawback. In a group, particular participants could dominate the conversation, inhibiting others from fully expressing their unique experiences. This dynamic could limit the depth and variety of insights gathered from individual teachers' perspectives of the reported impact of their instructed AL-learning experiences. Therefore, as the researcher, I facilitated the focus group discussions to ensure more or less equal participation and create an environment conducive to eliciting a range of teachers' idiographic accounts of their language learning experiences and the implications for their TESOL knowledge and teaching practices.

After the focus-group discussions, I conducted one semi-structured one-on-one interview with each participant who had consented to engage in such interviews. By doing so, I was able to:

- formulate more focused follow-up questions for participants who previously took part in the focus groups; and
- ask specific probing questions on topics that were discussed during focus groups for participants who did not take part in the focus groups (i.e., own teaching practices, TESOL experiences (e.g., years of experience, students' backgrounds, teaching challenges), individual standing in the broader TESOL profession (e.g., plurilingual linguistic identities, prejudice), and the contribution of instructed AL learning (including plurilingual linguistic identities) contribute to their TESOL profession).

As indicated above, the one-on-one interviews were conducted differently based on whether the participants had previously participated in one of the two focus-group discussions. On the one hand, for the nine participants who joined the focus groups, the interview mainly focused

on their experiences as former AL learners (see Appendix H). However, I also asked them follow-up questions related to topics that were previously discussed during focus-group discussions. On the other hand, for the four participants who had not taken part in focus groups, the interview questions I asked related to their AL-learning experiences within instructed settings as well as their ESOL-teaching experiences (Appendix H). These interviews proved to be a substantial and reliable avenue for collecting individual participants' insights into how their instructed AL-learning experiences shaped their TESOL knowledge and teaching practices. Interviews offered several advantages. They provided a means to delve into the realms of affective, cognitive, physiological, and behavioral processes intrinsic to the domains of learning and teaching. Furthermore, interviews could render differentiated assessments of the participants' perceptions of their experiences as ESOL teachers with past instructed AL learning. As such, for their descriptions of emotions, motivation, and metacognition during learning and teaching. In addition, interviews allowed for the exploration of the participants' perspectives, enhancing the credibility and dependability of their idiographic accounts.

Alternative methods for data collection, such as classroom observations, video recordings of teaching sessions, and analysis of lesson plans, were not adopted for this study as they did not align with the study's objectives and the underpinning theoretical framings of 'teacher knowledge' and 'teacher linguistic identity'. The study focused on capturing participants' perceptions and interpretations, which were best attained through focus groups and interviews. These focus groups and interviews, while yielding 'reported' impact of their past instructed AL learning, provided valuable insights into participants' perspectives on their TESOL knowledge, teaching practices, and professional perceptions at both individual and TESOL-sector levels. However, the recollections collected from the participants may raise a critical issue regarding the accuracy of their reflections and interpretations, particularly in

terms of how closely these recollections align with the actual experiences in their past instructed AL learning. As noted by Howe (2011), whether memories are created and recalled during childhood or adulthood, they are essentially reconstructive in nature and hence susceptible to errors. It is, therefore, important to consider that these recollections might be shaped by subsequent experiences, potentially leading to rationalizations of past events. In particular, the intervening experiences can inadvertently alter the ways the participants remember and interpret the reported impact of their instructed AL-learning experiences on their TESOL knowledge and teaching practices. Although there is no guarantee that the participants' memories were accurate or inaccurate, these memories shaped their professional roles in particular ways.

Although all focus-group discussions and one-on-one interviews were recorded with a digital audio recording device, I also took written notes during each session. Notes included keywords of ideas that needed further development, for instance, details of participants' former AL teachers' teaching practices. Other notes included non-verbal aspects during one-on-one interviews, such as body language showing discomfort, which the audio recording device could not document. An example of these types of notes was: "Looks uncomfortable. Perhaps guilty about the hiring practices?" The notes I took were beneficial in two aspects. As taking notes helped me relate to what was being said by the participants, I was able to formulate and ask follow-up questions during the focus-group discussions and the interviews. Another advantage of note-taking was that the notes were helpful in the data analysis process (see 3.7), as they served as data-analysis aids. That is, I referred to these notes when trying to interpret the data. In addition to focus-group discussions, I also asked several follow-up questions to the participants who were willing to provide further questions.

### 3.7 Data Analysis

Although IPA is a flexible analytical approach (J. Smith, 2004) and “not a prescriptive methodology” (Smith & Osborn, 2008, p. 67), Smith et al. (2009) provided a general guideline on analytical steps. I adapted these guidelines to expand and modify some wording to make the steps more meaningful for me as the researcher of this study. The analytical steps I took are illustrated in Table 3 (below). Following Table 3 are explanations and examples of each analytical step. Finally, the end of the section shows an example of how analyzed data are presented as evidence in the findings chapters (four, five, and six).

**Table 3**

*Analytical Steps in IPA* (adapted from Smith et al., 2009)

<b>Step 1:</b>	Transcribing audio files to texts (3.7.1)
<b>Step 2:</b>	Reading and re-reading each transcript and interview notes (3.7.2)
	Analyzing texts through a three-stage process (3.7.3)
	Stage 1: Describing the content of what was being said by the participant
<b>Step 3:</b>	Stage 2: Commenting on participants’ specific use of language
	Stage 3: Connecting and commenting on participants’ overarching understanding of their experiences
<b>Step 4:</b>	Searching for emergent sub-themes within each transcript (3.7.4)
<b>Step 5:</b>	Searching for connections across emergent sub-themes (3.7.5)
<b>Step 6:</b>	Moving to the next transcript and repeating Steps 2 to 5 (3.7.6)
<b>Step 7:</b>	Looking for patterns across all emergent themes (3.7.7)

### ***3.7.1 Step 1: Transcribing Audio Files***

After collecting data through focus-group discussions and one-on-one interviews, I transcribed the audio recordings. To streamline this process, I utilized Nuance Dragon Professional version 15, a customized voice-recognition software that exclusively recognized my voice for transcription. Since the software could not recognize others' voices, I had to verbally repeat participants' statements to convert them into written text. This transcription procedure also involved minor manual tasks, such as adding punctuation and correcting homonyms. As transcription serves as an essential initial step of data analysis, I needed to be attentive, listening to the recordings repeatedly. Repeating participants' statements while transcribing allowed me to immerse myself in the data collection moment and closely examine individual transcripts. It also enabled me to discern nuances in the participants' intonation patterns, such as their emphasis on specific words. This repetition was vital as it fostered my familiarity with individual accounts, further enhancing my analysis in Steps 2 and 3 (see 3.7.2 and 3.7.3).

To ensure thoroughness, researchers using IPA are advised to include all verbal and non-verbal features in their transcripts, such as false starts, laughs, and pauses (Pietkiewicz & Smith, 2012; Smith & Osborn, 2008). That is, I did not 'clean up' the transcripts. This meant that grammatical errors or mistakes made by the participants were preserved in the transcripts. Additionally, non-verbal cues played a pivotal role in the analysis, providing valuable insights into the participants' perspectives regarding the reported impact of their past instructed AL learning. As noted by Pennebaker et al. (2003), non-verbal cues often convey emotions, attitudes, and subtleties that complement verbal communication. During the analytical process, both verbal and non-verbal features were interpreted through the lens of 'teacher knowledge' and 'teacher linguistic identity', facilitating a comprehensive understanding of participants' feelings, reactions, and the context in which they made their

verbal statements. See Table 4 (below) for the transcription key, adapted from the transcript notation used by Smith et al. (2009).

**Table 4**

*Transcription Key* (adapted from Smith et al., 2009)

<b>Code</b>	<b>Meaning</b>
( )	Describes an action
[ ]	Inserted words for clarification
[...]	Irrelevant material omitted
In caps	Word emphasized

Each transcript followed a straightforward two-column layout. The left column contained the transcript, while the right column remained initially empty during the analysis stage. Figure 4 (below) illustrates this layout as an example, which contains a short extract from the one-on-one interview with Catherine (pseudonym) about her Mandarin-learning experience.

**Figure 4***Sample Layout of Transcript*

<b>Researcher: Do you remember some of the methods that your Chinese teachers used?</b>	
<p><b>Catherine:</b> Yes. Umm (pause) it was very (pause) umm (pause) rote. Everything was like memorize, memorize, memorize. And we weren't (pause) umm (pause) now that I'm an ESOL teacher, those methods that we use (pause) like get the students to speak and use the language in a productive way after, let's say having taught (pause) you know, vocabulary or grammar within a context. We didn't (pause) we never had those.</p>	

**3.7.2 Step 2: Reading and Re-reading Each Transcript and Interview Notes**

Steps 2 to 5 were repeated for each transcript before proceeding to the next transcript. In Step 2, I followed the practice outlined by Smith et al. (2009) and Larking and Thompson (2012) by reading the entire transcript and interview notes multiple times. Given the idiographic nature of IPA, I conducted a thorough examination of the transcript, listening to the corresponding audio recording of the focus-group discussions or one-on-one interview while referencing the notes (see 3.6). This approach helped me recreate the discussion or interview atmosphere, as advised by Pietkiewicz and Smith (2012). I aimed to become as familiar as possible with both the transcript and the recording. Repeatedly reviewing the

transcript and listening to the audio file also enabled me to gain some insights I may have previously overlooked.

To answer my research questions within the theoretical framings of ‘teacher knowledge’ and ‘teacher linguistic identity’, I asked each participant about their cultural, educational, and language backgrounds, as well as their experiences with instructed AL-learning experience and ESOL teaching. Consequently, each participant’s background and experience were temporarily categorized into three main themes: *background*; *the learner’s hat*; and *the teachers’ hat*. I color-coded lines in the transcript based on these temporary themes. Once the color-coding was completed, I added labels to the color-coded parts with their corresponding temporary main themes. Figure 5 (below) shows the same extract from Catherine’s interview as shown in Figure 4 (above) but with color coding.

### Figure 5

#### *Sample Transcript: Color-Coded Temporary Themes*

**Researcher:** *Do you remember some of the methods that your Chinese teachers used?*

**Catherine:** Yes. Umm (pause) it was very (pause) umm (pause) rote. Everything was like memorize, memorize, memorize. And we weren’t (pause) umm (pause) now that I’m an ESOL teacher, those methods that we use (pause) like get the students to speak and use the language in a productive way after, let’s say having taught (pause) you know, vocabulary or grammar within a context. We didn’t (pause) we never had those.

The Learner’s Hat:

The Teacher’s Hat:

### 3.7.3 *Step 3: Analyzing Texts through a Three-Stage Process*

After gaining a deeper understanding of the transcript, I initiated the analysis process. This step involved a three-stage analytical process that required me to document my analysis, often referred to as ‘comments’ in IPA literature (e.g., Pietkiewicz & Smith, 2012; Smith et al., 2009), in the right column of the table. The three stages involved me:

Stage 1: describing the content as told by the participants;

Stage 2: commenting on participants’ specific use of language; and

Stage 3: connecting and commenting on participants’ overarching understanding of their experiences (adapted from Smith et al., 2009).

**Stage 1.** In the first stage of text analysis, I focused on describing the data’s content. As outlined by Smith et al. (2009), the purpose of this stage is to identify elements like keywords, explanations, and emotional responses in the transcript. Furthermore, describing the participant’s statements helps in comprehending which aspects of their experiences are significant to them (Smith et al., 2009). Examples of my descriptions in an extract from the interview with Catherine are shown in Figure 6 (below).

**Figure 6***Sample Descriptions of the Content*

<b>Researcher: Do you remember some of the methods that your Chinese teachers used?</b>	
<p><b>Catherine:</b> Yes. Umm (pause) it was very (pause) umm (pause) rote. Everything was like memorize, memorize, memorize.</p> <p>And we weren't (pause) umm (pause) now that I'm an ESOL teacher, those methods that we use (pause) like get the students to speak and use the language in a productive way after, let's say having taught (pause) you know, vocabulary or grammar within a context. We didn't (pause) we never had those.</p>	<p><b>The Learner's Hat:</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Talks about rote learning as her AL teachers' method</li> <li>• Describes what she had to do as an AL learner</li> </ul> <p><b>The Teacher's Hat:</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Talks about her current identity as an ESOL teacher</li> <li>• Gives examples of teaching practices she uses with her ELLs</li> <li>• Says that when she was an AL learner, she didn't experience (her L2 teachers didn't use) the practices that she currently uses with her ELLs</li> </ul>

**Stage 2.** In the second stage of text analysis, I focused on the participant's linguistic choices and how they conveyed content and meaning. As emphasized by Smith et al. (2009), this stage goes beyond just examining word choice; it delves into the meanings and concepts conveyed by language, descriptions, and expressions. This approach provides deeper insights into the research issues within the sociocultural context of the participants. It seeks to understand the underlying meanings, emotions, and perspectives conveyed through the participant's specific linguistic choices, such as verb tenses, sentence structures, metaphors, and expressions (Smith et al., 2009). To interpret how past instructed AL-learning experiences impacted the participant's TESOL knowledge and teaching practices, I drew upon their statements from the focus-group discussion or interview. Smith et al. (2009)

suggest that analyzing the participant's language use bridges the researcher's descriptions (see Stage 1) with their comments on participants' overarching understanding of their experiences (see Stage 3). For example, I was able to establish a connection between a participant's use of the passive voice (i.e., language use) when describing their past instructed AL learning and my descriptive comments on participants' overarching understanding of their experiences, particularly their sense of lacking agency in the learning process. Examples of comments on the participant's specific use of language are illustrated in Figure 7 (below).

**Figure 7**

*Sample Comments on Participants' Specific Language Use*

<b>Researcher: Do you remember some of the methods that your Chinese teachers used?</b>	
<p><b>Catherine:</b> Yes. Umm (pause) it was very (pause) umm (pause) rote. Everything was like memorize, memorize, memorize.</p>	<p><b>The Learner's Hat:</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• <b>umm:</b> hesitation marker or discourse marker, formulating what to say next or how to say it</li> <li>• <b>(pause):</b> pause (perhaps hesitation marker), formulating what to say next or how to say it</li> <li>• <b>it:</b> cataphoric reference, referring to the later reference of one teaching method, rote learning</li> <li>• <b>very:</b> pre-modified adverb for emphasis</li> <li>• <b>everything:</b> collective pronoun</li> <li>• <b>memorize, memorize, memorize:</b> repetition, for emphasis</li> </ul>
<p>And we weren't (pause) umm (pause) now that I'm an ESOL teacher, those methods that we use (pause) like get the students to speak and use the language in a productive way after, let's say having taught (pause) you know, vocabulary or grammar within a</p>	<p><b>The Teacher's Hat:</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• <b>now that:</b> emphasis on current role</li> <li>• <b>we:</b> first-person plural pronoun; sense of commonality, and perhaps connection/rapport with other teachers and the listener (me)</li> </ul>

<p>context. We didn't (pause) we never had those.</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• <b>productive way:</b> in contrast to former teachers' ways</li> <li>• <b>you know:</b> perhaps showing common understanding</li> <li>• <b>never had those:</b> didn't use 'productive' practices</li> </ul>
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The extract in Figure 7 (above) focuses on Catherine's experience with learning Mandarin Chinese. When asked if she could remember her former Mandarin teachers' teaching practices, she responded affirmatively ('Yes.'). Catherine then reflected on she perceived her experience as a former AL learner in relation to her current role as an ESOL teacher. To illustrate this, she offered an example of a teaching practice she enacted as a teacher, which involved applying language learned in context. She also highlighted distinctions between the teaching practices of her former Mandarin teachers and her own as an ESOL teacher. Catherine's discursive choices in the following examples offered valuable insights into her perspectives on her Mandarin-learning experience.

Catherine's use of the filler '*umm*' and pauses during the conversation introduced a sense of delay or hesitation. This delay might have occurred when she could not immediately recall a word, prompting her to use '*umm*' or pauses to recollect it. Alternatively, her hesitation could have arisen from the process of formulating how to express her thoughts and convey her perceptions of her experience.

Catherine's use of the indefinite pronoun '*everything*' suggests that she saw her former Mandarin teachers' teaching practices as a collective entity without clear distinctions. In this context, my interpretation is that Catherine might have recalled these practices negatively. Additionally, her repetitive use of the word '*memorize*' for emphasis indicated her

negative evaluation of her teachers' practices, possibly signifying feelings of boredom or annoyance.

During the interview with Catherine, even though the initial question focused on her experience as a Mandarin learner (see Figure 7), she also discussed her own teaching practices. Her inclusion of the time marker '*now*' emphasized the sharp contrast between her past identity as an AL learner and her current identity as an ESOL teacher. This word choice also underscored the distinctions in teaching practices between Catherine and her former Mandarin teachers.

Catherine's use of the collective pronoun '*we*' conveys inclusivity. In this context, '*we*' might encompass all current ESOL teachers, potentially extending to include me as the interviewer and researcher. When referring to ESOL teachers as a whole, she might have suggested that her teaching practice represented the standard or common practice in the present New Zealand TESOL sector.

**Stage 3.** In the third stage of the text analysis, I focused on commenting on the participant's overarching understanding of their experiences. As Smith et al. (2009) explain, during this stage, the researcher goes beyond the "explicit claims" (p. 88) made by the participant. By considering each transcript as a cohesive entity rather than separate sections, I could understand how the participant perceived the reported impact of their past instructed AL learning on their TESOL knowledge, teaching practices, and professional perceptions at both individual and TESOL-sector levels.

For Catherine's transcript, I conducted a holistic analysis by identifying connections between various parts of the transcript. For example, I examined how her relationship with her former AL teachers impacted her perceptions of her AL-learning experiences, as demonstrated in Figure 7 (above). Catherine mentioned that her former Mandarin teachers

and ESOL teachers enacted similar practices, but she found ESOL learning enjoyable compared to her experience with learning Mandarin. Throughout the transcript, Catherine discussed the significance of personal connections in learning, the lack of rapport with her former Mandarin teachers, and the emotional connection with her former ESOL teachers. By connecting these elements, I concluded that her negative perception of her Mandarin teachers' teaching practices was not solely about the particular practice (i.e., the rote-learning method). Instead, it was closely tied to the relationships she had with her Mandarin teachers. In the example below (Figure 8), I illustrate how I connected different segments of Catherine's transcript and commented on her overarching understanding of her experiences.

### Figure 8

*Sample of Comments on Participants' Overarching Understanding of their Experiences*

<b>Researcher: Do you remember some of the methods that your Chinese teachers used?</b>	
<p><b>Catherine:</b> Yes. Umm (pause) it was very (pause) umm (pause) rote. Everything was like memorize, memorize, memorize.</p>	<p><b>The Learner's Hat:</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• <b>Later talked about:</b> Her Mandarin teachers created strict classroom environments that had the 'fear factor', and she felt that her Mandarin teachers were 'distanced'.</li> <li>• <b>Later talked about:</b> She feels that the 'connection' between people is important for learning</li> <li>• <b>Later talked about:</b> Her ESOL teachers also used rote learning, but she enjoyed their teaching because they were 'nurturing'.</li> </ul> <p><b>Overarching understanding:</b> Her evaluation of her teachers' teaching practices wasn't based solely on the methods/activities teachers used. Rather, it was the connection/rapport she had or didn't have with her teachers</p>

### 3.7.4 Step 4: Searching for Emergent Sub-themes within Each Transcript

After analyzing individual transcripts (as described in 3.7.3), I revisited the beginning of each transcript to identify patterns and connections in my analysis. I noticed recurring topics and ideas, which led to the emergence of preliminary sub-themes. To organize these sub-themes, I entered them into an Excel table and assigned different colors to each. Examples of these preliminary sub-themes, drawn from Catherine's one-on-one interview transcript, are presented in Figure 9 (below).

#### Figure 9

##### *Examples of Emerging Sub-themes*

<b>Sub-themes (preliminary)</b>
General Experiences as a Former AL Learner
Descriptions of Former AL Teachers' Teaching Practices
Teaching Materials Used by AL Teachers
Negative Feelings Toward AL Learning
Negative Feelings Toward AL Caused by Family
Positive Feelings Toward AL Learning
Own ESOL Teaching Practices
Discrimination Faced as a Filipino ESOL Teacher

After identifying the preliminary sub-themes in each transcript, I used color-coding to mark lines in the transcript corresponding to the colors assigned to each temporary sub-theme, as shown in Figure 9 (above). Figure 10 (below) illustrates how participant excerpts and my analysis (i.e., descriptions, comments on the specific use of language, and comments on the

participant's overarching understanding of their experiences) (as detailed in 3.7.4) were color-coded.

### Figure 10

*Example of Color-Coded Preliminary Sub-Theme and Analysis*

<b>Researcher: Do you remember some of the methods that your Chinese teachers used?</b>	
<p><b>Catherine:</b> Yes. Umm (pause) it was very (pause) umm (pause) rote. Everything was like memorize, memorize, memorize.</p>	<p><b>Descriptions of content:</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Talks about rote learning as her AL teachers' method</li> <li>• Describes what she had to do as an AL learner</li> </ul> <p><b>Comments on specific language use:</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• <b>umm:</b> hesitation marker or discourse marker, formulating what to say next or how to say it</li> <li>• <b>(pause):</b> pause (perhaps hesitation marker), formulating what to say next or how to say it</li> <li>• <b>it:</b> cataphoric reference, referring to the later reference of one teaching method, rote learning</li> <li>• <b>very:</b> pre-modified adverb for emphasis</li> <li>• <b>everything:</b> collective pronoun</li> <li>• <b>memorize, memorize, memorize:</b> repetition, for emphasis</li> </ul> <p><b>Overarching understanding:</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Her evaluation of her teachers' teaching practices wasn't based solely on the methods/activities teachers used. Rather, it was the connection/rapport she had or didn't have with her teachers</li> </ul>

### 3.7.5 Step 5: Searching for Connections across Emergent Sub-Themes

After color-coding the preliminary sub-themes in individual transcripts (see 3.7.4), I aimed to identify connections between these preliminary sub-themes. Fade (2004) suggests that one approach is to ask questions about a sub-theme to see whether other sub-themes also address the same questions. If they do, the researcher is advised to merge these sub-themes based on their overarching similarities (Shinebourne, 2011; Pietkiewicz & Smith, 2012). For example, preliminary sub-themes '*negative feelings toward AL learning*' and '*positive feelings toward AL learning*' were merged into *evaluations of former AL teachers' teaching practices*.

While I was able to bundle sub-themes where applicable, I also realized that some preliminary sub-themes had no connections. This is a common occurrence in analytical processes, as noted by Smith et al. (2009). Pietkiewicz and Smith (2012) suggest that preliminary sub-themes should be omitted when they do not align well with the emerging structure or when there is insufficient evidence in the data. For example, while some participants discussed their negative experiences with past instructed AL learning due to their former teachers' teaching practices, Catherine was the sole participant who reported family-related factors contributing to her resentment toward learning Mandarin. The temporary preliminary sub-theme that addressed these family-related issues did not align with the broader emerging main theme and did not address my research questions. Therefore, this sub-theme was removed. However, exploring such social-environmental aspects could be an intriguing topic for future studies.

As I grouped preliminary sub-themes with similar subject matters in clusters, temporary main themes within the transcript began to emerge. I created separate documents for each of these main themes, where I organized participant excerpts and my analytical

comments. These documents followed a two-column format, with participant excerpts on the left and my analytical comments on the right. Figure 11 (from Figure 10) and Figure 12 (below) are examples of an emerging main theme from two different parts of Catherine's one-on-one interview transcript: *past instructed AL-learning*.

### Figure 11

*Example of an Emerging Main Theme: Past Instructed AL-Learning (Part 1)*

Quote	Comments
<p>Catherine: Yes. Umm (pause) it was very (pause) umm (pause) rote. Everything was like memorize, memorize, memorize.</p>	<p><b>Descriptions of content:</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Talks about rote learning as her AL teachers' method</li> <li>• Describes what she had to do as an AL learner</li> </ul> <p><b>Comments on specific language use:</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• <b>umm</b>: hesitation marker or discourse marker, formulating what to say next or how to say it</li> <li>• <b>(pause)</b>: pause (perhaps hesitation marker), formulating what to say next or how to say it</li> <li>• <b>it</b>: cataphoric reference, referring to the later reference of one teaching method, rote learning</li> <li>• <b>very</b>: pre-modified adverb for emphasis</li> <li>• <b>everything</b>: collective pronoun</li> <li>• <b>memorize, memorize, memorize</b>: repetition, for emphasis</li> </ul> <p><b>Overarching understanding:</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Her evaluation of her teachers' teaching practices wasn't based solely on the methods/activities teachers used. Rather, it was the connection/rapport she had or didn't have with her teachers</li> </ul>

**Figure 12**

*Example of an Emerging Main Theme: Past Instructed AL-Learning (Part 2)*

Quote	Comments
<p><i>Um (pause) and then, um (pause) we (pause) we had books.</i></p>	<p><b>Descriptions of content:</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Talks about materials she used as an AL learner</li> </ul> <p><b>Comments on specific language use:</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• <b>umm:</b> discourse marker, formulating what to say next</li> <li>• <b>we:</b> collectivization, collective pronoun that refers to her class</li> </ul> <p><b>Overarching understanding:</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• She didn't think the Mandarin lessons really catered to the needs of learners because her teachers' practices didn't focus on the learners' productive skills. Also, she felt that the content of lessons was often 'random'.</li> </ul>

The process of refining, condensing, color-coding, identifying, and naming main themes and sub-themes can pose challenges (Fade, 2004; Smith & Osborn, 2008). Therefore, IPA researchers are advised to closely engage with the data (Smith et al., 2009). While Pietkiewicz and Smith (2012) suggest that IPA researchers should focus more on the analytical comments they made in Step 3 (i.e., the analyzing of the texts; see 3.7.3) rather than with the transcript, I found that simultaneously analyzing and interpreting the transcript alongside my comments allowed me to discern the relationships between the emerging main themes and sub-themes more clearly. Throughout this process, I maintained a separate Microsoft Excel table containing all themes (main and sub-themes), which I continually updated.

Concerning the appropriate number of main themes, the developer of IPA, Jonathan A. Smith (2018), recommended during an IPA workshop I attended in San Francisco in May 2018 that researchers aim for no more than four or five themes. This preference for a smaller number of main themes is rooted in the belief that it allows IPA researchers to conduct a more in-depth analysis, as noted by J. Smith (2004). Additionally, in J. Smith's (2011) assessments of various published IPA studies, those he considered to be of adequate quality consistently employed fewer themes (e.g., Chapman et al., 2007; Eatough & Smith, 2006; Smith & Osborn, 2007).

### ***3.7.6 Step 6: Moving to the Next Transcript and Repeating Steps 2 to 5.***

During the analytic process, it is important to uphold IPA's idiographic commitment (J. Smith, 2004; Shinebourne, 2011). To maintain the uniqueness of individual participants' accounts, Smith et al. (2009) suggest going through Steps 2 to 5 (see 3.7.2, 3.7.3, 3.7.4, and 3.7.5) with each transcript before moving on to the next. Smith and Osborn (2008) propose two analytic methods when transitioning from one transcript to the next. One approach involves retaining preliminary main themes and sub-themes from the first transcript and then adding new ones from subsequent analysis. The other approach is to set aside the preliminary main themes and sub-themes from the first transcript and begin analyzing subsequent transcripts from scratch. For this study, I found it more practical to align later transcripts with the preliminary main themes and sub-themes from previous transcripts. This approach allowed me to identify new emerging themes while interacting with existing themes at a deeper level.

### 3.7.7 Step 7: Looking for Patterns across ALL Emergent Themes

Before presenting the findings, the final analytical step involves the researcher closely examining and reflecting on the main themes and sub-themes to determine the most suitable representation of data patterns (Larkin & Thompson, 2012). This is essential because an excessive number of main themes and sub-themes is considered inadequate practice in IPA studies (Pietkiewicz & Smith, 2012), indicating a failure to grasp the overarching understanding of the data. As mentioned in Step 5 (see 3.7.6), J. Smith (2018) recommended a smaller number of main themes. For this study, my data analysis yielded three main themes and eight sub-themes following the seven analytical steps mentioned above. However, there was some overlap in some aspects of these themes. The main themes and sub-themes of this study are shown in Table 5 (below).

**Table 5**

#### *Main Themes and Sub-Themes*

Main Themes	Sub-Themes
A) Past instructed AL Learning and its Reported Impact on ESOL Teaching	i) Teaching Practices Experienced as AL Learners
	ii) Language-Pedagogical Knowledge Gained from Past Instructed AL Learning
	iii) Reported Impact of Former AL Teachers' Teaching Practices on Own ESOL Teaching
B) Enhanced Empathy for English Language Learners (ELLs)	i) Reflective Empathy
	ii) Enacted Empathy
C) Teachers' Perspectives of the TESOL Profession	i) Country of origin and L1 Prejudice
	ii) Accent Prejudice
	iii) Appearance Prejudice

### 3.7.8 *Presentation of Data*

Chapters four, five, and six, which are the findings chapters, delve into my analysis and interpretations of how participants perceived the reported impact of their past instructed AL learning on their TESOL knowledge, teaching practices, and professional perceptions at both individual and TESOL-sector levels. These chapters begin with an overview of the main themes and sub-themes. Then, I provide supporting evidence through participants' excerpts, followed by my interpretations of participants' linguistic choices and my overall understanding of the overarching meaning of the data.

Participant excerpts are presented in an indented and italicized format. To provide the context for the critical events under study, I include participants' pseudonyms, first language(s) (L1s), AL(s), and the data collection method (focus group discussion, interview, or email). As an example, Figure 13 (below) showcases a sample excerpt from Catherine's one-on-one interview:

#### **Figure 13**

##### *Sample Excerpt*

*We had books. Yeah, so then, you know, reading and read [Chinese written texts] together (pause) um (pause) and then recitation. (Catherine, L1s Hokkien & Tagalog / ALs English & Mandarin, one-on-one interview)*

### **3.8 Researcher Positionality**

In addition to ensuring that the theoretical framings and analytical approach align with the research aim(s), a qualitative researcher's positionality within the study's social context is also pivotal. According to Coghlan and Brydon-Miller (2014), positionality denotes the researcher's stance in relation to the study's social context. As explained in the following, my

positionality as the researcher of this study has a direct impact on the entire research design, encompassing aspects like data analysis and the findings. Therefore, it is imperative that I thoroughly examine and acknowledge my position within this study.

My positionality in this context emanated from my dual roles as an insider and outsider researcher, characterized as follows:

- As an insider, I brought firsthand experience as a plurilingual ESOL teacher based in New Zealand, with past instructed AL learning.
- Simultaneously, I occupy an outsider position due to my American citizenship, recent entry into the New Zealand TESOL sector, and my role as the researcher rather than a fellow participant in the study.

**My Insider Position.** As previously mentioned, my background as a plurilingual New Zealand-based ESOL teacher with past instructed AL learning positioned me as an insider researcher. Insider researchers are individuals who are considered part of the group they are studying (Given, 2008). However, it is important to note that being an insider researcher does not imply complete alignment in all aspects. For example, an insider researcher may not share the same religious beliefs or gender identities as their participants. Nevertheless, as highlighted by some researchers such as Smyth and Holian (2008) and Wohlfart (2014), adopting an insider-researcher position offers several advantages.

In this study, my insider position proved advantageous in understanding how participants perceived the reported impact of their past AL learning on their TESOL knowledge and teaching practices for several reasons. One reason was that my familiarity with the TESOL profession facilitated the establishment of a collegial rapport with the participants during data collection. This rapport, characterized by the comfort of sharing experiences with a fellow ESOL teacher, encouraged the participants to open up and

willingly provide additional insights when necessary. Consequently, the participants' readiness to share their perceptions of their experiences as ESOL teachers with past instructed AL learning contributed to a heightened level of candor in their recounts, resulting in rich data.

Another reason my insider position proved beneficial was due to my professional and experiential knowledge as an ESOL teacher, which allowed me to gain a deeper understanding of the TESOL sector. For example, I could tap into this knowledge to identify sociocultural factors impacting the TESOL profession, such as hiring practices and workplace treatments. In addition, my experiential knowledge allowed me to focus on particular aspects of the ESOL-teaching profession that warranted further exploration, fostering a more comprehensive grasp of the data.

Finally, my insider-researcher position was proved advantageous due to my direct involvement in TESOL as an ESOL teacher. This background provided me with a richer contextual understanding of the profession, especially as someone who had undergone their own instructed AL-learning journey, setting me apart from outsider researchers. It became particularly beneficial when exploring the intricate dynamics between students and teachers in instructed AL-learning and teaching settings. Furthermore, my contextual understanding enhanced my interpretations of how participants perceived the intricate relationship between their past instructed AL learning, TESOL knowledge, teaching practices, and professional perceptions at both individual and TESOL-sector levels.

However, being an insider researcher also has potential drawbacks. My familiarity with being an ESOL teacher with past instructed AL learning could have led to inaccurate assumptions about participants' lived experiences. Because of my close connection to the profession, my interpretations of the collected data might have resulted in an "illusion of

sameness” (Pitman, 2002, p. 285). This ‘illusion’ could have been problematic, potentially causing me to misinterpret participants’ views on, or issues with, particular events in their experiences. Furthermore, my experiential knowledge in TESOL might have caused me to take particular things for granted, potentially hindering a comprehensive exploration of the experiences of ESOL teachers with past instructed AL learning and leading to overlooked areas, such as routine practices. Finally, my dual roles as an insider and the researcher of this study could have created a balance challenge. Being part of the TESOL community meant a strong emotional attachment to the research context at the personal level. For example, I had encountered prejudice as a person of color (i.e., non-white) in the hiring process. This experience might have constrained my reflexivity as a researcher. In brief, my insider position had its advantages but also presented potential pitfalls in terms of bias and limitations in my research.

**My Outsider Position.** My status as an American researcher with mixed heritage who was relatively new to the New Zealand TESOL context positioned me as an outsider researcher. Outsider researchers are those who are considered external to the group they are studying (Smyth & Holian, 2008). The use of outsider researchers has been a topic of debate among researchers, with both proponents and critics (e.g., Irvine et al., 2008; McNess et al., 2013). However, it is important to acknowledge that when researching how participants interpret their lived experiences, the concept of being a complete outsider becomes complex. This is because individuals’ perceptions of their experiences encompass various aspects of life, and there can be overlaps between the researcher and participants. For example, the researcher may share similarities in gender identity, qualifications, or elements of a cultural background with some of the participants. Therefore, the notion of complete outsider status may not hold true in such research.

In this study, my outsider-researcher position was advantageous for several reasons. One key advantage stemmed from my recent arrival in New Zealand, which resulted in limited interactions with local ESOL teachers. As a newcomer in the country, I occupied an outsider's perspective when it came to the local TESOL sector. This outsider vantage point proved beneficial because it meant I approached the study with few preconceived notions about the New Zealand TESOL sector. This, in turn, contributed to my ability to maintain objectivity throughout the research process.

Another beneficial aspect of my outsider position was my 'foreignness' in New Zealand, which motivated me to delve into various facets of local ESOL education. Because I was not acquainted with the local TESOL sector and customs, I felt more inclined to ask questions that insiders might not have considered. For instance, I inquired about the language and cultural backgrounds of ELLs in the New Zealand public TESOL sector as an example of these probing questions.

On the other hand, my outsider-researcher position may have had its drawbacks. As a recent American immigrant with mixed heritage, although I was plurilingual and pluricultural, my knowledge of New Zealand cultures was limited. This could have posed challenges, as my worldview might have led to unintended insensitivity to particular aspects of the New Zealand TESOL context.

As discussed above, my roles as both an insider and outsider researcher came with their own sets of advantages and disadvantages. Given my commitment to representing the participants in a meaningful and respectful manner, it was vital for me to remain vigilant and conscious of the potential issues associated with both positions throughout the research process.

To minimize the potential pitfalls of my insider-outsider researcher position, I implemented a distancing method I refer to as ‘bias suspension’. This approach entailed deliberately setting aside my preconceived notions, emotions, and opinions concerning how participants recounted and perceived their experiences. By doing so, I aimed to maintain the highest possible level of objectivity throughout the study. I applied this process before and during the data collection (see 3.6) and consistently throughout the analytical phase (see 3.7).

To achieve bias suspension in this study, I undertook the following actions:

- To address biases stemming from my experiences as an ESOL teacher with prior instructed AL learning, I set them aside by maintaining awareness and continually asking myself reflective questions both before and during the data collection and analysis stages. These biases encompassed various aspects, including my positive and negative experiences with instructed AL learning, my positive and negative experiences in the TESOL sector, and my preferred teaching practices as a former AL learner and current ESOL teacher. The awareness of such biases was important in my role as the researcher of this study, constituting an ongoing internal-reflective process. Throughout the process, I asked myself questions such as “Am I presenting the participant’s perception of their experience impartially? How do I know?” “Has my emotional reaction to the participant’s perception affected my understanding?”
- I refrained from expressing my perspective on the subject matter. Specifically, I took care not to align myself with or oppose participants’ perceptions of their experiences in any manner. As the researcher of this study, I served as a facilitator, primarily responsible for ensuring that the participants’ voices were appropriately represented in the study through their recollections of their lived experiences, supported by data excerpts.

- During the focus groups and one-on-one interviews, I posed initial and follow-up questions while refraining from expressing my own views on the discussed topics.
- I transcribed participants' recollections of their experiences without making any alterations to ensure data integrity.

### **3.9 Trustworthiness**

Extensive deliberation has reevaluated traditional positivist terms like 'reliability' and 'validity' for evaluating qualitative research, with a consensus favoring 'trustworthiness' for better alignment with the inherent subjectivity, contextuality, and interpretive nature of qualitative research (e.g., Lincoln & Guba, 1985; Mason, 2012). In light of this, Lincoln and Guba (1985) proposed the criteria of trustworthiness for conducting high-quality qualitative research, including credibility, transferability, dependability, and confirmability. Furthermore, Creswell and Poth (2018) have recommended using at least two of the validation strategies that Creswell and Miller (2000) suggested to ensure a qualitative study's trustworthiness. Creswell's and Miller's (2000) strategies utilized in this study were triangulation, providing a thick and rich description, establishing an audit trail, and practicing reflexivity, as explained below.

Regarding the 'credibility', ensuring the authenticity and relevance of the data (Lincoln & Guba, 1985), I employed 'triangulation' to validate the findings. Triangulation refers to the utilization of various methods or data sources to gain a comprehensive comprehension of the issue(s) of interest (Patton, 2015). I validated the findings through 'data source triangulation' and 'theory triangulation'. Utilizing data source triangulation, I collected data from diverse participants from various linguistic and cultural backgrounds to gain multiple perspectives of their experiences, aligning with the principles outlined by

Richardson and St Pierre (2005). Employing theory triangulation, I leveraged two theoretical framings (i.e., teacher knowledge and teacher linguistic identity) to analyze and interpret data, aiming to substantiate or challenge the findings, as delineated by Denzin (1970).

Concerning the ‘transferability’, to ensure applicability in analogous scenarios (Lincoln & Guba, 1985), I exclusively recruited participants in New Zealand, a microcosm of past English-colonized nations. Thick and rich descriptions of the context, research setting, and participants, guided by Creswell and Miller (2000), enabled the exploration of variations and commonalities among participants’ perspectives and the applicability of findings (Dörnyei, 2007). In addition to descriptions, I incorporated multiple excerpts from participants’ recorded focus-group discussions and one-on-one interviews to validate or challenge any conclusions drawn, as outlined by Riazi (2016). Detailed contextual descriptions and participant quotes would allow readers to evaluate the extent to which the findings might be applicable in their own settings.

To ensure the ‘dependability’, focused on the consistency of research findings across time and settings (Lincoln & Guba, 1985), I established an audit trail by documenting the research design (Creswell & Miller, 2000). This includes detailing the procedures for data collection, participant recruitment, and data analysis. By providing a comprehensive account of these steps, other researchers can understand and potentially replicate the study, thereby contributing to the dependability of the findings.

Concerning the ‘confirmability’, which pertains to the neutrality of the research findings (Lincoln & Guba, 1985), I have been cautious about the potential impact of my personal values and biases on the conduct and findings of the study. Therefore, as explained in 3.8, I employed a distancing process that I call ‘bias suspension’ through the research process. I have engaged in reflexivity by explicitly acknowledging my participants’

perceptions of their experiences and my interpretations of these experiences, which will be presented in the ensuing four chapters (i.e., chapter four to chapter seven).

### **3.10 Conclusion**

This chapter has described and justified the alignment between a sociocultural framework and the methodological approach, the research design, and IPA's three key areas of the philosophy of knowledge. The research process, ethical considerations, the pilot study, participant-recruitment processes and participant profiles, data collection methods, data analysis, and my positionality as the researcher were also presented.

Although the relationship between language teachers' AL-learning experiences, teacher knowledge, linguistic identities, and teaching practices have been examined by researchers such as E. Ellis (2016b) and Forman (2015), there remains a paucity of this research in the literature, and there is a need for more updated research in new contexts. As both learning and teaching are complex processes within the theoretical framings of 'teacher knowledge' and 'teacher linguistic identity', the utilization of IPA proved useful for this study. IPA's emphasis on understanding participants' lived experiences and individual perspectives facilitated the exploration of divergence and convergence among the participants' perceptions.

As presented in 2.10, one overarching research question (ORQ) and three sub-questions (SQs) guided this study. The overarching question denotes exploring New Zealand-based ESOL teachers' recounted experiences, namely teaching ESOL with past instructed AL learning. The sub-questions aimed to probe specific aspects of participants' experiences, which were the reported impact of their language-learning experiences on their TESOL knowledge, teaching practices, and professional perceptions at both individual and TESOL-sector levels. To answer my research questions, participants were purposively selected as

they could offer their insider perspectives. Fourteen New Zealand-based ESOL teachers who were self-proclaimed bilingual/plurilingual individuals with TESOL qualifications, past instructed AL-learning, and at least three years of ESOL teaching experience participated in the main study.

With AUT ethics approval and participant consent, this study adopted two main data collection methods, focus-group discussions and one-on-one interviews, as well as follow-up emails. Among the 14 participants, one took part in one of the two focus-group discussions, nine participated in a focus-group discussion and interview, and four took part only in an interview. Several participants offered to answer follow-up questions via email as requested.

Data analysis was broken down into seven steps, following Smith et al.'s (2009) suggestions. These steps involved transcription of audio files with the help of voice-recognition software, reading and re-reading of individual transcripts, three-stage text analysis, the search for emergent themes within individual transcripts, the search for connections across emergent themes within individual transcripts, analysis of sequential transcripts, and cross-analysis of participant accounts. These steps resulted in the emergence of three main themes and eight sub-themes to answer my research questions. An example of evidence for my analysis through verbatim extracts was also illustrated.

The following three chapters are findings chapters. Each chapter presents one of the three main themes that emerged during data analysis.

## Chapter Four: Past Instructed AL Learning and its Reported Impact on ESOL Teaching

### 4.1 Introduction

As the literature reviewed in chapter two indicates (2.4), various factors may impact the ways individuals experience learning an additional language (AL) and how they perceive these experiences. These factors encompass, but are not limited to, the age of AL learning, learning styles, motivations, challenges faced during instructed AL learning, and AL teachers' teaching practices. This qualitative study, underpinned by the theoretical framings of 'teacher knowledge' and 'teacher linguistic identity' (see 2.2), aimed to examine how New Zealand-based ESOL teachers understand the relationship between their past instructed AL learning, TESOL knowledge, teaching practices, and perceptions of the TESOL profession. This chapter, therefore, examines how the participants view their former AL teachers' teaching practices and how these practices reportedly impacted their own ESOL-teaching practices.

The main theme analyzed in the data has been named *past instructed AL learning and its reported impact on ESOL teaching*. This theme answers the overarching research question (ORQ): How do New Zealand-based plurilingual ESOL teachers' instructed additional-language (AL) learning experiences impact their professional roles? The theme also addresses the first two of the three sub-questions (SQ1 and SQ2):

SQ1: How do ESOL teachers perceive the impact of their past instructed AL learning on their TESOL knowledge?

SQ2: In what ways do or don't they integrate their past instructed AL learning into their ESOL teaching practices?

Following this introduction, the subsequent sections of the chapter examine how participants' former AL teachers' teaching practices reportedly impacted their roles as ESOL teachers. These findings are presented through the three sub-themes that emerged from data analysis following the seven analytical steps within interpretative phenomenological analysis (IPA) (Smith et al., 2009) as described and illustrated in 3.7:

- i. teaching practices experienced as AL learners (4.2);
- ii. language-pedagogical knowledge gained from past instructed AL learning (4.3); and
- iii. reported impact of former AL teachers' teaching practices on own ESOL teaching (4.4).

Due to the interwoven relationships between the participants' TESOL knowledge and their reported teaching practices, some aspects of the three sub-themes overlap. The chapter culminates by providing a conclusion of the analysis and findings (4.5).

## **4.2 Teaching Practices Experienced as AL Learners**

The first sub-theme, *teaching practices experienced as AL learners*, captures participants' recollections of the underpinning approaches and teaching practices (i.e., methods and activities) their former AL teachers employed. When asked about their past instructed AL learning, participants shared examples of some approaches, methods, and activities they experienced. These encounters have contributed to shaping their teacher knowledge. While these teaching approaches and practices in this section may seem to align neatly with the traditional categories outlined in 2.5, I was mindful of the post-methods approach in AL teaching, which emphasizes contextualization and the diverse needs of language learners. Although examining the reported approaches and practices enacted by participants' former teachers from a post-methods perspective could provide insight into how

the teachers tailored their approaches and practices to suit students' learning needs, this study focuses on how participants perceive the reported impact of their instructed AL-learning experiences. Additionally, the use of IPA (Smith et al., 2009), ensures that the analysis was conducted without preconceived notions, allowing themes in the participants' accounts to emerge inductively.

Participants' descriptions and evaluations of their former AL teachers' approaches and practices showed both convergences and divergences due to commonalities and variations in factors such as their age when learning their AL(s) (young learner or adult learner); linguistic identities (English as their first language (L1) or AL); location(s) of instructed AL learning (that is, in Australia, China, Colombia, France, India, Iran, Japan, New Zealand, the Philippines, Taiwan, and the United States); stage(s) of instructed AL learning; and goals for instructed AL learning (e.g., passing exams, communication). These evaluations depended on personal preferences, the (in)effectiveness of particular teaching approaches and practices, learning styles, prior learning experiences, AL-learning outcomes, and their former AL teachers' attitudes toward learners. The teaching approaches and practices discussed in this chapter were either explicitly mentioned by participants or identified in the data. The following sub-sections present the analyzed sub-themes for this main theme.

#### ***4.2.1 Approaches Employed by Participants' Former AL Teachers***

Participants shared their experiences as former AL learners and evaluated the approaches they encountered. As explained in 2.5.1, AL teachers may integrate various approaches in their teaching, impacted by factors like learner levels and the stages of a lesson. Despite the complexity of language teaching components, it was possible to categorize and analyze the approaches based on how the participants described their AL learning:

- Bilingual-instructional approach
- Immersion approach
- Teacher-centered approach
- Communicative approach
- Learner autonomy approach

**Bilingual-Instructional Approach.** The bilingual-instructional approach was the most mentioned teaching approach in the data. Participants described this approach as involving their teachers utilizing both the participants' L1s and ALs. The following extracts exhibit ways participants' former AL teachers applied the bilingual-instructional approach:

*[The ESOL teacher] used [Mandarin] Chinese to give instructions most of the time. (Enna, L1s Cantonese & Mandarin / AL English, one-on-one interview)*

*[The Spanish-language teacher] explained a lot of technical stuff in English but also used Spanish. (Gregory, L1 English / ALs Japanese & Spanish, one-on-one interview)*

*When I was in primary school, I remember that somehow the [Mandarin Chinese language-] teachers (pause) um (pause) sort of went back and forth [between] Mandarin and Hokkien, so I could understand a little bit. (Catherine, L1s Hokkien & Tagalog / ALs English & Mandarin, one-on-one interview)*

The descriptions above indicate that Enna's, Gregory's, and Catherine's former AL teachers enacted the bilingual-instructional approach primarily with learners who shared the same L1 and had low proficiency levels in the language being taught. Additionally, these excerpts suggest that the bilingual-instructional approach served three main functions in instructed AL-learning settings: delivering classroom directions (Enna), providing explanations (Gregory), and supporting learners with low AL proficiency (Catherine). Enna's account highlights how her ESOL teacher in China used Mandarin (her L1) to instruct learners in various tasks. Gregory's description emphasized how his high-school Spanish teacher utilized both English (his L1) and Spanish (his AL) to clarify specific components of the Spanish language, likely referring to grammatical structures (sequence of linguistic units)

and functions (purpose of units of language). Catherine explained that her Mandarin teachers' use of Mandarin and Hokkien (one of her L1s) helped her comprehend the lesson content to some extent, indicating her positive evaluation of this approach.

Other participants also positively evaluated their former AL teachers' use of the bilingual-instructional approach.

*At an intellectual level, I think it [i.e., the use of both English and Spanish] can help you analyze in your native language first while you're building the skills to do it in another language. And I have found it helpful, depending on the word, to just be able to get a quick definition rather [than] having to explain it around and around in a foreign language [i.e., Spanish]. (Gregory, L1 English / ALs Japanese & Spanish, one-on-one interview)*

*There was quite a range [of student levels] within one class, which (pause) um (pause) made it a little bit difficult for the [Japanese-language] teacher, I think. So, she used English a bit as scaffolding to help the beginner students to an extent. (Hunter, L1 English / ALs French & Japanese, one-on-one interview).*

Gregory and Hunter (above) both noted advantages of their former AL teachers' use of the bilingual-instructional approach, but they each highlighted different benefits. Gregory emphasized that this approach was time efficient, aiding his understanding of newly-taught Spanish vocabulary. He pointed out that relying solely on Spanish, his AL, would not have been as effective. Hunter also positively evaluated the bilingual-instructional approach. He explained that, through scaffolding, his former teacher's use of both English (his L1) and Japanese (his AL) helped beginner learners learn and develop new language skills in Japanese. Scaffolding in AL learning involves teachers' support, demonstrations, and guidance that is gradually withdrawn as learners increasingly gain independent use of the language being taught (Kayi-Aydar, 2013). However, Hunter's use of the phrase '*to an extent*' suggests that although his Japanese teachers' translanguaging could assist newcomer learners, it was not a complete solution.

**Immersion Approach.** Participants also shared their experiences with the immersion approach, which entailed their former AL teachers exclusively using the AL as the instructional medium. The comments below are participants' descriptions of their experiences with this immersion approach during their past instructed AL learning.

*The first [high] school, the [Spanish-language] teacher tried to do like an immersion style. She only spoke in Spanish from the very first day. She never spoke in English at all in class unless you had a question outside of class. (Gregory, L1 English / ALs Japanese & Spanish, one-on-one interview)*

*My classmates were (pause) three Koreans, two Japanese (pause) in that particular class. I think (pause) in Taiwan, I only ever had one English-speaking classmate, and her [Mandarin] Chinese was better than mine. We generally spoke just in [Mandarin] Chinese in class. (Oliver, L1 English / ALs Japanese & Mandarin, one-on-one interview)*

The extracts above demonstrate that the immersion approach was used in AL classes catering to both beginners (Gregory) and higher-level learners (Oliver). Additionally, while Gregory's recollections show that his former AL teacher implemented this approach in classes where learners shared the same L1 (i.e., English), Oliver indicated that the immersion approach was employed in classes with learners who came from diverse language backgrounds (i.e., Korean, Japanese, and English). Moreover, Oliver reported that communication in the AL (i.e., Mandarin) was not just between teachers and students but also among learners.

Marie shared her positive evaluation of the immersion approach in the following excerpt.

*Well, it was a long time ago, but I remember that [the ESOL teacher] was using English only. You know, teachers should be doing it in order to engage students. And I remember that many students didn't really enjoy that because they felt lost and confused. But that was the best way for us [i.e., the learners] to learn. (Marie, L1 French / ALs English & Spanish, one-on-one interview)*

In the comment above, Marie discussed her former ESOL teacher's use of the immersion approach at her middle school in France. She shared her perception regarding how her former teacher utilized the approach to interest the learners in ESOL learning and to encourage their involvement. Marie further expressed how she felt the immersion approach was the most effective way for the learners to develop their language skills. Her preference for the approach likely stemmed from her limited exposure to English outside of ESOL-learning settings in France. Despite her positive view of the immersion approach, Marie acknowledged that some of her peers did not share her evaluation. She suggested that her peers disliked the approach because they had difficulty comprehending the lesson content during class time.

**Teacher-Centered Approach.** A teacher-centered approach was another approach that participants described. In this approach, participants noted that their former AL teachers maintained full control over the lesson content, guiding and directing student learning. The following quotes exemplify participants' experiences with a teacher-centered approach in their past instructed AL learning:

*There was a lot of explaining [by the Japanese-language teacher].* (Gregory, L1 English / ALs Japanese & Spanish, one-on-one interview)

*Teacher-centered, definitely, and not many productive tasks [for the learners].* (Catherine, L1s Hokkien & Tagalog / ALs English & Mandarin, one-on-one interview)

Catherine's and Gregory's descriptions of their former AL teachers' use of a teacher-centered approach suggest that these teachers focused on conveying information through extensive talking, with the learners predominantly in a listening role. Additionally, Catherine noted that when this approach was enacted, learners had limited opportunities to practice speaking and writing.

Participants held a negative perception of their former AL teachers' use of a teacher-centered approach. The following excerpts from one-on-one interviews with the participants showcase their disapproval of the approach as former AL learners.

*So, it was just like everything was receptive, and then nothing was coming out of us [i.e., the learners]. The writing, we did have. We called it zok-boon (pause) zuo wen [作文 essay writing] (pause) I don't know, and um (pause) Of course, if nothing much was coming in, it was so hard for me to express in [Chinese] writing. (Catherine, L1s Hokkien & Tagalog / ALs English & Mandarin, one-on-one interview)*

*We would have Japanese characters class, and we would focus on Japanese[-Chinese] characters. I actually found that class to be (pause) at least at the time (pause) to be the most ineffective use of my time because I felt like studying the characters on my own and going to class and having a teacher explain the characters was probably about the same. [...] When I did skip class, that was a class I most often skipped. (Gregory, L1 English / ALs Japanese & Spanish, one-on-one interview)*

*[The Japanese-language teachers] were terrible. (chuckles) Because they (pause) (sighs) to cut a long story short, they couldn't teach. They just fumbled their way through, presenting what's in the textbook. (Oliver, L1 English / ALs Japanese & Mandarin, one-on-one interview)*

Each of the extracts above highlights a different reason for these participants' negative evaluations of their former AL teachers' use of a teacher-centered approach. Catherine criticized her Mandarin teachers for hindering learners' development of productive skills (i.e., speaking and listening), even though she had some practice with Chinese essay writing at their primary school. In Gregory's case, he criticized the approach as futile and time-wasting. He claimed, as a learner at a Japanese university, he achieved similar learning outcomes without the assistance of his former Japanese teacher. Finally, Oliver's comment indicates his dissatisfaction with his former Japanese teachers' competence in teaching. He also noted that these teachers solely relied on coursebooks, implying a lack of supplementary teaching materials tailored to learners' specific needs.

**Communicative Approach.** A communicative approach is another teaching approach participants described in their recollections of their past instructed AL learning. In this

approach, participants noted that their former AL teachers encouraged learners to engage in meaningful interactions and communication with their peers. The quotes below illustrate the application of a communicative approach.

*[The Mandarin teacher] had made his own textbook, often with very open questions. So, you would read a topic but have very open questions that the students themselves could have quite open discussions about. (Oliver, L1 English / ALs Japanese & Mandarin, one-on-one interview)*

*There was this really good Chinese teacher. She taught us general English [i.e., ESOL], but her approach was very interactive, so we got the chance to speak. (Enna, L1s Cantonese & Mandarin / AL English, one-on-one interview)*

Oliver's and Enna's extracts above suggest that their former AL teachers enacted a communicative approach with the specific goal of developing learners' speaking skills in the AL. Oliver's account further indicates that his former Mandarin teacher enacted this approach with a group of highly-proficient learners, enabling them to exchange ideas and opinions. Enna, while discussing her experience as a former ELL at university, emphasized the exceptional teaching skills of one of her former ESOL teachers, implying a positive evaluation of the teacher's use of a communicative approach.

Enna's comment (above) suggests that she valued the interactive aspect of this particular ESOL teacher's communicative approach. However, her use of the conjunction 'but' seems to create a contrast between this ESOL teacher's Chinese background and the use of the communicative approach. This contrast may have derived from how Enna perceived her former ESOL teachers with different linguistic and/or cultural backgrounds. For example, in a previous part of the interview, she mentioned finding her other Chinese ESOL teachers' lessons as uninteresting due to their focus on exams. In contrast, she noted that American ESOL teachers added enjoyable elements to their teaching. Therefore, it is possible that Enna saw the use of a communicative approach by this particular Chinese ESOL teacher as atypical among Chinese ESOL teachers in her learning experiences.

**Autonomous Learning Approach.** The autonomous learning approach is another teaching approach participants mentioned when providing examples from their past instructed AL learning. In this approach, participants noted that their former AL teachers encouraged learners to assume control and responsibility for their own learning. This is exemplified in the following extracts.

*When I went to university, some of the [ESOL] lecturers (pause) yeah, they weren't that helpful. They just gave us the notes and everything, like self-study (pause) just do this, do that. I didn't really enjoy the time I was studying English in university.* (Jasmin, L1 Farsi / AL English, one-on-one interview)

*Like, in university, [ESOL] teachers expect you to be more responsible for your own studies [and] to be autonomous. [...] I felt like when I was in university, I wasn't really supported that much. And, because I was a very shy student, so I also didn't take the initiative to ask teachers for advice, either.* (Fang, L1s Cantonese & Mandarin / ALs English & Japanese, one-on-one interview)

The commonality in Jasmin's and Fang's reports above was that their former ESOL teachers at their universities implemented the autonomous learning approach. For example, Jasmin explained how her former ESOL teachers guided learners and provided them with materials that enabled self-directed learning.

However, both Jasmin and Fang expressed negative evaluations of their former ESOL teachers' implementation of the autonomous learning approach. Neither Jasmin nor Fang held the perception that their former teachers provided sufficient support in their learning, although, based on my understanding of this approach, teacher guidance and assistance are typically accessible. In Fang's case, her innate shyness (i.e., 'very shy') played a role in her reluctance to actively seek assistance from her former ESOL teachers.

#### 4.2.2 *Methods Employed by Participants' Former AL Teachers*

Participants described and evaluated the teaching methods employed by their former AL teachers. These methods were either explicitly mentioned in the participants' recollections of their experiences as former AL learners or discerned from the data:

- the rote-learning method;
- the grammar-translation method;
- the audiolingual method;
- the project-based learning method; and
- the teaching proficiency through reading and storytelling (TPR storytelling or TPRS) method.

Among the described methods, the rote-learning method, the grammar-translation method, and the audiolingual method aligned with a teacher-centered approach (also see 2.5.1). On the other hand, the project-based learning method and the TPRS method are based on a student-centered approach. In the following pages, findings of the teacher-centered teaching methods are presented first before moving on to the student-centered teaching methods.

**Rote-Learning Method.** The rote-learning method was the most frequently described in participants' recollections of their language-learning experiences. According to the participants, when their former AL teachers enacted the rote-learning method, learners were required to repeat newly-taught vocabulary until it was memorized, as exemplified in the extracts below.

*Um (pause) it was very (pause) um (pause) rote. Everything was like memorize, memorize, memorize. [...] If [the Mandarin teachers] were teaching us two words to memorize, and then we'd use them in a sentence, and that's it. That was the end of it.*

*Um (pause) sometimes they were all, you know, unrelated words. (laughs) (Catherine, L1s Hokkien & Tagalog / ALs English & Mandarin, one-on-one interview)*

*Learning irregular [French] verbs by rote and those sort of things to an extent. (Hunter, L1 English / ALs French & Japanese, one-on-one interview)*

*In class, we'd work our way through the [Spanish-language] textbook, [...] repeating, memorizing, [and] being quizzed on vocabulary words. (Gregory, L1 English / ALs Japanese & Spanish, one-on-one interview)*

These quotes suggest that when these participants' teachers used the rote-learning method, learners were not encouraged to apply the memorized language in practical contexts. For example, when Catherine recounted her primary school experience learning Mandarin, she mentioned that after memorizing new vocabulary using the method, she and her peers would construct sentences with these new words. However, the newly-learned words were rarely used beyond sentence construction. Additionally, Catherine's laughter when discussing how her former Mandarin teachers provided disconnected words suggests her disapproval of their utilization of the rote-learning method.

In contrast to Catherine's evaluation above, Enna had a positive evaluation of her former ESOL teachers' use of the rote-learning method, as evident in the following quote.

*Maybe replication is good because when we were memorizing, we had to say the words. So, we did have to speak, and we practiced our pronunciation [of English words]. And we looked at the words and needed to understand the meaning, so that helped us to memorize. (Enna, L1s Cantonese & Mandarin / AL English, one-on-one interview)*

Enna's statement above highlights several potential benefits of the rote-learning method in her past instructed AL learning. She acknowledged that learning through this method required her to say the words aloud. This practice contributed to her speaking skills, in particular, her '*pronunciation*'. Enna also pointed out that as part of the memorization process, learners needed to comprehend the meaning of the words they were learning. This

implies a connection between vocabulary and meaning, which is crucial for effective language use.

**Grammar-Translation Method.** The grammar-translation method is another method mentioned in participants' recollections of their instructed AL-learning experiences. When participants' former AL teachers enacted this method, it involved the learners translating texts from one language to another. The following quotes provide examples of how participants encountered the grammar-translation method in their past instructed AL learning.

*It was pretty much translation. It's a direct translation method. [...] Yeah, nothing out of basic translation, really.* (Isabella, L1 English / AL French, one-on-one interview)

*A certain amount of it was done very traditionally, like grammar-translation.* (Hunter, L1 English / ALs French & Japanese, one-on-one interview)

*At the time, I was like (pause) how many years ago? A long time ago, but the focus was just grammar and vocabulary.* (Jasmin, L1 Farsi / AL English, one-on-one interview)

*And then, another class would be (pause) translate the whole passage, sentence by sentence.* (Enna, L1s Cantonese & Mandarin / AL English, one-on-one interview)

In the extracts above, while Isabella and Hunter discussed their experiences learning French in New Zealand secondary schools, Jasmin and Enna described their ESOL-learning experiences in Iran and China. Jasmin indicated that the grammar translation method primarily involved her and her peers focusing on the vocabulary and grammatical rules of their AL (i.e., English). Furthermore, the use of time-related words/phrases (i.e., 'traditionally' and 'A long time ago') by Hunter and Jasmin in their respective excerpts implies that they considered the grammar-translation method outdated in instructed AL teaching.

Participants had mixed evaluations of their former AL teachers' use of the grammar-translation method, with some aspects of the method viewed positively and others negatively. The following extracts exemplify these contrasting evaluations.

*I was very young. I wanted to just enjoy my summer holidays but I couldn't because I had to go to [ESOL] classes and sometimes I didn't understand why [we're] using this grammar, why [we're] using that tense. Yeah, but when I went to university when I started studying English translation, I felt: Oh! [The grammar I learned before] was really good. It was really helpful. Those years [of learning ESOL through the grammar-translation method] were really helpful, but to me, it was really difficult.* (Jasmin, L1 Farsi / AL English, one-on-one interview)

*We fell asleep, of course. But sometimes there are benefits or good things from [the grammar-translation method]. We did pass all our [ESOL] exams, and that helped.* (Enna, L1s Cantonese & Mandarin / AL English, one-on-one interview)

Jasmin and Enna shared a common view in their evaluations of their former ESOL teachers' use of the grammar-translation method. They found this method to be challenging and uninteresting. However, they acknowledged that it played a role in helping them achieve their academic goals. Jasmin also pointed out that she struggled to comprehend particular grammatical rules when learning ESOL in primary school. Later, as she pursued a major in English/Farsi translation at university, she realized that what she had learned as a young ELL had contributed to her understanding of English grammar.

**Audiolingual Method.** Hunter was the only participant who described the audiolingual method. In his account of learning French as a young learner in New Zealand, his former French teacher presented language items such as words and sentence patterns through recorded spoken form. Hunter's experience with the audiolingual method is described in the following quote.

*So, every booth in the language lab had a reel-to-reel tape recorder, and there was a lot of (pause) um (pause) listening to recordings and repeating, and shadowing and responding to questions in French with the [French-language] teacher able to kind of (pause) listen in to everybody. [...] It was called French Audio-Lingua.* (Hunter, L1 English / ALs French & Japanese, one-on-one interview)

Hunter's description above shows that learners were instructed to listen and then repeat the recorded speech they heard, which involved practices like 'shadowing' where they repeated in real-time and answered questions. Additionally, Hunter's account of his former

French teacher's use of the audiolingual method suggests that the teacher played a monitoring role, listening and observing to ensure learners were following the mentioned tasks effectively.

Hunter reported both positive and negative evaluations of the audiolingual method.

The extract below illustrates his mixed evaluations of this method.

*I think it was good because it allowed us to practice pronunciation without self-consciousness, which teenagers tend to be quite self-conscious about trying to sound French. [...] I didn't enjoy the language lab, to be honest. I can see there was value in it, but I much preferred (pause) still do (pause) (chuckles) talking to a real person rather than a machine, you know. But that's just my own preference. Some people loved it, you know. But I found it hard to (pause) to stay focused and motivated. Um (pause) and I tended to drift off (pause) um (pause) to sitting there talking tape recorder because I felt that the tape recorder didn't care, whereas a human being does. (chuckles)* (Hunter, L1 English / ALs French & Japanese, one-on-one interview)

Hunter held mixed evaluations of the audiolingual method. He saw merits in it, as it prevented learners from receiving undue attention and potentially experiencing embarrassment. He also noted that this method was appropriate for young learners who might be sensitive to how others perceived them. However, Hunter expressed dissatisfaction with the method due to its mismatch with his preferred learning style, which prioritized meaningful interactions with others. Although he did not favor the audiolingual method, he did not explicitly state whether the method effectively contributed to his proficiency in French.

**Task and Project-Based Learning.** Task and project-based learning methods were described in participants' recollections of their language-learning experiences. These descriptions show that when participants' former AL teachers utilized these methods, learners were tasked with extended assignments involving investigation and response to questions or challenges. The following extracts provide examples of participants' experiences with task and project-learning methods in their past instructed AL learning.

*The one thing that [the Japanese-language teacher] did (pause) was have us prepare speeches, which I think was really good. We had a project to prepare, you know, a two-minute speech in Japanese. (Hunter, L1 English / ALs French & Japanese, one-on-one interview)*

*We did have projects, research projects where we did research, and we talked to different Japanese students around the school [i.e., university]. And then, we had to present our findings. (Gregory, L1 English / ALs Japanese & Spanish, one-on-one interview)*

Both Hunter and Gregory (above) mentioned that task and project-based learning methods required learners to prepare oral presentations. Gregory's description further suggests that his former Japanese teacher at a university in Japan integrated real-world sociocultural contexts into classroom projects, creating a meaningful connection between the outside world and the in-class environment. The project-based learning method likely enriched his knowledge in terms of productive language skills and cultural understanding.

Both task and project-based learning methods received positive evaluations from participants. The excerpts below exemplify these favorable evaluations.

*I think she [i.e., the ESOL teacher] made us do a lot of (pause) like task-based learning, projects, and presentations. So, we all really enjoyed that. (Marie, L1 French / ALs English & Spanish, one-on-one interview)*

*[Giving a two-minute speech in Japanese] was a really good thing to work on because you really got to think about your language that was relevant to you and to prepare something that was going to help you. (Hunter, L1 English / ALs French & Japanese, one-on-one interview)*

These extracts above highlight the differing perspectives between Marie and Hunter. Marie found task and project-based learning methods enjoyable, while Hunter expressed that these methods effectively enhanced his oral Japanese skills. Furthermore, Hunter's statement implies that these methods encouraged learners to reflect on and take control of their own learning.

**Teaching Proficiency through Reading and Storytelling (TPR Storytelling or TPRS).** Gregory was the only participant who mentioned one of his former teacher's use of the teaching proficiency through reading and storytelling (TPR storytelling or TPRS) method in his recollection of past instructed AL learning in the United States. His description of TPRS indicates that this method involved elements of reading and oral storytelling as its components.

*After I transferred schools, the [Spanish-language] teacher, before starting on the textbook, was trying a different style of class where she would read a story, and the students would respond to the story and answer questions about it. It kind of reminds me of TPR storytelling. (Gregory, L1 English / ALs Japanese & Spanish, one-on-one interview)*

In Gregory's account above, he described a change in teaching style by a Spanish-language teacher upon changing schools. The method involved the teacher reading a story and learners responding to the story by answering questions. As a current ESOL teacher, Gregory associated this method with TPRS. His description suggests that his teacher's use of this method integrated different aspects of language skills, namely reading, listening, and speaking, but not writing. Additionally, the method likely promoted student engagement and interaction.

Gregory had a neutral evaluation of TPRS, as he neither expressed a preference nor disapproval of the method.

*The storytelling stuff that she did in the beginning was (pause) funny enough that it wasn't particularly memorable. I remember the story of a little monkey, which I guess (pause) if I still remember it now, it was worth something. 'Mono Loco' or the Crazy Monkey or something like that. (Gregory, L1 English / ALs Japanese & Spanish, one-on-one interview)*

Gregory (above) recalled a specific story about 'a little monkey'. Because he still remembered the story, it indicates that it left an impression on him. This suggests that even

though he did not find his former Spanish-language teacher's use of TPRS highly memorable as a whole, there were individual elements that stuck with him.

#### ***4.2.3 Activities Employed by Participants' Former AL Teachers***

Participants provided examples of activities used by their former AL teachers, which were designed to help AL learners achieve their AL-learning goals. The described activities were:

- drills;
- memorization;
- roleplays;
- reading aloud;
- dictation;
- games;
- integrating entertainment and pop culture; and
- delayed feedback.

**Drills.** Drills are a type of activity participants described in their recollections of their past instructed AL learning. During drilling, teachers provided language models, and learners were expected to repeat these models to become familiar with the target language items. The following excerpts from Gregory, Hunter, and Oliver illustrate the use of drills in their instructed AL-learning experiences.

*I remember going around the table [during Japanese-language class], student by student, to practice pronunciation or reading. Just one by one, we would read the sentence, the next sentence, the next sentence, or perhaps the phrase. Now, you pronounce the phrase, you pronounce the phrase, and we would go through the whole class. (Gregory, L1 English / ALs Japanese & Spanish, one-on-one interview)*

*You listen to the dialogue [and] you practice the dialogue [in Japanese]. You use the structures from the dialogue and substitute different nouns and verbs into it to learn them. (Hunter, L1 English / ALs French & Japanese, one-on-one interview)*

*So, [the Japanese-language teacher] got a textbook. He showed us the patterns, got us to read the roleplays, reversed the roleplay, wrote out the roleplays, and so forth. There's a little bit of drilling. (Oliver, L1 English / ALs Japanese & Mandarin, one-on-one interview)*

These participants above suggest that their former AL teachers used drills, which involved learners' repeating oral patterns and structures, including pronunciation (Gregory), sentence structures (Hunter), and roleplays (Oliver). Two major types of drills were identified from the data: repetition drills and substitution drills. Repetition drills are typically employed when AL teachers introduce new language items, requiring learners to repeat these items by saying or writing them multiple times (Saito, 2012), as explained by Gregory and Oliver. On the other hand, when AL teachers employ substitution drills, learners practice target language items by repeating a specific sentence structure and substituting cue words or phrases, such as nouns and adjectives, that their AL teachers provide (Larsen-Freeman, 2012). The activity Hunter described above is an example of substitution drills.

**Memorization.** Memorization is another example of an activity in participants' reports of teaching practices they experienced as former AL learners. It involved participants' former AL teachers expecting them to remember newly-taught and previously-learned language items like vocabulary. The following extracts illustrate participants' descriptions of the utilization of memorization in their past instructed AL learning.

*I do remember one thing with vocabulary was we did a lot of finding ways to remember the words. And particularly because French and English are often quite similar. The teacher would ask us for ways to memorize, to remember them. (Lawrence, L1 English / ALs French & Spanish, one-on-one interview)*

*It's like our classes somewhere we're memorizing vocabulary words [i.e., Japanese-Chinese characters or kanji], but instead of like 10 words a day, we have 30 words a day, plus there's a quiz the next morning. [...] Probably every other day, we had some kind of quiz. (Gregory, L1 English / ALs Japanese & Spanish, one-on-one interview)*

*For example, there was this [ESOL] teacher in university (pause) his whole teaching method was to ask us to memorize very long articles [i.e., passages]. And we would have to get in line. That was the beginning of the class. Get in line, just memorize [recite], and then [the teacher would] tick off your name. If not, go back to practice. So that was the WHOLE class. (Enna, L1s Cantonese & Mandarin / AL English, one-on-one interview)*

In the quotes above, Lawrence, Gregory, and Enna shared their experiences with memorizing vocabulary and language-related content in different contexts. Lawrence recalled a learning experience where vocabulary memorization was emphasized. He mentioned that the focus was on learners coming up with their own strategies to remember words, especially since French and English have similarities. Gregory described a rigorous learning environment where he had to memorize Japanese-Chinese characters. He highlighted the intensity of the memorization process, with a significant number of these characters to learn daily and frequent quizzes. Enna shared her experience in an ESOL class at university, where the lesson seemed to revolve around memorizing lengthy texts. Her former ESOL teacher required learners to line up, recite the text, and have their names checked off.

Participants negatively evaluated their former AL teachers' use of memorization as a teaching practice. The following are extracts that illustrate such evaluation.

*We had to memorize all of the South American countries in Spanish. And everybody who didn't get a perfect score on the quiz had to come in the next morning and do it again, which I probably disliked. (chuckles) (Gregory, L1 English / ALs Japanese & Spanish, one-on-one interview)*

*[The Japanese-language] teachers didn't really understand what they were requiring students to do. For example, They'd be happy to give you (pause) each student (pause) or each class ten new [Japanese-Chinese, kanji] characters a week to learn and memorize, but they never really showed you how to write [the characters]. [...] And there was no sort of systemized way to teach [the learners] how to write. And, [the] dropout rate was huge. (Oliver, L1 English / ALs Japanese & Mandarin, one-on-one interview)*

Gregory and Oliver (above) had negative evaluations of memorization as a teaching activity enacted by their former AL teachers, and two reasons for their negative views

emerged. Gregory disliked the accompanying quizzes, especially when he had to retake them due to incorrect answers. Oliver's dissatisfaction stemmed from his former Japanese teachers not providing guidance on learning the stroke orders of newly-taught Japanese-Chinese (i.e., *kanji* or 漢字) characters. Additionally, Oliver's comment suggests that this lack of guidance may have led to a high number of learners quitting before completing the course.

**Roleplays.** Hunter was the only participant who mentioned having experience with roleplays in his past instructed AL learning. He recalled that his former Japanese-language teacher utilized roleplays, where learners would pretend to be someone else or be in particular situations. Hunter described this activity in the following extract.

*We did things like shopping roleplays [in Japanese] with different people in the class said to be a shopkeeper of a certain type of shop. We had to go and buy things from each other.* (Hunter, L1 English / ALs French & Japanese, one-on-one interview)

Hunter (above) described shopping roleplays involving the learners taking on different roles, with some acting as store employees of different types of stores. His comment indicates that this setup aimed to mimic shopping situations where customers interacted with store employees. Additionally, Hunter's description suggests that his former Japanese teacher used roleplays to improve learners' communicative Japanese proficiency applicable beyond the classroom by simulating real-life settings for practicing target vocabulary for shopping.

**Reading Aloud.** Reading aloud was another activity that participants reported in their recollections of their language-learning experiences. This activity involved learners reading written texts like passages and dialogs out loud, either as a group or individually. The following extracts illustrate how participants' former AL teachers implemented this activity.

*We had books. Yeah, so then, you know, reading and read [Chinese written texts] together (pause) um (pause) and then recitation.* (Catherine, L1s Hokkien & Tagalog / ALs English & Mandarin, one-on-one interview)

*So, [the Japanese-language teacher] got a textbook, he showed us the patterns, got us to read the roleplays, reversed the roleplay, write out the roleplays, and so forth.* (Oliver, L1 English / ALs Japanese & Mandarin, one-on-one interview)

One commonality among these participants's descriptions is the absence of any mention regarding how well learners comprehended the written texts they read aloud. In instructed AL learning, teachers primarily used reading aloud to assist learners in practicing pronunciation.

Naifa was the only participant who shared her evaluations of her former teachers' use of reading aloud, citing her experience as a language learner. She perceived this teaching technique negatively, as shown in the following extract.

*Well, we had to do the most embarrassing things like (pause) so the [Hindi] teachers (laughs) would make us stand up and read a paragraph aloud in class. It was excruciating. So I hated every minute of that.* (Naifa, L1 Malayalam / ALs English & Hindi, one-on-one interview)

Naifa's perception of the reading-aloud activity in her Hindi class is one of strong aversion and discomfort, which may have impacted her overall learning experience and engagement with the language-learning process. She used the word '*embarrassing*' to describe her feelings about the activity, indicating that she felt self-conscious or uncomfortable when asked to stand up and read a text out loud in class. Naifa's use of the word '*excruciating*' further emphasizes the intensity of her discomfort. Naifa's account also suggests her lack of sense of agency (i.e., '*we had to do*' and '*teachers would make us stand up*') as a learner, leading to negative emotional responses (i.e., '*embarrassing*'). Her laugh just before discussing the reading-aloud activity in her Hindi class signals strong disapproval rather than amusement.

**Dictation.** Hunter was the only one among the participants who mentioned dictation as being part of his instructed AL-learning experience. His description of how his former

French teacher utilized dictation involved the teacher reading written texts aloud and learners writing down what they heard. The following extract from the one-on-one interview with Hunter illustrates how dictation was used in his French-language learning experience as a young learner in New Zealand.

*We had our own [French-language] teacher dictating, and we had to write down what he was saying and also write responses to questions.* (Hunter, L1 English / ALs French & Japanese, one-on-one interview)

The extract above suggests that Hunter held the perception that dictation offered him and his peers opportunities to enhance their listening skills and possibly improve their spelling accuracy. Additionally, he explained that learners were expected to transcribe questions their teacher had read aloud and then respond in writing, highlighting the importance of the learners' proficiency in French to comprehend the questions and craft written responses.

Hunter positively evaluated his former French teacher's use of dictation. The quote below shows his perception of the activity.

*[Dictation tests] used your own teacher, which was really good because you (pause) you're used to [the teacher's French] pronunciation.* (Hunter, L1 English / ALs French & Japanese, one-on-one interview)

In the account above, Hunter mentioned how he appreciated that his French-language teacher conducted the tests, particularly due to his familiarity with the teacher's pronunciation. From his perspective, being accustomed to the teacher's way of speaking French likely made it easy for him to understand during the dictation tests.

**Games.** Games were another activity mentioned in participants' recollections of their experiences as AL learners. Participant descriptions suggest that games were used for

educational purposes to enhance learners' learning. The following quotes exemplify how games were enacted by participants' former AL teachers as a teaching activity.

*I remember we'd do these [French] vocabulary games.* (Lawrence, L1 English / ALs French & Spanish, one-on-one interview)

*We did Pelmanism [in Japanese class], you know, sort of games where you can turn over different cards, and you have to match opposites [i.e., words with opposite meanings] and the like.* (Hunter, L1 English / ALs French & Japanese, one-on-one interview)

*Even though [the Japanese teachers] did try to be innovative by doing different methods or having games and things like that.* (Gregory, L1 English / ALs Japanese & Spanish, one-on-one interview)

The statements above indicate that games enhanced these participants' instructed AL-learning experiences by promoting vocabulary learning, interactive learning, and innovation in AL education. Lawrence recalled engaging in French vocabulary games. Hunter mentioned the use of a specific game called Pelmanism in his Japanese class, where learners matched words with their antonyms. His description also implies that such games encouraged learners' active engagement with the language. Gregory stated that his former Japanese teachers tried to innovate by using different activities, including games, in their teaching. This comment suggests that he appreciated his teachers' utilization of games in his learning.

Hunter positively evaluated his experience with games as a teaching activity in his past instructed AL learning, as shown in the following quote.

*[The Japanese teacher] brought some of those games to the adult classroom, which was good.* (Hunter, L1 English / ALs French & Japanese, one-on-one interview)

In the extract above, Hunter did not explicitly state why he found playing games beneficial as an adult AL learner. However, in a later part of the interview, he expressed his understanding of the struggles faced by adult learners, like attending classes after a long workday. From this, it can be inferred that games in the language classroom likely added an

element of enjoyment to the learning process and possibly served as motivation for Hunter and his fellow adult learners.

**Integrating Entertainment and Pop Culture.** Integrating entertainment and pop culture was a teaching activity that participants reported. Participants' descriptions show that their former AL teachers integrated entertainment and pop culture into their teaching in three ways: listening to songs in the AL(s), watching movies in the AL(s), and watching TV series in the AL(s), as illustrated in the following extracts.

*Like, we would watch a TV series in Spanish and things like that. (Gregory, L1 English / ALs Japanese & Spanish, one-on-one interview)*

*The American [ESOL] teachers, they would [...] use movies and [English] songs to help us get engaged. (Enna, L1s Cantonese & Mandarin / AL English, one-on-one interview)*

The extracts above show how Gregory's and Enna's former AL teachers incorporated entertainment and pop culture into their teaching practices to enhance engagement and AL learning. Gregory mentioned watching a Spanish TV series as part of his instructed AL-learning experience. Enna spoke about how her American ESOL teachers used movies and English songs to engage their students, which she favored.

In contrast to Enna (above), Gregory (below) did not positively evaluate his former Spanish teacher's incorporation of entertainment and pop culture as class activities. He expressed his negative evaluation in the following extract.

*The [Spanish-speaking] TV series was old, and the situations were so far removed from anything that I would have to deal with. It wasn't that exciting to watch, nor was it interesting enough to stand on its own legs without being relatable to my life. (Gregory, L1 English / ALs Japanese & Spanish, one-on-one interview)*

Gregory's negative evaluation of his former Spanish teacher's use of a Spanish-speaking TV series derived from his feeling that the scenarios in the series were of a past era (i.e., 'old'), lacked relatability (i.e., 'far removed', 'without being relatable'), and lacked

excitement and interest (i.e., ‘*wasn’t that exciting*’, ‘*nor was it interesting enough*’). The TV series, possibly from a previous era, could have impacted its appeal for Gregory, a high school student then, who might have been accustomed to more contemporary styles of storytelling, production quality, and pacing. Furthermore, the TV series being disconnected from his personal experiences might have been a drawback, as when content does not mirror aspects of Gregory’s reality, it could have been challenging for him to become emotionally invested in the storyline or characters. Similarly, the lack of excitement and interest implies that the series failed to create a sense of captivation that encouraged Gregory to invest his time in watching it and learning more Spanish.

**Delayed Feedback.** Oliver shared an instance of his former Mandarin teacher’s use of delayed feedback. He explained that the teacher employed feedback as a follow-up activity, particularly after communicative activities like group discussions. The following excerpt is from a one-on-one interview with Oliver, in which he recounted his experience as an exchange student learning Mandarin in Taiwan.

*He [i.e., the Mandarin teacher] will be writing down notes, and he would put up either an incorrect sentence and (pause) sometimes he would collect good sentences and get students (pause) after the discussion to focus on the board and to try and find out what was wrong with the [incorrect] sentences. He also, after the second day, the day after any lesson, he would give a list of how to say it a bit better. (Oliver, L1 English / ALs Japanese & Mandarin, one-on-one interview)*

Oliver’s account above described how his former Mandarin teacher utilized delayed feedback involving mistake/error correction, student engagement, and ongoing improvement. The teacher’s practice of noting correct and incorrect sentences during class discussions indicates a focus on ‘delaying’ and not ‘immediate’ feedback. By doing so, the teacher provides learners with feedback after the discussions, allowing learners to recognize and understand their mistakes/errors. Additionally, the teacher’s action of asking learners to find mistakes/errors in incorrect sentences indicates a promotion of active student engagement.

Oliver's former Mandarin teacher provided learners with written and/or oral demonstrations of the correct use of language, which likely encouraged continuous language development.

Oliver positively evaluated his former Mandarin teacher's delayed feedback, as shown in the following.

*He would have all the sentences that we tried to say that were said poorly but in a better way [on the board]. Incorporating those [Mandarin-Chinese] grammar patterns that we didn't think of using or we'd used the wrong vocabulary in its place. So, it was kind of a review for us but also to see a model sentence like: "Yes! That's what I was gonna say!" (Oliver, L1 English / ALs Japanese & Mandarin, one-on-one interview)*

Oliver's extract above suggests that he saw value in his former Mandarin teacher's utilization of delayed feedback as it provided model sentences, mistake/error correction, and grammatical examples. He mentioned how the teacher displayed sentences that were initially poorly constructed on the board and provided improved versions, allowing him to understand and rectify the mistakes/errors. Additionally, Oliver pointed out that his teacher included Mandarin-Chinese grammar patterns that learners had not considered or had used incorrectly, which helped him grasp the correct usage of these patterns. He also described the teacher's use of model sentences on the board as a means of reinforcement and learning. His enthusiastic comment (i.e., 'Yes! That's what I was gonna say!') suggests that the model sentences served as a source of validation and guidance, reinforcing his learning.

In summary, in this sub-theme, *teaching practices experienced as AL learners*, participants reported their experiences as AL learners, detailing various teaching practices they encountered. These practices included different approaches, methods, and activities. Participants' evaluations of these teaching practices varied based on factors like personal preferences and the perceived effectiveness of their former AL teachers' practices. These findings shed light on how participants developed their teacher knowledge and linguistic

identities through their recollections of being AL learners. Therefore, the following sub-theme examines how the participants' instructed AL-learning experiences contributed to the development of their teacher knowledge, particularly their knowledge of language pedagogy.

### **4.3 Language-Pedagogical Knowledge Gained from Past Instructed AL Learning**

The second sub-theme, *language-pedagogical knowledge gained from past instructed AL learning*, is about specialized language-teaching knowledge participants reportedly developed through their firsthand experiences in instructed language learning. This knowledge encompasses AL teachers' understanding of teaching practices, including teaching objectives, theories of teaching, and instructional strategies that guide their decisions and actions in the classroom (Mullock, 2006). In this study, through the lens of the theoretical framings of 'teacher knowledge' and 'teacher linguistic identity', language-pedagogical knowledge is considered a crucial aspect of participants' TESOL knowledge (see 2.2.1). Data analysis shows connections between participants' past instructed AL learning and their roles as ESOL teachers. Participants reported gaining two types of teacher knowledge from their experiences as AL learners: experiential knowledge of instructed AL learning and language awareness. Experiential knowledge refers to the knowledge individuals obtain through their firsthand experiences, such as the knowledge that ESOL teachers gain through their AL-learning experiences (e.g., E. Ellis, 2012; Moodie, 2016). Language awareness involves a deliberate understanding of various language and dialect characteristics, including metalanguage, colloquial language, and culturally appropriate language use (Byram, 2012), all of which contribute to individuals' linguistic identities. The findings and interpretations of the data are presented and discussed in greater detail in the following sub-sections.

### 4.3.1 *Experiential Knowledge of Instructed AL Learning*

Participants discussed how their comprehension of language learning was shaped by their experiences as AL learners rather than solely relying on their TESOL training. This understanding impacted their professional roles as ESOL teachers. They noted that their firsthand experiences in instructed AL learning provided them with valuable insights into the processes and the effectiveness (or lack thereof) of particular teaching practices. The following extracts illustrate participants' perceptions regarding the benefits of their experiential knowledge of instructed AL learning.

*There's a lot of [ESOL] teachers who don't speak any other language at all. And they're still good teachers often but they could be better, you know. Particularly with things like [teaching] pronunciation, I think, and awareness. Awareness! That's the one word. It's something that (pause) the keyword is awareness. If you're aware of what it's like to learn a language and how difficult it is, and how that person's first language is different from your own, that makes a big difference. (Hunter, L1 English / ALs French & Japanese, one-on-one interview)*

*I think it pays for all ESOL teachers to just know what their [i.e., ELLs'] experiences are like. [...] I think it's helpful for ESOL teachers to have gone through a language-learning process themselves. (Deborah, L1 Dutch / ALs English, French, & German, one-on-one interview)*

*We [ESOL teachers with past instructed AL learning] are aware of the order of learning. And also, because we've experienced the [AL] learning process, we know what [teaching practices] would be effective because we've experienced this. (Enna, L1s Cantonese & Mandarin / AL English, one-on-one interview)*

*The experience of learning a language gives insight into failure cases and how to avoid them, whether in terms of pacing, explanation, activity choice, or something else. (Gregory, L1 English / ALs Japanese & Spanish, one-on-one interview)*

These quotes underscore the notion that firsthand AL-learning experiences can enrich the skills and effectiveness of ESOL teachers by fostering sensitivity to learners' needs and challenges, empathy, and a deeper understanding of the AL-learning process. Hunter emphasized the importance of sensitivity among ESOL teachers (i.e., 'awareness'), particularly regarding learners' struggles with pronunciation. He affirmed that teachers who

had experienced AL learning firsthand were more likely to possess this sensitivity, which can benefit their teaching, unlike those without such learning experiences. Deborah stressed the significance of ESOL teachers understanding their students' experiences. She stated that undergoing an AL-learning process would allow teachers to develop greater empathy for their students, leading to more effective teaching. Enna and Gregory both highlighted the benefits of ESOL teachers. They stated that these teachers had a clear understanding of the sequence of AL learning and were capable of discerning effective teaching practices based on their learning experiences. Gregory specifically pointed out that instructed AL-learning experiences could provide ESOL teachers with insights into unsuccessful cases and how to prevent them from occurring. His account suggests that teachers who had faced difficulties in their own AL learning were better equipped to help their students navigate similar challenges.

Kimiya also shared her perception regarding how beneficial ESOL teachers' experiential knowledge of instructed AL learning was. The following excerpt exemplifies her perception of the significance of language-learning experiences for developing ESOL teachers' teacher knowledge.

*It [i.e., instructed AL learning] gives you [i.e., ESOL teachers] a new perspective.*  
(Kimiya, L1 Farsi / AL English, one-on-one interview)

Kimiya's perspective (above) suggests that instructed AL learning provided ESOL teachers with a fresh and valuable viewpoint. This '*new perspective*' likely refers to the insights teachers gained from experiencing the AL-learning process. By going through the challenges and successes of such learning, ESOL teachers could better relate to their students.

Furthermore, participants concluded that while having language-learning experiences was advantageous, not having such experiences was not. The quotes below show these perspectives.

*I can't see what harm [learning an AL] would do [to ESOL teachers], you know. I can't see it doing anything but good, you know. (Hunter, L1 English / ALs French & Japanese, one-on-one interview)*

*I can't think of any advantages of not having learned a foreign language [for ESOL teachers]. What could be an advantage of not knowing other languages? I can't. Nothing comes to mind. (Gregory, L1 English / ALs Japanese & Spanish, one-on-one interview)*

*I can say a major disadvantage [of not having the experience of formally learning an AL] (pause) because you haven't been there [i.e., AL-learning processes], so you don't know what are the challenges for the students. (Jasmin, L1 Farsi / AL English, one-on-one interview)*

The extracts above show the alignment between these participants' (Hunter, Gregory, Jasmin) perspectives regarding the importance of ESOL teachers' experiential knowledge of instructed AL learning. Hunter's statement underscores the idea that learning an AL could bring about positive outcomes for ESOL teachers without any apparent downsides. He implied that the benefits of learning an AL were likely to outweigh any potential negative aspects, emphasizing a perspective of overall enrichment through language learning. Gregory's viewpoint aligns with this sentiment, as he struggled to identify any advantages of not having learned an AL as an ESOL teacher. His assertion resonates with the concept that language learning could expand one's understanding of linguistic diversity, an essential aspect of teaching ELLs effectively. Jasmin introduced the idea of a drawback (i.e., '*major disadvantage*') stemming from the absence of AL learning experiences. She linked this drawback to the inability to comprehend the challenges learners face in their language-learning journeys. This perspective highlights the empathetic aspect of teaching, understanding student struggles through personal experience, which could be a significant pedagogical asset for ESOL teachers. Chapter Five presents the reported impact of participants' instructed AL-learning experiences on their levels of empathy for ELLs.

Lawrence also shared his perception regarding the value of language-learning experiences for ESOL teachers, as shown in the following excerpt.

*I've always thought that quite often (pause) like, a non-native [English] language teacher is (pause) can be better than a native [English-speaking teacher] because they've gone through the [learning] process themselves but I sort of (pause) I guess I did a similar thing with Spanish (pause) but actually going through the process of learning English. (Lawrence, L1 English / ALs French & Spanish, one-on-one interview)*

In the quote above, Lawrence explicitly stated that he thought non-native English-speaking teachers (non-NESTs) could be more effective than native English-speaking teachers (NEST) because of their experiences as former ELLs. He also mentioned that his own experience learning Spanish allowed him to develop experiential knowledge of instructed AL learning, similar to that of non-NESTs. This suggests that having learned another language meant that his language-pedagogical knowledge, like that of non-NESTs, excelled in the knowledge of NESTs without instructed language-learning experiences. Furthermore, Lawrence's experiential knowledge of instructed AL learning contributed to his TESOL knowledge.

#### **4.3.2 Language Awareness**

Participants recalled how their past instructed AL learning shaped their language awareness and, consequently, their roles as ESOL teachers. Language awareness encompasses an individual's deliberate comprehension of the characteristics of different languages and dialects, which includes aspects like metalanguage, colloquial language, and language or culture suitable for specific situations (also see 2.9). The following extracts from interviews with Enna and Oliver illustrate their perceptions regarding the connections between their past instructed AL learning, the development of their language awareness, and their professional roles as ESOL teachers.

*I think we [ESOL teachers with past instructed AL learning] kind of understand the process of learning a language, and we are more aware of the different components of a language. Like, when you learn (pause) say, for example, you break down the*

*language into pronunciation, grammar, and passive speech [i.e., passive voice], all this and that.* (Enna, L1s Cantonese & Mandarin / AL English, one-on-one interview)

*[As an ESOL teacher] you have to have either that inclination to really persevere, to really put yourself in someone else's shoes to really understand (pause) whether it is through learning a language or breaking down your own language or doing really solid reflection.* (Oliver, L1 English / ALs Japanese & Mandarin, one-on-one interview)

Enna's and Oliver's excerpts above shed light on some key aspects of their past instructed AL learning and ESOL teaching practices. Enna's account highlights the notion that ESOL teachers who have previously learned an AL often have a deeper understanding of the language-learning process. This understanding comes from their lived experiences of breaking down their AL(s) into various components such as phonology, syntax, and other linguistic aspects. Furthermore, Enna's comment suggests that such understanding can potentially lead to ESOL teachers' effective teaching practices, as they can empathize with the challenges faced by their students. In addition, Enna's quote highlights that these teachers' language awareness encompasses diverse components of various languages. By being aware of these linguistic components, ESOL teachers with past instructed AL learning can potentially provide more targeted guidance to their students. That is, such language awareness enables these teachers to address specific areas that might pose difficulties for ELLs. Oliver (above) emphasized the importance of perspective-taking in effective ESOL teaching. Moreover, he indicated that this could only be accomplished when ESOL teachers reflect on their own instructed AL-learning experiences or even deconstruct their native language to better understand the challenges faced by ELLs. Both Enna's and Oliver's quotes indirectly highlight the complexity of AL learning. However, one may argue that breaking down a language into its various components is just one aspect of the process. Effective language teaching involves not only imparting knowledge of these components but also addressing and being empathetic to the emotional aspects of learning, which are vital for

building learners' confidence and motivation. Chapter Five presents participants' accounts of how their past instructed AL learning enhanced their levels of empathy for ELLs.

Like Oliver, other participants also discussed how detailed linguistic analysis contributed to developing their language awareness, as shown in the extracts below.

*We would dissect [Japanese] grammar and vocabulary and things like that. (Gregory, L1 English / ALs Japanese & Spanish, one-on-one interview)*

*Having learned a language or having broken down a language, we [ESOL teachers with past instructed AL learning] (pause) maybe look at language from more angles. (Oliver, L1 English / ALs Japanese & Mandarin, one-on-one interview)*

*Certainly doing the CELTA, for example, opened my eyes to this whole [AL-learning] process [from the teacher's perspective]. [...] When I did the CELTA, they do teach you the structure and that of (pause) say of the grammar on that, but it's all pretty quick and then you find yourself kind of having to learn it along the way before you teach it. But doing the Spanish class, for example, was really good. That, simultaneously with [ESOL] teaching (pause) because it reinforced what you had to know in class like the conditionals or something. Because you learn the structure in Spanish, but then you think about how it is in English. It makes you think about what it's like in English as well. So, from a knowledge point of view, [formally learning Spanish] was pretty helpful [for ESOL teaching]. (Lawrence, L1 English / ALs French & Spanish, one-on-one interview)*

Gregory, Oliver, and Lawrence pointed out that their past instructed AL learning included analyzing grammatical structure(s) (sequence of linguistic units) and how linguistic units (e.g., words and phrases) are combined to produce meaningful sentences. Gregory mentioned having to examine Japanese grammar and vocabulary in detail during his instructed AL learning, suggesting that this learning involved understanding the components of the language. Oliver shared his perception regarding how ESOL teachers with experiences with instructed AL learning tended to view language from multiple perspectives. His account suggests that these teachers' language learning broadened their understanding of language as a complex system. Lawrence discussed the impact of his experience learning the Spanish language on his perspective as an ESOL teacher. He reported that learning the language concurrently with teaching ESOL strengthened his understanding of language structure,

specifically grammar. Lawrence's recollection suggests that his AL-learning experience had a practical impact on his teaching practices, helping him relate and explain linguistic features to ELLs.

Furthermore, participants shared their perceptions regarding the benefits of their language awareness for their professional roles as ESOL teachers. The following extracts are examples of such benefits.

*If you had to learn [other] languages yourself and if you look at the content (pause) having to learn, you know, some specific English grammar, for example, I think, helps a lot for being able to explain it. (Marie, L1 French / ALs English & Spanish, one-on-one interview)*

*You need to be able to explain (chuckles), I think, some of the [grammatical] rules in English. [...] Even though people think: "Oh, I've spoken English all my life, I can easily teach English", it's actually not that easy. Where do you start? I think having learned English, and having learned French, and having learned German, I know how to go back to the basics and be prepared to go back, back, back for explanations and examples. (Deborah, L1 Dutch / ALs English, French, & German, one-on-one interview)*

Marie and Deborah highlighted that their language awareness enabled them to explain English grammatical rules effectively to their students. Marie emphasized the value of having learned specific English grammar. She stated that her experience as a former ELL was beneficial in her role as an ESOL teacher. This implies that Marie's past language learning equipped her with the knowledge needed to teach effectively. Deborah underscored the misconception that simply being a native English speaker does not automatically make one an effective ESOL teacher. She highlighted the need for ESOL teachers to not only understand English grammar but also to be capable of explaining it clearly. Deborah's account suggests that her experience of learning multiple languages (i.e., English, French, and German) taught her how to break down complex grammar rules and provide explanations and examples, which is crucial in teaching ESOL.

In addition to the benefit of ESOL teachers' language awareness for explaining grammar to ELLs, Isabella spoke about how this awareness and teachers' plurilingual competence were helpful for scaffolded English teaching. The extracts below illustrate her perspective.

*I think you need a good knowledge of [English] grammar because a lot of students relate to grammar, and there are [ESOL] teachers who can't give explanations, grammatical explanations. (Isabella, L1 English / AL French, focus-group discussion)*

*Most of the students at our school were Asian. But we did get Mexicans and Portuguese and a few from Argentina, so knowing French helped because it was the Latin language making that connection. Knowing French grammar helped me to be able to explain [English grammar] to them. (Isabella, L1 English / AL French, one-on-one interview)*

Isabella reported that her experience learning French enabled her to develop metalinguistic knowledge in her L1 (English) and AL (French) (i.e., part of her language awareness) and provide specific assistance to ELLs from Romance-language backgrounds. However, while Isabella's perspective emphasizes the significance of grammar in AL education, her argument deserves closer examination due to its tendency to overly simplify the complexity of AL learning and teaching. Her account suggests that ESOL teachers' good knowledge of English is essential, as many ELLs often encounter challenges with grammar. Although grammar is crucial for language comprehension and effective communication, Isabella's assertion may have overlooked ELLs' diverse learning styles and needs. Some ELLs may find grammar explanations helpful, but others might learn better through immersive language experiences, practical communication, or contextual understanding.

In addition to the benefits of participants' linguistic repertoires, they reported their observations of the disadvantages of ESOL teachers without past instructed AL learning, as shown in the excerpts below.

*As many native [English] speakers [who have not learned an AL] (pause) even if (pause) of course they can speak English and use correct grammar, they don't realize*

*what they are doing or why.* (Marie, L1 French / ALs English & Spanish, one-on-one interview)

*Whereas if it's just a simple native [English] speaker who likes to teach [ESOL], sometimes they don't understand the beast, really, that they're teaching. And, that can, of course, mean that when they explain something, they will just say what they think is [a] clear explanation when actually it doesn't really get to the heart of the matter.* (Oliver, L1 English / ALs Japanese & Mandarin, one-on-one interview)

Marie's observation underscores a common phenomenon where native English speakers, despite their natural fluency in the language and accurate grammatical usage, might lack an explicit awareness of the underlying rules and structures. Her account suggests that this lack of conscious understanding can hinder their ability to explain language concepts effectively, highlighting the distinction between ESOL teachers' intuitive language use and the need for language awareness through linguistic analysis.

Oliver's account emphasizes the potential shortcomings of NESTs. While these teachers may have an inherent command of English, their understanding might not extend to the intricacies and complexities of ESOL teaching. Particularly, his use of the metaphor '*they don't understand the beast*' aptly captures the notion that the multifaceted nature of ESOL teaching requires more than just being a proficient speaker of English; it necessitates language awareness and a deep understanding of language pedagogy.

Together, Marie's and Oliver's insights shed light on the challenges that confront ESOL teachers who had not formally learned another language, as these teachers tended to lack the specific language awareness needed for ESOL teaching. Their perspectives highlight the importance of ESOL teachers bridging the gap between their natural language use and TESOL knowledge, further suggesting that ESOL teachers' past AL learning, or lack thereof, was linked to their teaching practices. The following sub-theme presents the ways participants avoided or integrated their past instructed AL learning into their ESOL teaching practices in detail.

#### 4.4 Reported Impact of Former AL Teachers' Teaching Practices on Own ESOL Teaching

The third sub-theme, *reported impact of former AL teachers' teaching practices on own ESOL teaching*, examines how participants reportedly incorporated their past instructed AL learning into their teaching practices and the areas where they chose not to. Participants' accounts suggest that the teaching approaches and practices enacted by their former AL teachers, as discussed in 4.2, impacted their own teaching practices. It is worth noting that the reported impact of ESOL teachers' instructed AL-learning experiences tends to be multifaceted, potentially shaping teachers' beliefs, biases, values, and the like. Analysis shows that the reported impact of the participants' instructed language-learning experiences can be categorized into four types:

- non-incorporation;
- incorporation of assumed good practices;
- partial incorporation; and
- incorporation.

Non-incorporation refers to the absence of participants' former AL teachers' teaching practices in their own ESOL teaching. This happened when participants rejected particular practices due to personal dislike or the ineffectiveness of these practices. Incorporation of assumed good practices occurred when participants identified gaps in their past instructed AL learning and subsequently filled these gaps in their teaching practices. They compensated for deficiencies in their language-learning experiences by incorporating these elements into their teaching practices to better support their students. Partial incorporation ensued when participants included some aspects of their former AL teachers' teaching practices in their ESOL teaching, replicating parts they favored or found advantageous. Finally, incorporation

happened when participants replicated, without altering, particular teaching practices their former AL teachers enacted because they found these practices favorable or effective.

Participants' decisions regarding incorporating particular teaching practices from their former AL teachers were reportedly impacted by their reflections on their instructed AL-learning experiences. That is, their past instructed AL learning served as a reference point for their decisions. The following extracts provide insights into participants' reflective processes.

*I reflect back to my time learning Spanish for a lot of reasons, actually. (Gregory, L1 English / ALs Japanese & Spanish, one-on-one interview)*

*I would reflect on my previous [ESOL] learning experiences. Sometimes I try to do things the opposite [of my former ESOL teachers] or sometimes I try to do things similarly. (Enna, L1s Cantonese & Mandarin / AL English, one-on-one interview)*

*You get the advantage of reflecting on your own experience in a deeper way if you once learned a[n] [additional] language. (Catherine, L1s Hokkien & Tagalog / ALs English & Mandarin, one-on-one interview)*

In the quotes above, these participants (Gregory, Enna, and Catherine) indicated that their past instructed AL learning enabled them to make informed decisions, draw from their own language learning, and potentially improve their teaching practices. Gregory mentioned reflecting on his experience of learning Spanish for multiple reasons. This suggests that his experience served as a valuable reference point in his role as an ESOL teacher. His reflection on this experience likely impacted his teaching practices, allowing him to relate to his students. Enna discussed her reflective process, where she drew on her past ESOL-learning experience to inform her pedagogical decisions and practices. Her ability to consider enacting either similar or different practices to those of her former ESOL teachers demonstrates how her past learning impacted her reflective practice. This also reflects her conscious effort to improve her teaching practices based on her experience as a former ELL. Catherine highlighted that having learned an AL could provide ESOL teachers with an advantage in terms of more profound reflection on their teaching practices. Her account suggests that she

held the perception that learning an AL is likely to enhance one's ability to reflect on instructed language learning and teaching more broadly, contributing to their understanding of language education.

#### 4.4.1 *Non-Incorporation*

Participants' recounts of their past instructed AL learning and ESOL teaching show that they chose not to incorporate particular teaching practices their former AL teachers enacted. Such decisions were impacted by various factors, as exemplified below.

*My [Mandarin-]Chinese teachers, they always set this learning environment that's so strict and so stiff, you know, you're not free at all. So, there's that fear factor.*  
(Catherine, L1s Hokkien & Tagalog / ALs English & Mandarin, one-on-one interview)

*I would've been about seven. A teacher said: "Come to the front of the class and read out this [English] paragraph". So, I went to the front of the class, and I read "da [the]", and "dat [that]", "over dare [there]". And the teacher said: "You've got to learn how to say 'the', and 'that', over 'there'. And you're not going to sit down until you do it". (chuckles) And I was very, very shy. So, I went red and purple, and all the colors of the rainbow. But, in the end, I got it. (chuckles) So, it was a tough experience, but maybe good for me.* (Deborah, L1 Dutch / ALs English, French, & German, one-on-one interview)

Catherine's and Deborah's recollections of their experiences as language learners highlight how different AL teaching practices might impact language learners. Catherine reflected on her Mandarin-Chinese learning experience and described the authoritarian and rigid learning environment created by her teachers. Deborah shared a childhood experience as an ELL in a submersion setting where her teacher used a demanding practice to correct her English pronunciation. Although she recognized the teacher's practice as effective, her use of the adverb '*maybe*' suggests a level of uncertainty about definitely concluding its advantage. While Catherine's experience illustrates how a strict and fear-inducing learning environment may not always be conducive to AL learning, as it can hinder learners' confidence and

expression, Deborah's anecdote suggests that strict teaching practices can lead to successful outcomes, but they may come at the cost of emotional discomfort.

Catherine and Deborah explained why they chose not to incorporate the teaching practices in the extracts above. Their non-incorporation of their former teachers' practices is evident in the following extracts.

*And that's one thing I really don't want to happen in my classroom environment. So, I always make sure that everybody finds a sense of belonging, [a] sense of acceptance, and a sense of well-being inside the classroom because I do believe that (pause) yes, learning is more than cognitive, it's emotional. (Catherine, L1s Hokkien & Tagalog / ALs English & Mandarin, one-on-one interview)*

*Confidence is a big factor [in instructed AL learning]. Not jumping down the student's throat if they make a mistake, but repeating what mistake they made correctly and see if they can pick it up. So, doing it in sort of a roundabout way. (Deborah, L1 Dutch / ALs English, French, & German, one-on-one interview)*

In the accounts above, Catherine and Deborah stated their commitment to creating a classroom atmosphere that prioritized emotional well-being and confidence-building in ESOL learning. Catherine emphasized the importance of creating a positive learning environment where students felt they belonged, were accepted, and had emotional well-being. She shared how she perceived AL learning as going beyond cognitive aspects and recognized the emotional dimensions of learning. Deborah highlighted the significance of building learners' confidence in ESOL learning. She advised against teachers reacting harshly when learners made mistakes, advocating for a more constructive practice. By providing corrective feedback in a considerate and indirect manner, she aimed to encourage learners to self-correct.

#### **4.4.2 Incorporation of Assumed Good Practices**

Participants recounted incorporating teaching practices their former AL teachers did not utilize to support their learning. They did so by identifying gaps in their past instructed AL learning and recognizing the potential benefits of these practices. In the following

extracts, they described examples of such practices and explained the rationale behind their application of the additional practices.

*I felt like when I was in university, I wasn't really supported [in my ESOL learning] that much. [...] So, when I became a teacher, I felt like the more I taught, I felt that it's really important for the students to feel supported in learning. Like (pause) advice being given to them, and [I] always followed up and monitored. So, when I teach now, I always look back on how I learned [ESOL] when I was in university. (Fang, L1s Cantonese & Mandarin / ALs English & Japanese).*

*I gave [my ELLs] an essay planner, and I helped them to break down the essay into different parts. [...] I don't think my [ESOL] teachers used essay planners. No. And that's why I struggled with writing for so many years. (Enna, L1 Cantonese & Mandarin / AL English, one-on-one interview)*

*I did do something that none of my [former AL] teachers did. My very first year of teaching (pause) which was to use gestures to give corrections without saying anything. [...] I think [gestures] would be the kind of thing that I would respond to, because I'm more a visual person. I can't necessarily hear or notice things myself. I need someone to prompt me to notice. That's why I was doing it to my students. (Oliver, L1 English / ALs Japanese & Mandarin, one-on-one interview)*

The extracts above highlight these participants' (Fang, Enna, and Oliver) deliberate incorporation of teaching practices absent from their language-learning experiences. The focus here is on their proactive efforts to bridge the identified gaps, demonstrating conscientious pedagogical decisions and practices developed from their insights as former AL learners. Fang reported how her past underwhelming support from her ESOL teachers at university fueled her commitment to emphasize comprehensive assistance and guidance for her students. Enna's account illustrates her response to her own learning struggles. Recognizing that essay planners were absent from her ESOL learning, she reports deliberately providing her students with such tools. Enna's experience of grappling with writing difficulties has driven her to ensure her students have the resources she wished she had as an ELL, showcasing a conscious effort to rectify her past challenges. Oliver's reported teaching practice, using gestures for corrective feedback, is rooted in his recognition of his visual learning preference. Drawing from his need for prompts to notice errors/mistakes as a

former AL learner, he incorporated gestures to enhance his students' learning. Oliver's account reflects his understanding of how individuals' learning styles can inform their teacher knowledge and teaching practices. In summary, these participant quotes (above) underscore how their reflective practices as teachers are intricately woven into their past instructed AL-learning experiences.

#### **4.4.3 Partial Incorporation**

Participants reported incorporating some elements of their former AL teachers' teaching practices into their ESOL teaching while altering or rejecting others. The quotes below demonstrate participants' incorporation of practices they considered favorable or effective.

*I wouldn't do it exactly the same way [as my ESOL teachers], but I would think about what is wrong with that [teaching practice] or what is good that I can take. (Enna, L1s Cantonese & Mandarin / AL English, one-on-one interview)*

*One thing that I thought was super helpful was if you learned a new [English] grammar point and vocabulary (pause) vocabulary in particular (pause) I remember that we [i.e., learners] had to make sentences for it. And I think that really helped. [...] I have this little game where [the ELLs] have to put some elicited words they want to use on the board. And then they have to race to write sentences with [the words on the board], and then they go back and check. (Naifa, L1 Malayalam / ALs English & Hindi, one-on-one interview)*

In the excerpts above, Enna and Naifa reported reflecting on their past instructed AL learning. This reflection has enabled them to examine the (in)effectiveness of particular teaching practices their former AL teachers employed, subsequently impacting their own teaching practices. Enna's account shows her approach to incorporating her past instructed ESOL learning into her teaching practices. While she would not replicate her former ESOL teachers' practices, she reported that she would employ a critical perspective, assessing the strengths and weaknesses of these practices. This demonstrates Enna's conscious consideration of what aspects of her past ESOL learning to adapt and what to improve upon

in her own teaching, reflecting a proactive effort to enhance her students' learning. Naifa's quote sheds light on the practical benefits of a specific teaching practice from her experience as an ELL. She emphasized the effectiveness of an activity where learners had to create sentences using newly-learned vocabulary and grammar points. Naifa carried the notion behind this activity into her teaching by introducing a similar game that encouraged her students to engage with vocabulary actively. She added some fun elements to the activity, perhaps to make it more stimulating for her students. Collectively, Enna's and Naifa's accounts above highlight the reciprocal relationship between AL learning and teaching. Enna's reflection showcases a critical approach to refining teaching practices based on personal learning experiences, while Naifa's example demonstrates how effective learning practices can be integrated into teaching practices. These participants partial incorporation of their past instructed AL learning into their teaching practices showcases how ESOL teachers' language-learning experiences can shape their teacher knowledge and teaching practices.

#### **4.4.4 Incorporation**

Participants reported incorporating particular teaching practices from their former AL teachers that they found favorable or helpful in their past instructed AL learning. The following extracts are examples of such incorporation.

*The American [ESOL] teachers, they would play a lot of games, have a lot of interactive activities, or use movies and songs to help us get engaged. So, I would adopt those [teaching practices]. Yeah, definitely. They have a big influence [on my ESOL teaching].* (Enna, L1s Cantonese & Mandarin / AL English, one-on-one interview)

*[The Japanese teacher] used English a bit as scaffolding to help the beginner students to an extent. [...] There were kids with all ranges of English in the same [ESOL] class. So, I could help those who didn't speak English as well in Japanese.* (Hunter, L1 English / ALs French & Japanese, one-on-one interview)

In these excerpts, Enna and Hunter provided insights into how their instructed language-learning experiences allowed them to evaluate particular teaching practices from the perspectives of AL learners. Enna's account underscores the reported impact of her former American ESOL teachers who employed activities to enhance student engagement. Her adoption of these activities in her teaching demonstrates a translation of her reported positive learning experiences into her teaching practices, emphasizing the significant role ESOL teachers' past instructed AL learning can play in shaping their professional roles. Hunter's comment highlights the adaptability required in AL classrooms, including ESOL classrooms, with students of varying AL proficiency levels. His reported incorporation of using his students' L1 (Japanese) reflects the effectiveness he observed in his former Japanese teacher's use of learners' L1 (English) to help learners with low levels of language proficiency. Overall, these accounts (above) show how AL teachers' teaching practices can impact their students, potentially shaping these students' future teaching practices.

#### **4.5 Conclusion**

This study aimed to understand the reported impact of New Zealand-based ESOL teachers' experiences as language learners on their professional roles. The first main theme, *past instructed AL learning and its reported impact on ESOL teaching*, addressed the ORQ, SQ1, and SQ2. Participants reported examples of teaching approaches and practices their former AL teachers enacted, the language-pedagogical knowledge they gained from their past AL learning, and how participants reportedly incorporated their past instructed AL learning into their ESOL-teaching practices, including areas where they did not incorporate them.

The first sub-theme, *teaching practices experienced as AL learners*, is an analysis of participants' recollections of some of their former AL teachers' teaching approaches and

practices. There were mixed evaluations amongst participants' views on their former AL teachers' teaching as they:

- favored particular teaching approaches and practices, deeming them effective;
- found aspects of particular teaching approaches and practices partially effective; and/or
- disapproved of particular teaching approaches and practices, considering them ineffective.

The second sub-theme, *language-pedagogical knowledge gained from past instructed AL learning*, focused on how participants' past instructed AL learning contributed to their TESOL knowledge. Within this sub-theme, two types of teacher knowledge emerged from the data, namely:

- participants' experiential knowledge of instructed AL learning; and
- participants' language awareness.

The third sub-theme, *reported impact of former AL teachers' teaching practices on own ESOL teaching*, delves into how participants incorporated or refrained from incorporating their former AL teachers' teaching practices into their ESOL teaching. Within this sub-theme, four types of incorporation were identified in the data: non-incorporation, incorporation of assumed good practices, partial incorporation, and incorporation.

This study, underpinned by the theoretical framings of 'teacher knowledge' and 'teacher linguistic knowledge', examined the reported impact of instructed AL learning on developing participants' professional roles as ESOL teachers. Despite all participants having TESOL training, the findings show that their experiences as former language learners played a significant role in two key aspects of their professional roles: their knowledge and their

actions as ESOL teachers. In summary, participants' experiences as former AL learners were recognized as a crucial contributor to their TESOL knowledge and teaching practices.

## Chapter Five: Enhanced Empathy for English Language Learners (ELLs)

### 5.1 Introduction

Chapter four has presented the first main theme of this study, which are findings about and discussions of participants' recollections of their past instructed additional-language (AL) learning and its reported impact on their TESOL knowledge and teaching practices as teachers of English for/to speakers of other languages (ESOL). The current chapter describes and discusses the reported impact of their instructed AL-learning experiences on their empathy for their students. Findings in this study suggest that participants saw a connection between their past instructed AL learning and an enhanced sense of empathy towards English language learners (ELLs). While empathy is a trait inherent to humans (A. Smith, 2006; Meyza & Knapska, 2018), this chapter focuses on the specific types of empathy individuals can only develop through their experiences as former AL learners.

The second main theme of this study, *enhanced empathy for English language learners (ELLs)*, delves into participants' reported connection between their past instructed AL learning and their increased ability to empathize with the emotions and experiences of ELLs as language learners. This main theme addresses the overarching research question (ORQ): How do New Zealand-based plurilingual ESOL teachers' instructed additional-language (AL) learning experiences impact their professional roles? Additionally, it tackles the second sub-question (SQ2): In what ways do or don't they integrate their past instructed AL learning into their ESOL teaching practices?

Within this main theme, two distinct phases in participants' enhanced empathy for ELLs were identified and termed: 'reflective empathy' and 'enacted empathy'. In this study, the first phase, reflective empathy, refers to participants' reportedly empathy when they

contemplated their past instructed AL learning and connected their own experiences to their students' ESOL-learning experiences (5.2). That is, participants' reported reflective empathy derived from their experiential knowledge of instructed AL learning (see 4.3.1). When participants experienced reflective empathy for their students, they reported examining both the positive and negative aspects of their experiences as former AL learners. It is important to note that participants' reflective empathy may or may not have led to the second phase, enacted empathy.

The second phase, enacted empathy, evolved from participants' reflective empathy for ELLs and involved the empathetic responses that participants employed to assist their students' learning (5.3). That is, participants first reflected on their experiential knowledge of instructed AL learning, which then inspired pedagogical insights leading to their reported applications of particular teaching practices. These two phases of empathy, reflective empathy and enacted empathy, are presented as the two sub-themes of the main theme, *enhanced empathy for English language learners (ELLs)*. This chapter ends with the conclusion of this main theme (5.4).

## **5.2 Reflective Empathy**

Participants' empathy for ELLs stemmed from their experiential knowledge of instructed AL learning as former learners. The first phase of *enhanced empathy for English language learners (ELLs)*, which I termed *reflective empathy*, captures how participants recollected and perceived their past instructed AL learning shaped their professional roles as ESOL teachers. More specifically, it addresses how participants reportedly engaged in reflective empathy by drawing upon their experiential knowledge of instructed AL learning and examining their cognitive and emotional understanding of AL-learning processes as former learners. That is, participants reported that their past instructed AL learning served as

a source of reference that assisted their understanding of their students' perspectives, challenges, (de)motivating factors, thought processes, and the like.

Participants emphasized the link between their instructed AL-learning experiences and their empathy for ELLs. The following extracts provide insights into their perspectives.

*When you have more than one of anything, whether it's a language or a culture, it opens you up to empathy. The kind of empathy I feel like you don't have when you only have one thing, one story that you know. [...] The ability to empathize with students on their language-learning journey is huge. (Gregory, L1 English / ALs Japanese & Spanish, one-on-one interview & email)*

*So, language learning, it's emotional, and we have to always empathize with our students, and learning a second language is one very effective way of relating to your students. [...] I think a reflective teacher is always the best teacher and someone who is always considering him or herself as a learner so that you continue to evolve and learn because you know there's no such thing as already a perfect teacher. (Catherine, L1s Hokkien & Tagalog / ALs English & Mandarin, one-on-one interview)*

*Because you have been through learning another language and using another language, so you are thinking about: "Oh, how was it for me" You are more attuned to their [ELLs'] needs and more empathetic, and more inclusive. (Naifa, L1 Malayalam / ALs English & Hindi, one-on-one interview)*

These participants (Gregory, Catherine, and Naifa) emphasized that the empathy they felt for their students was a result of their own instructed AL-learning experiences. The extracts above also indicated these participants' perceptions regarding the value of this type of empathy for ESOL teachers. For example, Catherine reported that she perceived such empathy as an essential tool for ESOL teachers to connect with their students and understand their feelings. Gregory, while stressing the importance of ESOL teachers' past instructed AL learning, also argued that learning about another culture could further enable teachers to empathize with their students' language learning journey. His use of the phrases '*one thing*' and '*one story*' suggests that he perceived ESOL teachers without language-learning experiences as individuals with limited views on AL-learning processes.

Gregory, Catherine, and Naifa (above) also emphasized the significance of ESOL teachers' reflective empathy in effective teaching. For example, Naifa stated that ESOL teachers with past instructed AL learning tended to possess qualities like perceptiveness, sensitivity, and responsiveness, as they can draw upon their past instructed AL learning to understand their students' perspectives. Furthermore, Naifa's consistent use of the adverb 'more' to modify the three adjectives (i.e., 'attuned', 'empathetic', and 'inclusive') she used to describe assets of ESOL teachers with past instructed AL learning suggests that she held the perception that these teachers had a higher level of competence compared to those without instructed AL-learning experiences. However, Naifa's statement also highlights a potential concern: ESOL teachers' reflective empathy can be a double-edged sword with both positive and negative implications. Reflecting on their past instructed AL learning might lead ESOL teachers to potentially overlook other critical aspects of AL learning and teaching, such as learners' individual learning styles and levels of motivation.

When the participants were asked about their views on ESOL teachers without instructed language-learning experiences, they expressed their perception that these teachers faced disadvantages. The comments below provide insight into participants' perspectives.

*I don't see the point of teaching another language to someone if you don't know what it is about because you haven't done it yourself. (Marie, L1 French / ALs English & Spanish, one-on-one interview)*

*If you have no (pause) had no language-learning experience (pause) no, no, I don't think that's gonna really help. Yeah. So, I would definitely think that for [ESOL] teachers to have had an experience of learning another language could definitely help. (Kimiya, L1 Farsi / AL English, one-on-one interview)*

*If you haven't studied a language [i.e., an AL] (pause) you didn't go through the whole process of learning it (pause) no experience (pause) so maybe you don't really feel how the students are like (pause) they feel challenges in the class to learn a new language. (Jasmin, L1 Farsi / AL English, focus group discussion)*

In the quotes above, these participants (Marie, Kimiya, and Jasmin) expressed skepticism about the empathy levels of ESOL teachers who lacked instructed AL-learning experiences. Kimiya and Jasmin also suggested that these teachers might find it challenging to comprehend the difficulties their students face during the AL-learning process. However, their perceptions seem to be restricted to experiences related specifically to AL learning, potentially neglecting the development of transferable skills from other schooling experiences. That is, when ESOL teachers solely emphasize their instructed AL-learning experiences, they might overlook the broader skill set gained through other educational contexts.

As demonstrated below, participants' reflective empathy mainly emanated from six factors related to their past instructed AL learning. These were their:

- AL-learning age;
- plurilingual competence;
- experiential knowledge of language pedagogy;
- struggles and sense of accomplishment as former AL learners;
- experienced student-teacher rapport as AL learners; and
- former AL teacher's negative reaction.

**AL-Learning Age.** Hunter, who learned French as a young learner and Japanese as an adult learner, discussed how his instructed AL-learning experience as an adult enhanced his empathy for adult ELLs. He shared his perception in the following excerpt.

*I married a Japanese woman, and so I wanted to learn her language and culture. So, I started by going to evening classes with other adults in small classes learning Japanese. [...] It made me more empathetic to the role of an adult learner [i.e., ELL]. Having learned French as a teenager was quite different. So, it made me more empathetic to what it's like as an adult to learn in that situation. [...] A lot of adults, and this includes me, at times struggle because you have to go back to being a dummy, you know, somebody who doesn't know something, you know, put yourself in that lower position. (chuckles) [...] And that's (pause) that's kind of challenging, I think, sometimes for some older people when they've got a young whiz kid in the class that's*

*showing them up.* (Hunter, L1 English / ALs French & Japanese, one-on-one interview)

Hunter (above) implied that his instructed AL-learning experience as an adult was more strenuous compared to his experience as a young learner. Despite his motivation to learn Japanese due to his marriage to a Japanese woman, his comment highlights that some aspects of adult AL learning could be demotivating. For example, Hunter mentioned facing emotional challenges such as low self-esteem and vulnerability as an adult learner. This perspective is evident in his self-deprecating language, including the use of the term ‘*dummy*’. His comment also suggests that he viewed his linguistic identity as an adult learner as a form of language deficiency rather than considering it as additional knowledge alongside his L1 (i.e., English). Additionally, Hunter pointed out that his experience learning Japanese as an adult enabled him to empathize with the mindset of other adult language learners, particularly their sense of shame or embarrassment when they could not learn as quickly as younger learners.

While not directly related to instructed AL learning, Deborah and Kimiya shared their recollections as immigrant children learning English in submersion settings in Australia and New Zealand. In the following comments, they described how these experiences in such settings enhanced their empathy for ELLs.

*I was born in the Netherlands and (pause) but I was very young when my parents decided to immigrate to New Zealand. I was only four years old and (pause) so, all my schooling was done in New Zealand. [...] There was no ESOL [support] back in my day. (chuckles) And, um, so you never expected any extra help. You were kind of thrown in, you know. You swim or you sink. (laughs) [...] When other [ESOL] teachers talk about, for instance, a Chinese student who doesn't say much, I know that I didn't say much at the beginning. Because you listen, you learn, you copy, and eventually, you get there. So, to me that was normal. You know, that the new English learning student would not say much.* (Deborah, L1 Dutch / ALs English, French, & German, one-on-one interview)

*I was five years and a half when my family and I, we moved to Sydney. [...] I remember that my brothers, they went to (pause) I think one of them went to high*

*school and they had these extra English classes for them, but nothing for me. It was very hard. I didn't know anything about the language. [...] I didn't even know how to write my own name. And for a long time, I was the student with the paper with no name. [...] I couldn't even communicate when I wanted to go (pause) like go to the washroom. NOTHING! It was basically really difficult for me. [...] I think because I've been through it, I can relate them [i.e., ELLs]. [...] It gives you that new perspective because the students are struggling every single moment in the class. It's like a struggle for them. And to have someone [i.e., an ESOL teacher] who understands that (pause) who has AT LEAST been through a little bit of it can REALLY help. (Kimiya, L1 Farsi / AL English, one-on-one interview)*

Deborah and Kimiya (above) highlighted the difficulties they encountered while learning English in submersion settings. For example, Deborah's use of the analogical expression in the passive voice, *'thrown in'*, indicates she initially lacked agency in her experience as an ELL in a New Zealand submersion setting. After that, her use of the active voice phrase, *'you swim or you sink'*, implies that she viewed her ESOL learning as a situation where her academic success or failure depended on her, indicating her acceptance of the situation. Deborah noted that, as an ESOL teacher, she could reflect on her experience as an ELL and empathize with her quiet ELLs. She explained that it was not unusual for new ELLs to go through a silent period during which they may not be ready or willing to participate in communicative activities. Drawing from her personal experience, Deborah concluded that new ELLs needed time to observe and imitate their teachers and peers before they felt ready to communicate or independently use their newly-learned language.

Similarly, Kimiya (above) discussed her lack of agency as a child immigrant in an Australian school's submersion setting. She not only struggled with the English language, but also faced emotional challenges, possibly stemming from her inability to communicate her basic needs, such as going to the restroom. Another prominent part of Kimiya's account was when she referred to herself as *'the student with the paper with no name'*, further highlighting her lack of agency. Kimiya affirmed her ability to empathize with ELLs due to her own struggles as a young ELL. Furthermore, she reportedly drew from her own experience to

emphasize that AL learning could be a painful, ongoing process for learners. This comment by Kimiya seems rather extreme, as language learning is not all about difficulties. It is important to note that Kimiya's comment may reflect her own evaluation of her English-learning experience, which might not be universally applicable to all ELLs. While AL learning can be challenging, it also has enjoyable aspects, and not all learners share Kimiya's perspective. Therefore, her comment likely reflects her experiences of learning English in a submersion setting, which differs from ESOL learning.

**Plurilingual Competence.** Participants indicated that their plurilingual competence allowed them to empathize with ELLs from particular L1 backgrounds. Plurilingualism involves actively utilizing multiple languages/varieties and cultural insights and having awareness and/or exposure to various social scenarios (Council of Europe, 2023). The following excerpts illustrate participants' reflective empathy from a plurilingual perspective.

*With the experience [i.e., Japanese learning experience] you've got a better understanding of the problems that [Japanese ESOL] students are facing because you know what their pronunciation issues are. For example, the sounds that they're going to find very difficult to make in English because they [i.e., the sounds] don't exist in their language. (Hunter, L1 English / ALs French & Japanese, one-on-one interview)*

*I think I would understand Chinese [ESOL] students' struggles and problems more than I understand students from other [language] backgrounds and cultures. For example, like, in terms of [English] pronunciation and grammar, I would understand better in which particular area they would struggle more. So, [my L1 knowledge] makes it easier for me to help these students. [...] So, for an Asian person to learn English, I think spelling for them is very difficult (pause) especially Chinese. Like, written Chinese is a language that is based on images, not sounds. So, for many students, spelling for them would be very difficult because it's something very different. (Fang, L1s Cantonese & Mandarin / ALs English & Japanese, one-on-one interview)*

Hunter and Fang (above) explained that their empathy for their students was rooted in their understanding of the learners' L1s. They specifically discussed how they could anticipate struggles faced by learners from particular language backgrounds, such as English pronunciation (mentioned by both Hunter and Fang), syntax rules (mentioned by Fang), and

script (also mentioned by Fang). However, from a ‘teacher knowledge’ perspective, ESOL teachers do not necessarily need to formally learn their students’ L1s to identify the common struggles among ELLs from specific L1 backgrounds. Through their teaching experiences, ESOL teachers can become more aware of these challenges within instructed language settings, and this experience shapes their teacher knowledge and teaching practices.

Therefore, it can be assumed that the learning challenges described by Hunter and Fang were those they could understand because of their own experiences as former AL learners. For example, Fang mentioned that her L1 background (Mandarin Chinese) and her linguistic identity as a former ELL enabled her to empathize better with Mandarin-speaking ELLs compared to ELLs from other L1 backgrounds. Her statement implies that ESOL teachers who did not know Mandarin Chinese might not have a similar level of empathy for their Mandarin-speaking students as she did.

**Experiential Knowledge of Instructed AL Learning.** Participants shared how their experiential knowledge of instructed AL learning helped them empathize with their students’ learning. The following quotes demonstrate their perspectives.

*Because there were other students [i.e., Japanese-language learners] who were really struggling, and there were students who were much better than I was. And I think that THAT [i.e., the realization of different capabilities within a class] helped my teaching, too, to have more of a perspective from the students’ side of what it’s like to have a range of learning styles and speeds in the same class. (Hunter, L1 English / ALs French & Japanese, one-on-one interview)*

*It is more of an understanding of what it is like to learn another language. [...] I think it [i.e., having learned an AL] definitely gives an understanding of what it’s like for the students. Yeah, a lot more than teachers who don’t speak another language. [...] I think it gives you a better understanding of how long it takes and how many explanations of the same thing that you need. (Isabella, L1 English / AL French, one-on-one interview)*

Hunter and Isabella (above) suggested that their experiential knowledge of instructed AL learning allowed them to reflect on their learning experiences and develop reflective

empathy for their students. They also indicated that their past instructed AL learning contributed to their understanding of effective teaching. For example, Isabella emphasized the importance of having undergone the process of learning another language to gain insight into the effort required in instructed AL learning and the effectiveness of particular teaching practices. She acknowledged that ESOL teachers without instructed AL-learning experiences could still empathize with ELLs, yet she emphasized that teachers with past instructed AL learning would likely have a higher level of empathy than those without such learning experiences.

**Struggles and Sense of Accomplishment as Former AL Learners.** Participants asserted that their struggles and sense of accomplishment as former AL learners enabled them to reflect on their instructed AL-learning experiences, contributing to their development of reflective empathy for ELLs. Their reported reflective empathy is exemplified in the following extracts.

*I know exactly where they're [i.e., ELLs] coming from. I know exactly what they're thinking, and I know exactly what it's like when you figure it out. So, I can really relate to that.* (Lawrence, L1 English / ALs French & Spanish, one-on-one interview)

*You know, I was struggling to learn, so I understand the struggles, I understand the lack of confidence, [and] I understand why often it's too hard to elicit from them [i.e., ELLs].* (Catherine, L1s Hokkien & Tagalog / ALs English & Mandarin, one-on-one interview)

In the excerpts above, Lawrence and Catherine indicated that their reflective empathy derived from their positive (Lawrence) and negative (Catherine) experiences as former AL learners. Their comments also suggest that they held the perception that their reflective empathy for ELLs helped them gain a deeper understanding of the emotional and cognitive factors impacting their students and ELLs' responses to instructed language learning. For example, Catherine discussed how she empathized with her students' difficulty in responding to questions, drawing from her own challenges in speaking as a language learner. She

assumed that her ELLs' lack of response might be linked to their low self-esteem, based on her past instructed AL learning. It is important to note that Catherine's interpretation may have been a result of an "illusion of sameness" (Pitman, 2002, p. 285), as it is widely recognized that ELLs' quietness can stem from varying factors, including their personality traits, cultural backgrounds, or level of interest in the topic. Hence, while reflecting on their own instructed AL-learning experiences can help ESOL teachers understand their students' experiences and cultivate reflective empathy, teachers should remain cognizant that assessing ELLs solely based on their own experiences might not precisely capture the essence of the learners' learning journeys.

As seen in Lawrence's extract above, his reflective empathy for his students was linked to his sense of accomplishment as a former AL learner. He indicated that he could relate to his students' perspectives when he observed them grasping specific language concepts, drawing from his own similar experiences. Needless to say, Lawrence may not have fully comprehended what his students were thinking or feeling (i.e., 'exactly'). Instead, he likely emphasized how his past instructed AL learning contributed to his reflective empathy for ELLs based on their shared positive learning experiences.

**Experienced Student-Teacher Rapport as AL Learners.** Participants discussed how their experiences of having rapport with their former AL teachers, or not having it, contributed to their reflective empathy for their students. The extracts below exemplify the participants' enhanced empathy for ELLs.

*He [i.e., the French-language teacher] is just someone who made a personal connection with me. I think we all have particular teachers that we relate to. [...] It's the connection between students and teachers (pause) that's the most important thing. (Hunter, L1 English / ALs French & Japanese, focus-group discussion)*

*I think the biggest thing for teaching anything is that personal connection. But particularly languages, because it's about communication. [...] I mean I just think it's such a human-relationship thing. We as teachers, we need to be conscious of how our*

*students are feeling in terms of their progress. (Hunter, L1 English / ALs French & Japanese, one-on-one interview)*

*I had to have a certain connection. Otherwise, learning doesn't happen for me that much. [...] If I don't feel connected to my teacher enough, the motivation is less for me. [...] My [Mandarin-]Chinese teachers were more distant. I felt that I could relate more to my English [i.e., ESOL] teachers, and there was more connection. [...] For me, most important, most relevant (pause) is definitely the emotional factor in teaching. So, how important it is for a second language teacher to always connect to their students in a way that will make them [i.e., the students] feel understood and heard. [...] But I think one of the strengths that I had early on from the beginning is my rapport with my students. And because even without good [teaching] techniques, I was already there for them. And I could (pause) I could already understand where they were coming from. [...] Once a student feels that you understand them, where they're coming from, then they start coming out of their shell. This has been like a proven scenario for me. (Catherine, L1s Hokkien & Tagalog / ALs English & Mandarin, one-on-one interview)*

Reflecting on their experiences in instructed AL learning, Hunter and Catherine emphasized the positive impact of student-teacher rapport on student learning. For example, Hunter shared his experience of rapport with his former French teacher, which likely impacted his understanding of the importance of student-teacher rapport both as a former language learner and in his current role as an ESOL teacher. This recognition contributed to the development of his reflective empathy for his students.

Catherine (above) shared her perspective on how her experiences with varying degrees of student-teacher rapport as an AL learner contributed to her reflective empathy for her students. Her account highlights the importance of valuing the emotional aspects of teaching and the significance of teachers connecting with students to make them feel understood. Catherine also reported that her reflective empathy, shaped by her experiences as a former AL learner, prompted her to initiate the building of rapport with her students early in her TESOL career. According to her, this empathy encouraged her students to become more engaged in their learning. While Catherine's account suggests that her reflective empathy played a role in her students' increased participation, it is worth considering that ELLs'

participation can be impacted by various factors beyond ESOL teachers' reflective empathy alone. Factors like a welcoming classroom environment, familiarity with the teacher, and positive interactions with classmates can also contribute to students' willingness to participate.

**Former AL Teacher's Negative Reaction.** Oliver provided an example of how one of his former AL teachers' inappropriate response contributed to his development of reflective empathy for ELLs. The following quote describes the incident and its reported impact on his professional role as an ESOL teacher.

*I remember one [Mandarin-Chinese] teacher, a casual teacher, who laughed at one of my mistakes, and I (pause) well, I could not concentrate for the rest of the lesson. [...] Of course, you shouldn't laugh because, as a teacher, that reduces your chances of success greatly, especially with certain students who will take it [to heart]. Talking about humility (pause) well, being laughed at (pause) for your mistakes [as an AL learner] makes you [i.e., the ESOL teacher] very aware of how important it is to be sensitive around these areas. So (pause) like compassionate and empathetic. (Oliver, L1 English / ALs Japanese / Mandarin, one-on-one interview)*

Oliver (above) recounted an incident where a Mandarin-Chinese teacher laughed at his verbal mistake during class, which disrupted his concentration for the remainder of the class. This experience of being laughed at for his mistakes as an AL learner developed his reflective empathy for ELLs, making him acutely aware of the emotional impact such reactions can have on learners.

### 5.3 Enacted Empathy

The second phase of *enhanced empathy for English language learners (ELLs)*, which is termed *enacted empathy* in this thesis, focuses on participants' specific teaching practices they reportedly employed after reflecting upon their past instructed AL learning. That is, participants' enacted empathy for ELLs stemmed directly from their reflective empathy (see 5.2). However, as mentioned earlier, not all instances of reflective empathy led to enacted

empathy. Although both participants' reported enacted empathy and their *reported impact of former AL teachers' teaching practices on own ESOL teaching* (as discussed in 4.4) explore the connections between participants' past instructed AL learning and their teaching practices, they are fundamentally different. While the former is rooted in participants' reflective empathy, the latter is impacted by participants' learning preferences and the effectiveness of particular teaching practices that their former AL teachers enacted.

Participants' enacted empathy, as recounted by them, was employed in the following forms:

- extended patience;
- cautious oral feedback;
- stories of struggles as former AL learners;
- AL-learning tips;
- positive learning environment;
- mindful instructional pacing; and
- facilitate learning based on ELLs' personality traits.

**Extended Patience.** Participants reported that reflecting on their instructed AL-learning experiences (reflective empathy) led them to extend their patience with their students (enacted empathy). The following extracts from participants' interviews exemplify their enacted empathy for ELLs.

*I'm more empathetic to [ESOL] learners (pause) um (pause), especially at the beginning stage. So, that allows me to extend my patience more and always allows me to recall how I was learning. (Catherine, L1s Hokkien & Tagalog / ALs English & Mandarin, one-on-one interview)*

*She [i.e., former ESOL teacher] was really nice, and I think (pause) when I look back, when I think about her, the most important thing about her was (pause) she was really patient. So, every time when I have the same problem in my class as students ask*

*something over and over and over again, I really do my best to be patient. (chuckles)*  
(Jasmin, L1 Farsi / AL English, one-on-one interview)

The commonality in Catherine's and Jasmin's extracts above was their understanding of what constitutes patience in ESOL teaching, and that is: dedicating the necessary effort and time to help their students learn. Catherine and Jasmin did not indicate that ESOL teachers would automatically realize the importance of extended patience as a result of past instructed AL learning, nor did they imply that ESOL teachers without such learning experiences lacked this realization. However, Catherine and Jasmin emphasized that reflecting on their instructed AL-learning experiences led them to increase their patience with ELLs. For example, Jasmin's statement above suggests that she recognized the value of patience through observing one of her former ESOL teachers, which shaped her own teaching practices. That is, from the perspective of a former ELL, Jamin learned the importance of applying higher levels of patience when teaching.

**Cautious Oral Feedback.** Participants shared how they implemented cautious oral feedback (enacted empathy) in response to their reflections on their experiences as language learners (reflective empathy). Cautious oral feedback refers to participants being vigilant in their responses to errors and mistakes in their students' English language production. The comments below illustrate participants' enacted empathy for their students.

*I think in general, when you put yourself into someone else's shoes, especially, you know, in terms of language learning. Then, you can use more [teaching] tools. Relating to your students would be easier, and you can have a (pause) you know, a general understanding, a deeper understanding of your students. [...] You know, if I become very error-correction centered, and then, it might put them [i.e., ELLs] off. So, it allows me to set my parameters, especially with my elementary [level] students.*  
(Catherine, L1s Hokkien & Tagalog / ALs English & Mandarin, one-on-one interview)

*(Referring to one of her former teachers' oral feedback practices) I think there are other ways of teaching the 'th' sound. [...] Confidence is a big factor. Not jumping down the student's throat if they make a mistake but repeating what mistake they made correctly and see if they can pick it up. So, doing it in sort of a round-about way.*

*So, there are little sort of tricks of the trade. (chuckle) (Deborah, L1 Dutch / ALs English, French, & German, one-on-one interview)*

The extracts above show how Catherine and Deborah recognized the potential damage of particular oral feedback practices that could be imprudent and negatively impact ELLs' learning. For example, Catherine reported that she believed that an excessive focus on correcting ELLs' English language production might discourage the learners' participation in the ESOL-learning process. Her enacted empathy for her students prompted her to first reflect on her own past AL learning and then apply careful and well-considered oral feedback to avoid any negative impact on her students' learning. Similarly, Deborah shared her perspective on inappropriate oral feedback practices based on an incident she experienced as a child in a submersion setting in New Zealand (as described in 4.4.1). Her use of the phrase *'not jumping down the student's throat'* reflects her evaluation of one of her former teachers' practice, indicating she may have felt that the teacher responded critically and angrily to her difficulties with the 'th-' sounds. Deborah's comment underscores the connection between her experience as a language learner and her enacted empathy to provide subtle and non-confrontational oral feedback.

**Stories of Struggles as Former AL Learners.** Participants reported that their enacted empathy for ELLs prompted them to share stories of their own struggles as former AL learners with their students, as demonstrated in the excerpts below.

*When [my students] are so afraid of making mistakes or when they're struggling with grammar, and then, I'll say: "Well, even now I am still confused with some grammar [points]". [...] We need to help them to encourage them to stay positive. (Enna, L1s Cantonese & Mandarin / AL English, one-on-one interview)*

*You can have a bit of a laugh about that and to be able to say: "You know, I've found prepositions particularly difficult when I was learning English. Do you use 'to' or 'at' or 'from' or 'of' or..." (chuckles) And, if you say that to the ESOL class: "This is something I had trouble with". Then, they can: "Yes! We're having trouble with it, too!" (Deborah, L1 Dutch / ALs English, French, & German, one-on-one interview)*

Enna and Deborah reported sharing stories of their own challenges as former ELLs with their students when they noticed similar struggles among their students. For example, Enna described how her students' fear of making English grammatical mistakes encouraged her to admit to them the difficulties she had faced as a former ELL and still faced as an ESOL teacher. This sharing of personal struggles served two purposes in her reported enacted empathy for her students: the acknowledgment of her vulnerability and motivation. On the one hand, by admitting her struggles, Enna made herself vulnerable in front of her students. This vulnerability likely helped build trust with her students, as they realized their ESOL teacher had once faced similar difficulties and could empathize with their struggles. On the other hand, these stories of struggles may have motivated Enna's students. The stories could have reassured the ELLs that encountering challenges in ESOL learning processes was a common scenario among learners. Additionally, Enna's and Deborah's 'success' as former ELLs who became ESOL teachers may have positioned them as role models for their students.

**AL-Learning Tips.** Participants stated that their enacted empathy for their students led them to share AL-learning tips they previously used as AL learners. The following quotes exemplify their enacted empathy for helping their students.

*For example, for pronunciation, I always tell my students how important it is to do connected speech because a lot of students say "I can't understand" when they listen to something. And, I always tell them: "One reason, one very big reason, that you can't understand is because they [i.e., native speakers of English] speak very fast. And when people speak very fast, they always put words together. And, you don't know how to put the words together. Because you don't know it, you would never hear it. So, you should practice how to put words together, how to put sounds together. And, once you know how to do it, you will hear it". [...] I think what really helped me when I was in uni was I always watched [English] movies and I always followed them. I always imitated their pronunciation and intonation to practice [connected speech]. So, I think that was a very good way for myself, and I found it really useful. And, this is also something that I often tell my students now. (Fang, L1s Cantonese & Mandarin / ALs English & Japanese, one-on-one interview)*

*I might sort of say them [i.e., ELLs]: "You got to really go out and, you know, use what we have learned in the classroom. You've got to go out and use it, you know,*

*practice it and make friends”. And they know that I had to do that, that I did that. [...] I’ve had the identical experience, a different culture, a different country, and a different language. I can say it, you know. (chuckles). Yeah. So, I think it’s really been very beneficial. (Lawrence, L1 English / ALs French & Spanish, one-on-one interview)*

The commonality in Fang’s and Lawrence’s excerpts above was how they first reflected on effective learning practices they experienced in their past instructed AL learning (reflective empathy) and then advised their students to do the same (enacted empathy). They also highlighted that drawing from their own experiences as former AL learners enabled them to support their students in their learning journeys and achieve satisfactory learning outcomes. For example, Fang mentioned providing guidance to students who faced challenges in understanding connected discourse in spoken English. While she did not explicitly state that she experienced similar difficulties as a former ELL, her use of the verb ‘*helped*’ suggests that she may have. Fang’s statement implies that, having overcome her struggles and achieved positive learning outcomes, she shared her learning tips in the hope of helping her students.

**Positive Learning Environment.** Participants discussed how their enacted empathy for their students motivated them to foster positive learning environments for the ELLs, as shown in the following extracts.

*What put me off was the method in which it [i.e., Hindi] was taught. [...] Hindi is kind of the national language. It was kind of imposed on us. And [we] South Indians, kind of tend to resent that. [...] As a teacher, I do try my best to make sure that the students feel comfortable in my class, and I always try and make them feel welcomed. Because if they’re not happy, it’s like pouring water down the drain. What’s gonna happen? (Naifa, L1 Malayalam / ALs English & Hindi, one-on-one interview)*

*My [Mandarin-]Chinese teachers, they always set this learning environment that’s so strict and so stiff, you know, you’re not free at all. So, there’s that fear factor. And that’s one thing I really don’t want to happen in my classroom environment. (Catherine, L1s Hokkien & Tagalog / ALs English & Mandarin, one-on-one interview)*

These two excerpts above show how Naifa's and Catherine's negative experiences in learning environments during their past AL learning shaped their enacted empathy for their students. For example, Naifa's use of the verb '*imposed*' indicates that learning Hindi was an unpleasant experience for her as she felt forced into it. While her explanation has political undertones, it also suggests that she perceived her Hindi teachers as not making an effort to create enjoyable Hindi-learning experiences. Reflecting on this experience (reflective empathy), she indicated that she created learning environments that generated pleasant feelings among her students (enacted empathy). Additionally, Naifa's use of the expression '*pouring water down the drain*' implies that she held the perception negative learning environments would likely result in failure for ELLs.

In Catherine's comment above, she used words and phrases like '*strict*', '*stiff*', '*not free at all*', and '*fear factor*' to describe the learning environments her former Mandarin-Chinese teachers created. Catherine's reflection on her negative Mandarin-learning experiences (reflective empathy) prompted her to create ESOL-learning environments that were the opposite of what she had experienced as an AL learner (enacted empathy). Catherine likely created positive learning environments that, for example, made the students feel comfortable asking questions, making mistakes, and sharing their thoughts.

**Mindful Instructional Pacing.** Catherine reported how she applied her empathetic responses to her students by being mindful of her instructional pacing when teaching. Instructional pacing refers to the speech at which ESOL teachers speak and teach. The quote below from the one-on-one interview with Catherine demonstrates her enacted empathy.

*When I was in primary school and stuff, my [Mandarin-Chinese] teachers failed to take [into] account that probably half of the class wasn't understanding enough of what they taught. [...] They did not adjust their teaching in our situation. [...] You know, Asian students [i.e., ELLs], they want to expect more from themselves. So (pause) then I try to adjust [my teaching] a little bit. [...] When I feel that there's a struggle to learn something, then I feel like (pause) I'm able to go down to their [i.e.,*

*ELLs] level and slow down and (pause) these things come because I have more empathy. I have more desire to make them feel that we're journeying together, and I understand them. (Catherine, L1s Hokkien & Tagalog / ALs English & Mandarin, one-on-one interview)*

In this statement, Catherine stated her experiences with her former Mandarin-Chinese teachers, who did not adjust their teaching to her learning needs, contributed to her understanding of effective teaching and her own teaching practices. While her past instructed AL learning likely shaped her enacted empathy for her students, it is important to consider that other learning experiences and TESOL training may have also impacted her teaching practices. Additionally, her use of the adverbial modification ‘*more*’ before ‘*empathy*’ and ‘*desire*’ reflects her self-perceived ability and willingness to better understand her students’ language-learning experiences, especially when compared to former Mandarin-Chinese teachers. Catherine also shared her perception of ESOL learning and teaching as a collaborative journey involving both learners and the teacher.

**Facilitate Learning Based on ELLs’ Personality Traits.** Fang explained how her enacted empathy for her students prompted her to tailor her teaching practices to their individual personality traits. The following extract demonstrates the connection between her past language learning and her empathetic responses to her students.

*When I was a student in university, I was very shy. I was VERY, very shy. I was NEVER willing to open my mouth to talk [in class]. [...] So, both of them [i.e., ELLs paired together in class] were shy, quiet people. [...] I would try to jump in to understand what was going on. And, if it didn't work between these two students, I would usually swap partners so that they can work with someone different. (Fang, L1s Cantonese & Mandarin / ALs English & Japanese, one-on-one interview)*

Fang’s extract above indicates that her enacted empathy for her students derived from her own experiences with shyness as a former ELL, which informed her understanding of how learners’ personality traits could impact their learning behaviors. As illustrated in Fang’s example, she understood that pairwork could be challenging for ELLs who tended to be

nervous or uncomfortable with others. To ensure effective pairwork, Fang adjusted the pairing of her students. While her personality traits as past instructed ESOL-learning experience likely contributed to her enacted empathy for her ELLs, her TESOL training and experiences might have also informed her teaching practices.

#### 5.4 Conclusion

In this main theme, *enhanced empathy for English language learners (ELLs)*, findings related to the relationships between participants' past instructed AL learning and their increased ability to empathize with their students were presented. Two distinct phases of participants' enhanced empathy for ELLs were identified and termed: *reflective empathy* and *enacted empathy*.

The first phase, reflective empathy, involved participants empathizing with their students' experiences through reflecting on their own past instructed AL learning. Participants reported that their experiential knowledge of instructed AL learning enabled them to understand and feel their students' cognitive and emotional perceptions in ways that ESOL teachers without such learning would. Some participants' negative AL-learning experiences, such as their struggles as former AL learners and particular inappropriate reactions of their former AL teachers, contributed to their reflective empathy. Conversely, some participants' positive experiences in AL learning, such as achieving success and having rapport with their former AL teachers, also contributed to their reflective empathy.

The second phase, enacted empathy, involved participants responding empathetically to their students, building on their reflective empathy. Similar to their reflective empathy for ELLs, their enacted empathy was shaped by both positive and negative AL-learning experiences. Participants employed empathetic responses to prevent their students from facing challenges they encountered as former AL learners, ensuring a positive learning

environment and aiding their students in reaching their learning goals. Examples of participants' enacted empathy included providing their students with cautious oral feedback and sharing AL-learning tips that had been helpful to their own learning. Overall, participants concluded that they would not have reached their current level of empathy for ELLs if they had not gone through instructed AL-learning processes.

In conclusion, participants' instructed AL-learning experiences reportedly enhanced their empathy for their students. These experiences allowed them to establish connections with their students based on shared language-learning experiences, occasionally prompting the participants to undertake specific actions to assist the students. A common belief among the participants was that empathy is an important quality for effective ESOL teaching. They also emphasized that this enhanced empathy for ELLs was only possible through experiencing instructed AL-learning processes as former AL learners.

## Chapter Six: Teachers' Perceptions of the TESOL Profession

### 6.1 Introduction

As explained in chapter four (main theme: *past instructed AL learning and its reported impact on ESOL teaching*) and chapter five (main theme: *enhanced empathy for English language learners (ELLs)*), the participants reported that their instructed AL-learning experiences have notably contributed to their TESOL knowledge and teaching practices. However, the third main theme (*teachers' perceptions of the TESOL profession*) presented in this chapter shows that AL-learning experiences, for some teachers, may negatively impact participants' reported professional standing in the profession or at the TESOL-sector level. Some participants' perceptions were that plurilingual teachers, particularly those who learned English as their AL, may well be devalued by employers and other ESOL stakeholders like learners and young learners' parents.

The theme describes and discusses participants' perceptions of the TESOL profession, specifically addressing types of prejudice in international and New Zealand TESOL sectors, particularly the private for-profit sectors, primarily stemming from native-speakerism. Native-speakerism refers to an ideology that perceives native-English-speaking teachers (NESTs) as superior linguistically and pedagogically compared to non-native English-speaking teachers (non-NESTs) (Holliday, 2015, 2017). Findings suggest that while the participants saw clear benefits in their instructed AL-learning experiences (see chapters four and five), such experiences seemed to be regarded as less important compared to other aspects of ESOL teacher identity (i.e., country of origin, L1, accent, and appearance) by the profession. More specifically, it was indicated that ESOL teachers' instructed AL-learning experiences, linguistic identities, and plurilingual competence/repertoire were overlooked in the TESOL sector. That is, ESOL teachers' ALs and their past instructed AL learning were

not usually asked about or documented in the hiring process. These attributes were simply considered to be unimportant.

This main theme, *teachers' perceptions of the TESOL profession*, is divided into three sub-themes with some overlapping elements:

- country of origin and L1 prejudice;
- accent prejudice; and
- appearance prejudice.

In this study, prejudice, which includes discrimination and favoritism, refers to how ESOL teachers are treated and viewed unequally for reasons unrelated to their performance, qualifications, knowledge, and prior experiences in the hiring process and at the workplace. Discrimination is the practice of unfair treatment toward an ESOL teacher or a specific ESOL-teacher population that is different from how ESOL teachers are usually treated (e.g., Mahboob et al., 2004; Moussu, 2006), while favoritism refers to TESOL stakeholders' (e.g., employers, students) practice of giving special treatment to an ESOL teacher or a particular group of ESOL teachers (e.g., Medgyes, 2001; Selvi, 2010). Despite the breadth with which participants from convergent and divergent backgrounds perceived the TESOL profession, it was still possible to categorize and analyze the different types of prejudice reported by the participants. This main theme addresses the third sub-question (SQ3): How do ESOL teachers perceive the impact of their instructed AL-learning experiences on their individual professional standing and the broader TESOL profession? Fang's extract below sums up participants' perceptions of prejudice in the profession.

*I think it [i.e., prejudice] is something that people (pause) like, A LOT of ESOL teachers would have experienced, I think. (Fang, L1s Cantonese & Mandarin / ALs English & Japanese, one-on-one interview)*

In the sub-theme, *citizenship and L1 prejudice*, the participants reported unequal treatment they experienced and/or observed happening to some ESOL teachers in the hiring process and the workplace due to their country of origin and their L1 (6.2). Findings indicate a prevalence for employers, ELLs, and young ELLs' parents to link ESOL teachers' country of origin with their L1s, yet this connection tends not to extend to teachers' AL(s). The participants held the view that the TESOL profession primarily emphasizes only one aspect of teachers' linguistic identity, namely their L1s. Participants' accounts indicate that ESOL teachers with citizenship from Kachru's (1997, 2009; Kachru & Nelson, 2006) inner-circle countries (e.g., the United Kingdom, the United States) were generally favored in international and New Zealand TESOL sectors, particularly the private for-profit sector, due to the common preconception that ESOL teachers from these countries spoke English as their L1, and were, therefore, linguistically and pedagogically competent. That is, the findings show that native-speakerism has led to a perception of the relationship between ESOL teachers' citizenship, L1s, TESOL knowledge, and teaching practices.

Another sub-theme, *accent prejudice*, arose from participants' perceptions concerning how ESOL teachers with different English-speaking accents are perceived and treated by employers and ELLs in the TESOL sector (6.3). An accent refers to the way(s) individuals articulate words or phrases in their language(s) (i.e., L1 and AL), reflecting distinct phonetic attributes and patterns of intonation patterns in their speech (Baratta, 2018; Derwing & Munro, 2005). Participants' reports of their observation of or experiences with accent prejudice, particularly regarding their professional standing within the TESOL profession, suggest that ESOL teachers' non-native accents were associated with potentially less competent teaching. More specifically, participants indicated that stakeholders in the TESOL sector, particularly ELLs, perceived NESTs' English-speaking accents as authentic, suggesting such accents represented a model and goal in ESOL learning. Conversely,

findings show that participants perceived that ESOL teachers who did not have accents from one of Kachru's (1997, 2009; Kachru & Nelson, 2006) inner-circle countries were considered less acceptable in the profession.

The sub-theme, *appearance prejudice*, is concerned with participants' perceptions of unequal treatment faced by ESOL teachers who were not stereotypically European looking, regardless of their teacher knowledge and linguistic identities (6.4). More specifically, participants reported favoritism toward ESOL teachers who had appearances of European descent or passed as 'white', while there often was discrimination against ESOL teachers who did not look 'white'. In this thesis, the term 'white' does not refer to individual ESOL teachers' self-identifications. Rather, it is used as a socially constructed position of status in relation to individuals who have appearances of European descent. Findings show that appearance prejudice in the TESOL profession is rooted in a prevailing assumption associating ESOL teachers' 'whiteness' or 'non-whiteness' with their L1s. This is also presumed to shape their TESOL knowledge and teaching practices. Finally, this chapter ends with a summary and conclusion of this main theme (6.5).

## **6.2 Country of Origin and L1 Prejudice**

In this sub-theme, *country of origin and L1 prejudice*, In this sub-theme, *country of origin and L1 prejudice*, participants reported unfair hiring practices and workplace treatment faced by some ESOL teachers due to the countries they are from and their L1s. The participants reported that the profession often remains entrenched in a native-speakerism mindset that prizes the L1 English status and often fails to consider dimensions of ESOL teacher identity that extend beyond teachers' L1s. The following sub-sections discuss country of origin and L1 prejudice by employers, ELLs, and young ELLs' parents in participants' recollections of their experiences and observations, respectively.

### 6.2.1 *Employers' Country of Origin and L1 Prejudice*

As seen in chapters four and five, the participants highlighted various benefits stemming from their past instructed AL learning, which impacted them as ESOL teachers. However, no evidence in the data shows that ESOL teachers' instructed AL-learning experiences or other languages were asked about or documented in the hiring process. Rather, data suggests that the less-relevant features of teacher identity were privileged over teachers' past instructed AL learning, as participants reported that ESOL teachers' countries of origin and L1s were central to their employment opportunities and circumstances. More specifically, participants' accounts indicate that NESTs from Kachru's (1997, 2000; Kachru & Nelson, 2006) inner-circle countries (e.g., the United Kingdom, the United States) and linguistic identity as L1 speakers of English were perceived to be integral to their preferential hiring and standing in the profession. Below participants who were ESOL teachers with instructed AL-learning experiences, perceived hiring practices and workplace treatment in the TESOL sector.

Marie shared her observations of citizenship and L1 prejudice of some New Zealand-based employers in the private for-profit TESOL sector, as shown in her quote below.

*Well, I haven't been in the industry [i.e., New Zealand private TESOL sector] for long, but long enough to notice that British [ESOL] teachers seem to be (pause) according to employers, like the ideal employees for some reason. (Marie, L1 French / ALs English & Spanish, one-on-one interview)*

Marie observed that ESOL teachers from the United Kingdom were regarded as the favored choice by some employers within the New Zealand private TESOL sector. Although she recognized such preference, her phrasing '*ideal employees for some reason*' shows that she was unclear on the precise reasons behind this preference.

Despite the various advantages gained from learning another language, participants' accounts indicated that country of origin and L1 prejudice by some employers persisted in international private and public TESOL sectors and the New Zealand private for-profit TESOL sector. These employers' prejudice based on ESOL teachers' native countries and speakerhood were exemplified by:

- considering origin from an inner-circle country as an occupational requirement;
- imposing discriminatory pay scales; and
- applying unethical business practices.

Lawrence described how ESOL teachers' citizenship, particularly those from inner-circle countries, was viewed as a nationwide occupational requirement in the public TESOL sector in South Korea, where he worked. The extract illustrates his experience with citizenship and L1 prejudice.

*I had the requirements where (pause) a degree in any discipline and plus coming from a native English (pause) being a native-English speaker. So, I decided to give it [i.e., ESOL teaching] a go for a year [in South Korea]. And, that's really how I started [teaching ESOL].* (Lawrence, L1 English / ALs French & Spanish, one-on-one interview)

Lawrence (above) explained the entry point for NESTs into the South Korean public TESOL sector, often driven by minimal prerequisites, namely being from one of the inner-circle countries, speaking English as their L1, and holding an undergraduate degree. His use of the phrase '*a degree in any discipline*' suggests that any academic background was perceived as suitable for ESOL teaching in the sector. Furthermore, the subsequent emphasis on '*being a native-English speaker*' accentuates how English as L1 was a key requirement in the process. However, Lawrence did not mention any occupational prerequisites related to TESOL training, which he lacked back then. Furthermore, there was the absence of any allusion to requirements regarding ESOL teachers' AL proficiency or prior instructed AL-

learning experiences during the hiring process, despite his prior learning of French and his perceptions of the benefits of such learning experiences (e.g., language awareness and enhanced empathy for ELLs, as discussed in chapters four and five). Lawrence's recount suggests the deeply-held preconception of the connection between being originally from an inner-circle country, speaking English as one's L1, having TESOL knowledge, and possessing the skills for effective ESOL teaching. At the same time, his account underscores the lack of value placed on ESOL teachers' past instructed AL learning and ALs within the South Korean public TESOL sector.

Participants reported discriminatory pay scales that involved some ESOL teachers being paid differently based on their citizenship and L1s. In this study, discriminatory pay scales refer to employers paying ESOL teachers less or more for reasons unrelated to their teacher knowledge (including qualifications) and teaching practices in the workplace, which, in this case, is based merely on where teachers were from and their native language(s). The participants and their observations of non-NESTs with plurilingual competence have faced pay discrimination in international and New Zealand private for-profit TESOL sectors. The practice of discriminatory pay scales is described in the following excerpts.

*In the Philippines, there's more discrimination [in the ESOL sector], and unfortunately, it's discriminating against Filipinos [i.e., Filipino ESOL teachers]. [...] In the Philippines, I did have the experience of being in a Korean-owned language center where if you were American [...] and you were teaching in their language school, you will DEFINITELY get a higher rate [than Filipino ESOL teachers]. And they [i.e., the employer] would prioritize you, give you more incentives, and that was like (pause) openly. (Catherine, L1s Hokkien & Tagalog / ALs English & Mandarin, one-on-one interview)*

*I work with a Korean [ESOL] teacher who is the most hard-working person I've ever met in my life. And he does way more than his job description says he should, and he's not complaining about anything. Nevertheless, my employer doesn't want to reward that hard work. I've seen, you know, native-English speakers [i.e., NESTs] starting after him, doing a lot less, but being (pause) you know, more rewarded and*

*getting more money.* (Marie, L1 French / ALs English & Spanish, one-on-one interview)

Catherine and Marie (above) spoke about employers imposing discriminatory pay scales that involved paying NESTs more than non-NESTs merely due to their countries and L1s and not their knowledge and teaching practices as ESOL teachers. Catherine reported a contrast in pay rates between American ESOL teachers and their Filipino counterparts at a Korean-owned language school in the Filipino private TESOL sector. Through her perspective, this disparity in compensation highlights a trend where individual teachers' citizenship and L1 impact financial reward, overshadowing other aspects of their teacher knowledge (e.g., experiential knowledge in instructed AL learning, linguistic repertoires). That is, despite Catherine's view on the advantages of learning another language (e.g., experiential knowledge of instructed AL learning and enhanced empathy, as discussed in chapters four and five), she perceived her former Korean employer's imposed discriminatory pay scales as an indication of their unappreciation of Filipino teachers' linguistic identities.

In Marie's account (above), she reported a pay gap between her Korean colleague, whom she perceived as dedicated and diligent (i.e., *'the most hard-working person I've ever met in my life'*), and other ESOL teachers from inner-circle countries. Based on her observations, this pay gap was notable even though the NESTs were not demonstrating the same level of commitment as her Korean colleague, suggesting that the NESTs were favored merely due to their countries of origin and speakerhood as native speakers of English. Marie's description of this disparity based on one aspect of ESOL teachers' linguistic identity (i.e., their L1s) raises questions about the professional standing of other factors (e.g., teachers' language awareness, enhanced empathy) that she discussed in chapters four and five.

Employers' unethical business practices that emanate from their country of origin and L1 prejudice were also described in the data. Additionally, participants' descriptions of these

practices suggest that they perceived non-NESTs' experiences as former ELLs and plurilingual competence to be undervalued in international and New Zealand private for-profit TESOL sectors, as shown in the following:

*So, right now, with where I'm working [in New Zealand] (pause) um (pause) I'm supposed to adopt this (pause) you know, American persona. (chuckles) So, I'm supposedly half American. (chuckles) [...] So, [the employer] goes like: "Bernice [pseudonym], if you're able to teach, maybe you should be American". And, it wasn't (pause) um (pause) it wasn't just a suggestion. It was very strongly enforced on me, like, you know: "You've got to be [American] because we're going to get complaints". It was like, start off. [...] It's a marketing thing. (Bernice, L1 Tagalog / AL English, focus-group discussion)*

*The students would just start asking me like: "Oh, where are you from?" I said, "I'm from here [i.e., China]". "Oh, really? Because [the school] told us that all the teachers are NOT from here [i.e., from an English-speaking country]". (chuckles) I said: "Yeah, I'm from here [i.e., China]". (Enna, L1s Cantonese & Mandarin / AL English, focus-group discussion)*

The accounts above underscore how the participants perceived the ways the NEST identity has become intertwined with marketability and expectations in international and New Zealand private TESOL sectors. The extracts also indicate a complex web of misrepresentations, highlighting the challenges that ESOL teachers lacking citizenship from inner-circle countries or English as their L1 must navigate to secure positions (as seen in Bernice's quote) and maintain credibility (as exemplified by Enna) despite having ESOL-teaching qualifications, ESOL-teaching experiences, and past instructed AL learning.

Bernice (above) reported her employment situation and interpreted her employer's requirement as an expectation imposed on her to conceal her Filipino origin and linguistic identity (i.e., '*strongly enforced*'), which involved her assuming an American identity. Her recollection of the situation also implies that she complied with her employer's demand to stay employed. Her chuckle following her confession about the false identity (i.e., '*American persona*') could indicate a sense of irony, discomfort, guilt, and embarrassment. Furthermore,

the chuckle may imply that she perceived the absurdity of the expectation considering her actual identity, which encompasses her teacher knowledge and linguistic identity.

Nonetheless, Bernice indicated that she understood her employer's demand came from a business-oriented perspective backed by the fear of student complaints.

Enna (above) recounted her experience with prejudice based on ESOL teachers' countries of origin and native language(s), which involved her realizing that her former employer in China had been deliberately falsely advertising their ESOL teachers' origins. Her account perpetuates how local (i.e., Chinese) ESOL teachers and non-local ESOL teachers (i.e., NESTs) are perceived in the TESOL profession. Enna's affirmation as a local ESOL teacher (i.e., *'I'm from here'*) plays a role in dismantling the narrative that her former employer promoted. Furthermore, her chuckle at the discrepancy between her response and the school's promotions of their teachers as NESTs seems to illustrate that Enna had perhaps perceived her former employer's narrative with a sense of resignation. That is, her chuckle seems to have come from an uncomfortable rather than an amusing memory. Enna may have felt uneasy for several reasons, including a reluctance to be associated with unethical business practices. Additionally, she could have felt that her identity as a Chinese ESOL teacher and a former ELL was not valued by her former employer in China. This feeling perhaps persisted even though Enna recognized how her past instructed AL-learning experiences had positively impacted her teacher identity (e.g., language awareness and enhanced empathy for ELLs, as discussed in chapters four and five).

Of particular interest was how members of one of the focus groups reacted to and perceived Bernice's recount of her experience with country of origin and L1 prejudice in the New Zealand private for-profit TESOL sector, as shown in the excerpt below.

*Bernice: And the thing is, I can't just use my qualifications and my experiences, which I have heaps of.*

- Deborah: *Yeah, yeah.*
- Bernice: *And that's not enough. It's like saying you have to be somebody else*
- Catherine: *Oh, yes. That's really sad.*
- Enna: *That's so sad.*
- Fang: *Yeah.*
- Bernice: *to be seen as a credible teacher.*
- Fang: *Yeah.*
- Deborah: *That's ridiculous!*
- Enna: *That's so sad.*
- Bernice: *That's sad, and I hate it. I HATE it.*
- Catherine: *I think it's the non-native [English-speaking school] owners who (pause) whose mindset we need to change.*
- Fang: *Yeah.*
- Bernice: *It's not the students.*
- Fang: *Yeah.*
- Catherine: *It's not the students because they [i.e., school managers/owners] have the power to actually (pause)*
- Fang: *It's like telling me to lie to my students that I'm not Chinese. I AM Chinese.*
- Catherine: *I know!*
- Enna: *Yeah.*

In this conversation (above) among non-NESTs Bernice, Deborah, Catherine, Enna, and Fang, Bernice's initial remark highlights her frustration regarding how her qualifications and experiences had no impact on her professional standing within the profession. She likened the request to be someone else to a sad reality, emphasizing the discomfort of feeling the need to adopt an identity that was not genuine to her, suggesting that her Filipino identity (including her linguistic identity) was inferior to an American one. The subsequent agreement from Catherine, Enna, and Fang underscores the shared sentiment of sadness and frustration. Bernice's assertion that she loathed her employer's discriminatory practices further conveys how such identity expectations were the only way she could be seen as a credible ESOL teacher. That is, from her perspective, the request to take on a false American identity overshadowed the main aspects of her teacher identity, such as her teacher knowledge, plurilingual competence, and experiential knowledge in instructed AL learning.

Catherine (above) introduced the idea of shifting the mindset of non-native English-speaking language school owners, suggesting that their perspectives are influential in perpetuating prejudice against ESOL teachers based on their native countries and language(s). The acknowledgment that ELLs are not to blame but rather the school owners who hold power reflects her awareness of the systemic nature of the issue.

However, despite some participants' experiences and observations of employers' citizenship and L1 prejudice, as those discussed above, others indicated that they had not been through such prejudice from employers in New Zealand's public and private TESOL sectors. Participants shared their experiences in the comments below.

*I haven't really encountered any discrimination [from employers] myself here in New Zealand. [...] I haven't heard anyone saying negative things about me because I'm not a native speaker [of English].* (Fang, L1s Cantonese & Mandarin / ALs English & Japanese, one-on-one interview)

*Basically, I don't really have a lot of experience being discriminated [against] here [i.e., New Zealand]. [...] I quite like the New Zealand high school system. They wouldn't mind where you're from. They just look at your qualifications. So, that part, I feel like: "Oh, this is great".* (Enna, L1s Cantonese & Mandarin / AL English, one-on-one interview)

As can be seen in the extracts above, neither Fang, who worked in the private for-profit TESOL sector, nor Enna, who worked in the public TESOL sector, had experienced citizenship and L1 prejudice by New Zealand-based employers. Fang's quote reflects her positive outlook on her experience as a non-NEST in New Zealand and the New Zealand TESOL sector. She emphasized that she had not encountered prejudice from employers due to her Chinese citizenship and linguistic identity. Fang's perception indicates that her TESOL knowledge and teaching practices were valued. Although she spoke about the advantages of her ESOL-learning experience and plurilingual competence (see chapters four and five), it remains unclear whether her other language languages (i.e., Mandarin, Cantonese, and Japanese) existed in the classroom.

Enna's account above also expresses a favorable view of her ESOL-teaching experience as a non-NEST in New Zealand. She described not having significant encounters with prejudice in the country's high school system. Enna appreciated the meritocratic approach of the New Zealand education system, where ESOL teachers' qualifications were prioritized over their citizenship and L1(s). However, despite discussing the benefits of her past instructed ESOL learning and her plurilingual competence (as discussed in chapters four and five), it remains ambiguous whether her other languages (i.e., Mandarin and Cantonese) impacted how she was perceived in the sector.

### **6.2.2 English Language Learners' (ELLs') Country of Origin and L1 Prejudice**

Participants also reported their perceptions of country of origin and L1 prejudice from some ELLs in international and New Zealand private for-profit TESOL sectors. Data show that the participants perceived this prejudice to stem from the fallacy that ESOL teachers from inner-circle countries were linguistically and pedagogically superior to non-NESTs. Jasmin's comment below sums up her perception of how NESTs and non-NESTs are perceived differently in her home country, Iran.

*In my country [i.e., Iran], students [i.e., ELLs] trust native speakers [i.e., NESTs] more than others. [...] They [i.e., ELLs] think the natives [i.e., NESTs] (pause) they know better, and they can teach better, then, like more knowledgeable than those who are not native speakers. I think this is still true in most countries. I can say even in my country, it's still a challenge [for non-NESTs]. They [i.e., ELLs] feel that they should go to a native-speaker teacher. (Jasmin, L1 Farsi / AL English, one-on-one interview)*

Jasmin (above) shared her view on how ELLs tended to hold NESTs in higher regard, perceiving them as possessing superior teaching practices due to these teachers' linguistic identity as L1 speakers of English. Although she did not explain how she came to this conclusion, I assume it may have derived from her experiences as a former ELL in Iran. Through her perception as a non-NEST who understood the various benefits of instructed

AL-learning experiences (e.g., experiential knowledge of instructed AL learning and enhanced empathy for ELLs, as discussed in chapters four and five), Jasmin conveyed that such prejudice could negatively impact non-NESTs' confidence levels as teachers.

Participants also reported observing some ELLs' prejudicial behaviors toward ESOL teachers' native countries and languages. Analysis shows that the participants interpreted some ELLs' complaints and criticism against non-NESTs as indicative of these students' citizenship and L1 prejudice, as illustrated in the following quotes.

*We would sometimes get (pause) um (pause) not really complaints, but they [i.e., ELLs] would say: "Yeah, I like Fang [pseudonym]. I know she is a good teacher. She teaches really well, but we just want a foreign teacher". [...] I've only gotten complaints from Chinese students because I'm Chinese (pause) in both China and New Zealand. (chuckles) (Fang, L1s Cantonese & Mandarin / ALs English & Japanese, focus-group discussion)*

*We had a non-native English-speaking teacher at [private language school name omitted] a while back, actually. She spoke basically flawless English and was teaching a very low-level student. And he [i.e., the ELL] was like: "You're not American. You can't be a good teacher". (Gregory, L1 English / ALs Japanese & Spanish, focus-group discussion)*

Fang (above) described an incident where Chinese ELLs expressed a preference for NESTs, even though they acknowledged her effective teaching practices. Although the phrase '*a foreign teacher*' in the extract could mean anyone who was not from China, it most likely refers to an ESOL teacher from one of the inner-circle countries. Fang's quote indicates that her past instructed AL learning may have positively impacted her ESOL teaching. However, some ELLs' requests suggest that her instructed AL-learning experiences and her identity as a successful English language learner had no impact on her professional standing in the TESOL sector.

Gregory (above) recounted an incident in which a non-NEST with excellent English proficiency (i.e., '*flawless English*'), in his opinion, faced issues of county of origin and L1

prejudice. This situation arose when an ELL doubted the teacher's effectiveness as an ESOL teacher due to her non-American identity. Gregory's statement indicates that he interpreted the ELL's comment as an attempt to undermine the non-NEST teacher. Moreover, the quote sheds light on his perception of the importance of ESOL teachers' English language proficiency over native-speaker status.

Although some participants reported experiencing and witnessing country of origin and L1 prejudice by ELLs, Jasmin and Naifa stated that they had never encountered such prejudice in New Zealand's private and tertiary TESOL sectors. The following are their comments.

*I've never had the experience of students [i.e., ELLs] [in New Zealand] saying: "We don't want her to teach us". I've never had the experience, but I think, yeah, because the [ELLs'] mindset is okay. (Jasmin, L1 Farsi / AL English, one-on-one interview)*

*I haven't had students [i.e., ELLs] [in New Zealand] who have complained to say that: "Oh, we can't have Naifa [pseudonym] as the teacher because she's Indian". Not saying that it will never happen. But it hasn't happened yet. (Naifa, L1 Malayalam / ALs English & Hindi, one-on-one interview)*

The quotes above highlight how Jasmin and Naifa perceived a positive perception of diversity and inclusion of different linguistic identities of ESOL teachers in the sector. Jasmin claimed that she had not encountered any instances where ELLs in New Zealand rejected her as their ESOL teacher based on where she was from and her L1. She attributed this lack of prejudice to the positive outlook of ELLs (i.e., '*mindset is okay*'). Similarly, Naifa noted that she had yet to encounter any ELLs who complained about having her as their ESOL teacher due to her Indian origin and linguistic identity. While she acknowledged the absence of such complaints, she tempered this observation by stating that prejudice against her country of origin and native language might still occur in the future.

Jasmin and Isabella explained their understanding of learners' wanting to learn English from NESTs. The comments below illustrate their perspectives.

*I understand the students [i.e., ELLs] [...] For example, if I want to learn Spanish, I think a [native] Spanish speaker is better than someone who speaks Spanish [as an AL] (pause) like (pause) bilingual speaking English and Spanish. (Jasmin, L1 Farsi / AL English, one-on-one interview)*

*Of course, if I learn [Mandarin-]Chinese, I want to learn it from a Chinese. I don't want to learn it from another New Zealander. (Isabella, L1 English / AL French, focus-group discussion)*

The extracts above underline Jasmin's and Isabella's perceptions that learning from native speakers had perceived advantages. In Jasmin's account, she drew a parallel between her understanding of ELLs and her own preferences as an AL learner. Despite understanding the advantages of ESOL teachers' past instructed AL learning (e.g., experiential knowledge of instructed AL learning and enhanced empathy, as discussed in chapters four and five), she stated that she could comprehend why ELLs focused on teachers' L1(s). Similarly, Isabella's statement (above) reinforces the sentiment of ELLs' preference for NESTs from a personal perspective. She conveyed her view by offering the example of learning Mandarin-Chinese and asserted that she would prefer to learn the language from a native Mandarin speaker rather than a fellow New Zealander. Nonetheless, it was interesting to hear Jasmin and Isabella only focus on AL teachers' L1s and not mention teachers' teacher knowledge or teaching practices, suggesting that they might have prioritized teachers' native-speaking fluency over other aspects of teacher identity. Their reflections indicate their empathy and understanding of learners' preferences based on their own AL-learning expectations.

### 6.2.3 *Young English Language Learners' (ELLs') Parents' Country of Origin and L1 Prejudice*

Analysis shows that Enna, one of the participants, perceived that the parents of some young ELLs associated ESOL teachers' countries of origin with their English proficiency levels. The extract below exemplifies her perceptions of these parents' prejudice in China's private for-profit TESOL sector.

*I think [ELLs'] parents don't trust Chinese [ESOL] teachers. They don't think their [i.e., Chinese ESOL teachers'] English is good enough. (Enna, L1s Cantonese & Mandarin / AL English, one-on-one interview)*

In the quote above, Enna shared her perception regarding the lack of trust that some parents of young ELLs have toward Chinese ESOL teachers. She reported that she felt that these parents held doubts about the English proficiency levels of Chinese ESOL teachers. This perception implies that these teachers' identities as former ELLs who had successfully learned the language had no impact on their professional standing in the eyes of ELLs' parents.

## 6.3 **Accent Prejudice**

This sub-theme, *accent prejudice*, collects participants' descriptions and interpretations of discriminatory perceptions and treatment faced by some ESOL teachers due to their English-speaking accents. As noted previously, an accent pertains to how individuals pronounce words or phrases in the language(s) they speak (L1 and AL), reflecting phonetic characteristics and intonation patterns in their speech (Baratta, 2018; Derwing & Munro, 2005). Furthermore, individuals' accents in their AL(s) are often impacted by their L1s and, in many cases, their countries of origin. Participants noted that accent prejudice was evident in both the international and New Zealand public and private TESOL sectors. Such prejudice

often emanated from specific stakeholders in the sectors, notably employers and ELLs. More specifically, the analysis shows that the participants held the perception that the English accents of ESOL teachers from inner-circle countries, such as the United Kingdom and the United States, were generally preferred.

### **6.3.1 Employers' Accent Prejudice**

Participants reported their perceptions regarding accent prejudice held by some employers in both public and private TESOL sectors in New Zealand and other countries. Such prejudice was manifest in a general inclination for ESOL teachers with English accents from inner-circle countries.

One participant, Deborah, provided insight into a discriminatory aspect of the hiring process for ESOL teachers, specifically related to accent prejudice. The excerpt below exemplifies her perception.

*Because having been a DPHR, [deputy principal] human resources, you get your applications for your [ESOL-teaching] jobs, and you look at the name. And, you think: "Now, will the students [i.e., ELLs] be able to understand this teacher?" And, yes, from that point of view, there is discrimination. (Deborah, L1 Dutch / ALs English, French, & German, one-on-one interview)*

In Deborah's account above, she said that as a Deputy Principal of Human Resources, she evaluated the applications based on teachers' names and perceived English accents. She explained that she would look at the applicants' names and consider whether ELLs could understand the teacher. Deborah's experiences as a language learner could have impacted her viewpoint, as she may have faced challenges during her AL-learning journey where she struggled to understand her former AL teachers.

Although not directly linked to the reported impact of the participants' past instructed AL learning, they shared their perspectives on some employers' accent prejudice and how

ESOL teachers' English accents impact their professional standing in the sector. Participants suggested that accent prejudice arose from two factors: the authenticity of an accent and the popularity of an accent, as shown in the extracts below.

*The fact that, yeah, their [i.e., British ESOL teachers'] accent is BELIEVED to be proper. And I think the idea of, you know, coming from Britain just seems to sound good to them [i.e., New Zealand employers]. (Marie, L1 French / ALs English & Spanish, one-on-one interview).*

*I did feel particularly in [South] Korea, which was a little bit more Americanized, was the sense of North American accents was very dominant. And I was (pause) I did feel like I was pushed down the ladder a little bit because I was a New Zealander. And there are certain places that actually only accept North American accents. So I did feel (pause) I did feel a bit like that. (Lawrence, L1 English / ALs French & Spanish, one-on-one interview)*

Both statements above showcase how ESOL teachers' English accents were intertwined with notions of linguistic prestige and professional hierarchies. Marie observed how some New Zealand-based employers in the TESOL sector perceive British English accents as accurate. This perception might have stemmed from historical associations with British English as a standard for correctness. On the other hand, Lawrence's account derived from his challenges as a New Zealander in South Korea. Although Lawrence was a New Zealander and spoke English as his L1 (see 6.2 for country of origin and L1 prejudice), he stated that employers in the South Korean TESOL sector had an overall preference for North American accents due to the country's Americanization. His extract also implies that his New Zealand accent was still somewhat privileged in the South Korean TESOL sector as he was not far from the North American accents on the hierarchical structure. However, where other English accents are positioned on the hierarchical structure remains unclear. Interestingly, neither Marie nor Lawrence addressed teacher knowledge or facets of teacher linguistic identity beyond accents. This highlights that in the participants' perceptions, less relevant

aspects of teacher identity were given more prominence in the TESOL sector than, for instance, teachers' instructed AL-learning experiences.

### **6.3.2 *English Language Learners' (ELLs') Accent Prejudice***

Through the participants' perceptions of the TESOL profession, they concluded that some ELLs favored accents of ESOL teachers from inner-circle countries. However, since participants did not specify the TESOL sector or countries where they observed such favoritism, their conclusions may have been impacted by their overall past instructed AL learning and ESOL-teaching experiences. Jasmin shared her perception that ELLs did not approve of the accents of ESOL teachers who spoke English as their AL, as exemplified in the extract below.

*Yeah, definitely for students [i.e., ELLs], I think [non-native] accents are not acceptable. They think the native speakers [i.e., NESTs] know better and they can teach better. (Jasmin, L1 Farsi / AL English, one-on-one interview)*

In the excerpt above, Jasmin spoke about what she perceived as accent prejudice from ELLs. Her perception may have stemmed from her experience as a former ELL, in which she might have encountered situations where NESTs were often regarded as superior teachers. Jasmin's experience might have contributed to her understanding of how learners perceived ESOL teachers' accents, leading her to believe that non-NESTs' accents are not as readily accepted by ELLs. On the other hand, Jasmin might have also observed ELLs exhibiting a preference for NESTs' English accents due to the presumed linguistic authority of these teachers. Her account suggests that although non-NESTs are successful learners of the English language, this achievement does not impact their professional standing in the sector.

Through participants' perspectives, it was suggested that ELLs' accent prejudice resulted from their goal to learn what they perceived as 'standard English' from inner-circle

countries. The excerpts below demonstrate the participants' perceptions of some ELLs' accent prejudice.

*Well, I think students [i.e., ELLs] want to have the accent as close to (pause) native speakers [of English].* (Isabella, L1 English / AL French, focus-group discussion)

*Every student [i.e., ELL], he or she has a preferred accent (pause) I feel so. Like my Korean students in the Philippines, they said "I'd like to have the American accent". They were very specific. I think most Asian students are really looking for a certain kind of (pause) because they want to sound authentic, right?* (Catherine, L1s Hokkien & Tagalog / ALs English & Mandarin, one-on-one interview)

Both participant statements (above) emphasize the significance of accents in instructed AL learning, driven by ELLs' desires to emulate native-like English accents. Isabella's insight likely stemmed from her past instructed AL learning, during which she gained firsthand experience learning French in both New Zealand and France. Through her comprehensive language-learning journey, her understanding of how language learners perceived accents illuminates her awareness of ELLs' inclination towards near-native English accents in their pursuit of English language proficiency. In a comparable manner, Catherine conveyed her understanding of ELLs' aspirations to learn accents akin to native English speakers. Her observation provides a specific context involving Asian ELLs, particularly learners from South Korea. As a former Asian ELL, Catherine's account perhaps reflects the aspirations of Asian ELLs to learn accents that were considered accurate (i.e., '*authentic*'), like American accents.

#### **6.4 Appearance Prejudice**

This sub-theme, *appearance prejudice*, explains participants' perceptions of the different treatment ESOL teachers received based on the ways they looked. In this study, appearance prejudice refers to favoritism toward and discrimination against ESOL teachers with the features of particular ethnicities (e.g., European, Middle Eastern, and East Asian).

Participants concluded that ESOL teachers with stereotypical European or ‘white’ looks were generally preferred by employers, ELLs, and young ELLs’ parents in international and New Zealand TESOL sectors, particularly the for-profit sectors, regardless of these teachers’ teacher knowledge and linguistic identities. As noted previously, the term ‘white’ is used as a socially constructed position of ESOL teachers who have appearances of European descent. Such social construct is also evident in the TESOL sector, as English has traditionally been constructed as the possession of ‘white’ NESTs.

#### **6.4.1 Employers’ Appearance Prejudice**

Participants reported what they perceived as some employers’ appearance prejudice toward ESOL teachers. They claimed that such prejudice was prominent in the TESOL sector, where ‘white’ ESOL teachers were generally preferred. Participants’ comments below provide an overview of their perceptions of the preference for ‘white’ ESOL teachers in international public and private TESOL sectors.

*Of course, [employers in South Korea] have their hierarchy [in their hiring practice], and the white man is above most, you know, when it comes to that. And also, the association with what is considered a native-English speaker, and that’s like a white face. (Lawrence, L1 English / ALs French & Spanish, one-on-one interview)*

*The Filipino ESOL teachers are viewed as less than Caucasians [i.e., whites] [by employers in the Philippines]. (Catherine, L1s Hokkien & Tagalog / ALs English & Mandarin, one-on-one interview)*

Lawrence and Catherine (above) highlighted their perception of what they saw as appearance prejudice that tended to favor white ESOL teachers, resulting in unfair hiring practices and employment conditions. Lawrence described his observation of a system in which ESOL teachers in South Korea were placed at various ranks (i.e., ‘hierarchy’) according to their appearances by associating white teachers with being native English speakers. The juxtaposition of his earlier point in 6.2.1 about being from an inner-circle

country being a requirement for TESOL employment in South Korea's public TESOL sector and his current discussion about appearance prejudice suggests that his past instructed AL learning had not impacted his professional role in the sector. Similarly, Catherine noted her observation regarding the prioritization of ESOL teachers' appearances over other aspects of teacher identity (e.g., teacher knowledge, teaching practices) in hiring practices. As she elucidated in chapters four and five, ESOL teachers' instructed AL-learning experiences contribute to their teacher knowledge and teaching practices. However, her observation of the marginalization of Filipino ESOL teachers suggests that the past instructed AL learning of these teachers seemingly bore no consequence on their professional standing in the TESOL sector.

From an employer's perspective, Oliver reported what he perceived as appearance prejudice in the New Zealand private for-profit TESOL sector, indicating that such prejudice stemmed from business considerations.

*Of course, for marketing more often (pause) as a Director of Studies (pause) we [i.e., the school] sort of want students [i.e., potential ELLs] to see that side of (pause) that kind of image [i.e., white NESTs]. (Oliver, L1 English / ALs Japanese & Mandarin, one-on-one interview)*

In Oliver's account (above), he acknowledged the role of marketing and how, as a Director of Studies, there was an inclination to present a specific image to ELLs, often associated with white NESTs. This implies a preference for white teachers in the hiring process due to perceived marketing advantages linked to their appearances. As Oliver explained aspects of marketing measures at his school, he paused several times. The pauses perhaps indicate Oliver's cautiousness of his involvement in these business considerations, which revolved around this non-relevant feature of teacher identity (i.e., white appearance). Furthermore, as he had previously spoken about the advantages of ESOL teachers with past instructed AL learning (e.g., language awareness and enhanced empathy for ELLs, as

discussed in chapters four and five), he perhaps realized that such learning held no impact on teachers' professional status in the sector.

Enna shared her perception of some employers' appearance prejudice in China's private TESOL sector. The comments below exemplify her perspective.

*Of course, a white American [ESOL teacher] has a higher chance of getting hired than a Chinese American [in China]. (Enna, L1s Cantonese & Mandarin / AL English, one-on-one interview)*

*So, he [i.e., a former colleague] is Filipino, but he moved to Canada many years ago when he was really young. So, he's got the [teaching] qualification from Canada and he speaks perfect English. He is like a native speaker, but he got turned down by a few [ESOL-teaching] jobs [in China] because they [i.e., employers] just said: "Oh, you don't LOOK American". (chuckles) (Enna, L1s Cantonese & Mandarin / AL English, one-on-one interview)*

In both accounts (above), Enna spoke about how she felt that appearance prejudice played a significant role in hiring decisions in the Chinese private TESOL sector. She affirmed that a white American ESOL teacher was more likely to be hired than a Chinese-American teacher in China, even though both had citizenship from an inner-circle country and spoke English as their L1 (see 6.2 for citizenship and L1 prejudice). Moreover, the statement suggests that Enna held the view that Chinese employers did not prioritize pertinent aspects of teacher identity, like teacher knowledge and teaching practices, compared to the appearances of ESOL teachers. She also shared an anecdote about a former colleague who was Filipino and moved to Canada at a young age. Despite having teaching qualifications from Canada and having near-native English proficiency, he was rejected from some ESOL teaching jobs in China. Enna perceived that the grounds for the rejection were not linked to factors like her former colleague's TESOL knowledge, linguistic identity, or other qualifications. Instead, the rejection was merely due to his Asian appearance, even though he may have had the advantages she discussed in chapters four and five (e.g., language awareness and enhanced empathy for ELLs) stemming from his plurilingual competence.

While not directly related to the reported impact of the participants' instructed AL-learning experiences, their accounts of perceived appearance prejudice confirm the aforementioned perception that some employers prioritized ESOL teachers' appearances over their teacher knowledge and teaching practices. The following excerpts are the participants' descriptions and interpretations of their experiences with such prejudice in international and New Zealand private for-profit TESOL sectors.

*Like, we [Filipino ESOL teachers] are not prioritized just because (pause) um (pause) yeah, of the skin color. Because there was one guy who was half [white] American [and half Filipino] but did not have the proper background [i.e., qualifications]. He didn't go to any university or any [TESOL] training, but he was in that [higher] status just because he looked Caucasian [i.e., white] (pause) a bit Caucasian. [...] And the owners (pause) the Korean owners actually favored him. He got better pay. He could negotiate and stuff. But, you know, Filipinos are used to being treated that way. (Catherine, L1s Hokkien & Tagalog / ALs English & Mandarin, focus-group discussion)*

*I had been relieving for them [a New Zealand-based language school] for a couple of months. [...] And [the employer] comes in and introduces this blond guy, and I go like (sighs) And she's already introducing him, like: "He's going to be the teacher teaching this class". So, that means like, essentially, she's telling me indirectly, like: "You're out of the picture". Which did happen the next week. I didn't get a call to do relieving because he took over that class. So, that's why I'm like: "Really? I got 13 years of [ESOL-teaching] experience!" (chuckles) And, you know, I did sniff around. And I did ask the guy, and he just got out of CELTA. (Bernice, L1 Tagalog / AL English, focus-group discussion)*

Catherine's and Bernice's accounts above underscore how non-white ESOL teachers faced appearance prejudice despite their qualifications and experience, while white ESOL teachers often being favored even when they were less qualified with less teaching experience. Catherine highlighted the experience of Filipino ESOL teachers facing deprioritization based on their appearances. She reported a case where a half-white-American, half-Filipino teacher with inadequate qualifications was placed in a higher status solely due to his appearance resembling a white person. The favoritism shown by the Korean owners toward him, leading to better pay and negotiation privileges, highlights how appearance

prejudice was not just perception but also treatment. Bernice shared her experience of being replaced by a blond, presumably white, ESOL teacher despite her extensive 13 years of TESOL experience. She interpreted the incident as an indication of how the white ESOL teacher's appearance overshadowed her qualifications and experience. Through Bernice's perspective, the incident, where a new teacher had just completed a CELTA course, shows the employer's preference for appearance over teacher knowledge and teaching practices.

#### **6.4.2 English Language Learners' (ELLs') Appearance Prejudice**

Participants reported their perceptions of some ELLs' appearance prejudice in public and private TESOL sectors in New Zealand and other countries. They indicated an overall preference for 'white' ESOL teachers. Participants' recollections of their experiences suggest that they held the view that ELLs showed their appearance prejudice in two different ways: through requests for 'white' ESOL teachers; and complaints against 'non-white' ESOL teachers.

Deborah discussed her observation of some ELLs' requests for white ESOL teachers, a phenomenon she perceived as indicative of appearance bias.

*I think maybe some students would think that learning English from a teacher who looks Chinese might not be okay. [...] I remember someone saying: "Oh, they [i.e., ELLs] want a blond teacher". Or "They want a white teacher". [...] I guess because I LOOK European and, therefore, they [i.e., ELLs] probably think of me as an ordinary New Zealander. They won't know that [I was an ELL]. It's to do with the look. (Deborah, L1 Dutch / ALs English, French, & German, one-on-one interview)*

In the extract above, Deborah stated that some ELLs might have believed that learning English from a Chinese-looking ESOL teacher may not have been desirable while learning from a white ESOL teacher was. She then mentioned her appearance, noting that her white appearance might have led ELLs to consider her a NEST rather than recognizing her as someone who also went through the process of learning English as an AL. Deborah's account

suggests that her identity as a former ELL had no impact on her teacher identity in the TESOL sector.

Participants recounted instances where some ELLs in international and New Zealand private TESOL sectors complained about ESOL teachers who were not perceived as white. They saw these complaints as manifestations of appearance prejudice.

*We have had complaints [from ELLs] about [ESOL] teachers who don't look like locals [i.e., New Zealanders]. (Oliver, L1 English / ALs Japanese & Mandarin, one-on-one interview)*

*I think it's hard for people of (pause) you know, a different ethnicity [i.e., non-white] who are English native speakers because they DO get a degree of prejudice and not accepted by the students [i.e., ELLs] as (pause) being as professional as they are because of how they look (pause) the color of their skin. [...] I've had a lot of cases of students coming to see me when I've been a Director of Studies or a Principal complaining that their teacher's not a native speaker. Um (pause) and that's including [ESOL teachers who are] Korean-Australians (chuckles) and Taiwanese-New Zealanders who are native speakers. (Hunter, L1 English / ALs French & Japanese, focus-group discussion)*

Oliver's and Hunter's accounts above indicate that some ELLs judged their ESOL teachers merely based on the teachers' appearances. In Oliver's role as a Director of Studies (as discussed in 6.4.1), he mentioned that he had encountered complaints from ELLs because they held preconceived notions about the appearance that a New Zealander should have. Similarly, Hunter discussed challenges faced by non-white ESOL teachers due to some ELLs' appearance prejudice. He noted that these teachers often encountered prejudice, leading ELLs to question their professionalism. Hunter highlighted that he had observed instances where ESOL teachers from inner-circle countries and had English as their L1 (also see 6.2 for country of origin and L1 prejudice) faced complaints solely because they were not white. His statement suggests that he held the view that ESOL teachers' appearances took precedence over their TESOL knowledge and teaching practices. Furthermore, the examples of the ESOL teachers that Hunter provided (i.e., 'Korean-Australians' and 'Taiwanese-New Zealanders')

likely imply plurilingual linguistic identities. His statement suggests that he perceived ESOL teachers' ALs as unvalued and possibly overlooked in the classroom.

### 6.4.3 *Young English Language Learners' (ELLs') Parents' Appearance Prejudice*

Participants recounted their observations of what they perceived as young ELLs' parents' appearance prejudice in international public and private TESOL sectors. The quotes below illustrate such prejudice.

*I don't know, but [Chinese ELLs'] parents want this. They want to see white faces [teaching their children]. (Enna, L1s Cantonese & Mandarin / AL English, one-on-one interview)*

*So, the [ELLs'] parents want to see the white face teaching their children. And, they don't associate native-English speakers with Asian or black or whatever. So, definitely in [South] Korea, there was a lot of that. (Lawrence, L1 English / ALs French & Spanish, one-on-one interview)*

As former AL learners, both Enna (non-white non-NEST) and Lawrence (white NEST) had discussed the advantages of their past instructed AL learning on their teacher knowledge and teaching practices (e.g., language awareness and enhanced empathy for ELLs, as discussed in chapters four and five). However, their accounts above highlight how some parents of young ELLs perceived ESOL teachers' teacher knowledge and teaching practices based merely on their appearances. That is, Enna and Lawrence perceived that neither white nor non-white ESOL teachers were evaluated based on features relevant to their knowledge and practices, such as their levels of teaching qualifications, ESOL-teaching experiences, and past instructed AL learning. Enna stated that parents of young Chinese ELLs often preferred white ESOL teachers for their children. Lawrence echoed a similar sentiment, noting that parents of young South Korean ELLs tended to desire white ESOL teachers for their children's English education. He indicated that the image of NESTs was not typically associated with teachers with Asian or black backgrounds, regardless of their L1(s).

## 6.5 Conclusion

The main theme, *teachers' perceptions of the TESOL profession*, presented findings related to participants' lived experiences of prejudice in international and New Zealand public and private for-profit TESOL sectors. The findings presented in chapters four and five highlight how participants perceived the advantages of their instructed AL-learning experiences in their teaching. However, the present chapter shows that these experiences had no impact on their professional standing in the TESOL sector. Instead, the less-relevant features of teacher identity (i.e., ESOL teachers' countries of origin, accents, and appearances associated with their ethnicities) were privileged over teachers' past instructed AL learning as a result of native-speakerism within the TESOL sector. More specifically, according to the participants, some employers, ELLs, and young ELLs' parents preferred 'white' ESOL teachers from inner-circle countries and spoke with marked non-native accents from these countries. Furthermore, participant accounts suggest that ESOL teachers who were white native English speakers with non-marked accents tended to benefit from native-speakerism in the hiring process and at the workplace. For example, some employers applied pay discrimination, which favored these teachers. Although most participants acknowledged the existence of prejudice in international and New Zealand TESOL sectors, several participants stated that they had not experienced such prejudice in the New Zealand TESOL sector.

Participants expressed their disapproval of prejudice in the TESOL profession as they held the perception that ESOL teachers' knowledge and practices for TESOL should not be judged by their countries of origin, L1s, accents, and ethnic appearances. They also pointed out that prejudice against ESOL teachers was particularly prevalent in private for-profit TESOL sectors in New Zealand and other countries where they had taught. In addition, participants' recollections of their experiences suggest that the business-oriented nature of the private sector was the main reason for prejudice in the TESOL profession. That is, ELLs' and

young ELLs' parents' preferences for white NESTs impacted some employers' decisions, for example, when hiring ESOL teachers. Findings show that such prejudice has negatively impacted some ESOL teachers, sometimes forcing them to endure unfair treatment to keep their occupations.

Therefore, to redirect the focus on employing ESOL teachers based on where they are from, how they sound, and what they look like, employers should focus on factors that can positively impact ELLs' learning, such as teachers' TESOL knowledge and practices. As Fang rightly pointed out in her excerpt below, those who have the power to eradicate prejudice in the TESOL profession should beware of discriminatory practices in New Zealand, particularly in the private for-profit sector.

*No authorities have really paid that much interest into [prejudice in ELT]. So, I think for ESOL teachers, [it] benefits in a long-term point of view... I think it's really worth more research. (Fang, L1s Cantonese & Mandarin / AL English & Japanese, one-on-one interview)*

Although the findings in this chapter cannot be extrapolated to all stakeholders in the TESOL profession, employers should pay particular attention to their prejudice and prejudicial practices to protect and repair the reputation of the New Zealand private TESOL sector.

## Chapter Seven: Discussion of Findings

### 7.1 Introduction

This study examined the perceptions of New Zealand-based ESOL teachers on their past instructed AL learning and its reported impact on their professional roles as ESOL teachers. The theoretical framings of ‘teacher knowledge’ and ‘teacher linguistic identity’ in this study inform the examination of how language-learning experiences shape what teachers know and do in the TESOL classroom. The findings of this study demonstrate that ESOL teachers’ past instructed AL learning, a component of their linguistic identities, contributes to their TESOL knowledge. This knowledge, in turn, shapes their teaching practices, emphasizing the interplay between teachers’ plurilingual identities and their professional roles. The findings suggest that ‘ESOL teacher as a former AL learner’ holds greater relevance than ‘ESOL teacher as a native English speaker’, challenging the conventional NEST/non-NEST dichotomy and arguing for a reconceptualization of ESOL teacher identity.

This study employed interpretative phenomenological analysis (IPA), a qualitative research approach, which identified three main themes and eight subsequent sub-themes, shedding light on the distinctive perspectives of New Zealand-based ESOL teachers as former AL learners and current ESOL teachers. The three main themes detailed in chapters four, five, and six, respectively, were:

- past instructed AL learning and its reported impact on ESOL teaching;
- enhanced empathy for English language learners (ELLs); and
- teachers’ perceptions of the TESOL profession.

Following this introduction, the chapter discusses findings in these main themes, examining participants’ perceptions of the reported impact of their past instructed AL

learning concerning existing literature. Instead of compartmentalizing data for specific research questions, the themes were analyzed holistically, indicating interconnections and overlaps in responses addressing the research gap. The discussion commences with an exploration of findings related to the perceived value of participants' experiential knowledge in instructed AL learning in 7.2. This section also addresses factors impacting participants' evaluations of their former AL teachers' teaching practices and the reported impact of past instructed AL learning on their ESOL teaching and levels of empathy for ELLs. Findings pertaining to participants' perceptions of their gained TESOL knowledge are discussed in 7.3. Section 7.4 discusses the findings concerning participants' perceptions of the TESOL sector, particularly their professional stance at both individual and TESOL-sector levels. Findings suggest that this stance is heavily impacted by the NEST/non-NEST dichotomy, which can manifest as prejudice related to teachers' citizenship and L1s, accents, and physical appearances in the sector. Finally, 7.5 summarizes and concludes this discussion chapter.

## **7.2 Value of Experiential Knowledge of Instructed AL Learning as Former Learners**

All participants consistently emphasized the connection between their professional roles as ESOL teachers and experiences in instructed AL learning, which is an integral facet of their linguistic identities. This connection is evident in their discussions concerning their teacher knowledge, particularly the experiential knowledge gained from their firsthand learning experience. Analysis showed how participants' linguistic identities as former AL learners inform their teacher knowledge and teaching practices in four overlapping contexts:

- participants' insights into language pedagogy as former AL learners;
  - factors impacting participants' evaluations of their past instructed AL learning;
  - how participants' past instructed AL learning shaped their teaching practices;
- and

- participants' perceptions on how ESOL teachers would benefit from formally learning an AL.

### ***7.2.1 Participants' Insights into Language Pedagogy as Former AL Learners***

Participants' insights into language pedagogy, drawing from their experiences as former AL learners, reportedly allowed them to spend years observing their teachers in action. They reported that due to their instructed AL-learning experiences, they could evaluate the quality of the AL teaching they had received in the past retrospectively, addressing the overarching research question (ORQ): How do New Zealand-based plurilingual ESOL teachers' instructed additional-language (AL) learning experiences impact their professional roles? Participants maintained that these learning experiences allowed them to distinguish between poor and good-quality AL teaching, as well as the effectiveness or ineffectiveness of particular teaching approaches and practices. However, participants did not simply accept their past instructed AL learning at face value; instead, they critically reflected on both positive and negative learning experiences while also drawing upon their TESOL training and teaching experiences to inform their teacher knowledge and teaching practices.

Participants' recollections of their experiences aligned with some aspects of Lortie's (1975) 'apprenticeship of observation', which describes how teachers' observations of their former teachers shape their perceptions of effective teaching. For example, Gregory discussed how his past instructed AL learning contributed to his language-pedagogical knowledge: *The experience of learning a language gives insight into failure cases and how to avoid them, whether in terms of pacing, explanation, activity choice, or something else* (one-on-one interview). Other studies examining the reported impact of ESOL teachers' language-learning experiences have similarly found that these experiences shape teachers' understanding of effective teaching (e.g., Cancino et al., 2020; E. Ellis, 2013). For instance,

in E. Ellis's (2013) study encompassing 29 ESOL teachers' language biographies across seven countries, she identified that teachers' AL-learning experiences contributed to their teacher knowledge. These learning experiences informed the teachers' understanding of their learning styles, preferences in teaching practices, and communication styles, which, in turn, offered them insights into ELLs' behaviors in language learning (E. Ellis, 2013). However, similar to what was found in the present study, E. Ellis (2013) highlighted that sources of ESOL teachers' teacher knowledge extended beyond formal AL education, as this knowledge could also stem from other facets of these teachers' lives.

Participants' recollections of their past instructed AL learning also validated features of Moodie's (2016) 'anti-apprenticeship of observation'. This notion refers to how negative instructed-AL-learning experiences serve as instructive lessons for ESOL teachers, helping them identify and avoid ineffective teaching practices in their own language teaching. Lortie's (1975) 'apprenticeship of observation' and Moodie's (2016) 'anti-apprenticeship of observation' were mirrored by Erin, for example, who reflected on positive and negative aspects of her former ESOL teachers' teaching practices: *I wouldn't do it exactly the same way [as my ESOL teachers], but I would think about what is wrong with that [teaching practice] or what is good that I can take* (one-on-one interview). Similarly, Cancino et al. (2020) have reported the notion of 'anti-apprenticeship of observation'. They conducted a study involving eight Chilean pre-service ESOL teachers (Cancino et al., 2020). Cancino et al. (2020) found that five participants reported that both their positive and negative ESOL-learning experiences shaped their pedagogical decisions and behaviors as these experiences inspired them to adopt or avoid teaching practices similar to those enacted by their former ESOL teachers (Cancino et al., 2020). Cancino et al. (2020) argued that pre-service ESOL teachers should be mindful of how their past instructed AL learning contributes to their teaching practices, thereby enhancing the rationale behind their language pedagogy decisions.

Existing literature in applied linguistics has not identified any drawbacks associated with ESOL teachers' instructed AL-learning experiences on their teacher knowledge or teaching practices, whether those experiences were positive or negative.

Although there is alignment between the aforementioned finding and the notions of the 'apprenticeship of observation' and 'anti-apprenticeship of observation', these terms do not entirely capture the relationship between participants' instructed AL-learning experiences and their professional roles. 'Apprenticeship', by definition, typically implies a deliberate period during which an individual works under a skilled mentor to learn their expertise, often in a specific occupation or field. However, in the context of instructed AL learning, learners were not apprentices since learning an AL differs significantly from learning how to teach it. In addition, the term 'anti-apprenticeship of observation' may suggest opposition to the notion of an apprenticeship of observation.

Furthermore, while both 'apprenticeship of observation' and 'anti-apprenticeship of observation' pertain to teachers' *past* learning experiences, neither term specifically addresses teachers' *present* professional practices. Therefore, this study suggests the use of 'non-incorporation', 'incorporation of assumed good practices', 'partial incorporation', and 'incorporation' to refer to ESOL teachers' avoidance, supplementation, alteration, or replication of their former AL teachers' teaching methods and activities (see 4.4). In this context, incorporation signifies the act of including elements of teachers' former AL teachers' practices into their own teaching practices. These proposed terms more accurately capture the impact of participants' past instructed AL learning on their teaching practices.

Participants formed their perceptions of effective ESOL teaching practices based on the experiential knowledge they gained from instructed AL learning. Their linguistic identities as former AL learners shaped their TESOL knowledge and practices as they

considered their learning preferences and needs and whether these were met during their AL-learning experiences. Consequently, participants reported discarding, supplementing, or modifying teaching practices they had disliked or found unhelpful during their past instructed AL learning. Conversely, these New Zealand-based ESOL teachers shared instances where they enacted teaching practices they had found enjoyable or beneficial during their time as AL learners, addressing the second sub-question (SQ2): In what ways do or don't they integrate their past instructed AL learning into their ESOL teaching practices? Further discussions on how participants' experiential knowledge of instructed AL learning impacted their teaching practices, including the varying degrees of incorporation or non-incorporation, will be presented in 7.2.3.

### ***7.2.2 Factors Impacting Participants' Evaluations of Their Past Instructed AL Learning***

This study presented an abundance of participant descriptions and evaluations regarding their language-learning experiences, along with reports of the consequences of these experiences. Specific factors that impacted participants' evaluations of their past instructed AL learning took various forms, such as cognitive, environmental, and psychological, stemming from participant age and the teaching practices enacted by their former AL teachers. Findings suggest that participants' sense of agency as learners impacted their motivation to learn, while their teachers' teaching practices had an intricate relationship with their learning challenges and preferences. Nonetheless, their instructed AL-learning experiences played a pivotal role in shaping their teacher knowledge. The following discusses these three factors (i.e., sense of agency, learning challenges, and learning preferences).

**Sense of Agency and Motivation.** Participants' motivation for learning their ALs was important in shaping their evaluations of their past instructed AL learning. A notable demotivating factor shared by some participants was the lack of agency they experienced

within AL learning settings. This sense of lack of agency frequently stemmed from the compulsion of AL learning at school, a sentiment especially pronounced in the recollections of participants who had undergone AL learning in submersion settings, exemplified by the experiences of Deborah: *You were kind of thrown in, you know. You swim or you sink* (one-on-one interview).

This lack of sense of agency was also reported in other studies, although those studies focused on learners in instructed AL learning settings rather than submersion settings (e.g., Song & Kim, 2017; Kim et al., 2017). For instance, in a study conducted by Song and Kim (2017), which aimed to explore factors contributing to demotivation and remotivation among South Korean high school ELLs, similar observations were made. They found that some ELLs experienced demotivation primarily due to the compulsory nature of their ESOL learning, leaving them with a limited sense of agency (Song & Kim, 2017). Participants in Song's and Kim's (2017) study also reported that their main academic interests lay outside of ESOL, particularly in subjects like mathematics and sciences. These ELLs indicated a preference for dedicating more time and focus to these subjects rather than ESOL (Song & Kim, 2017). The findings in Song's and Kim's (2017) study, alongside the findings in this study, collectively affirm the notion that learners' perceptions of their AL learning experiences in educational settings are closely linked to their sense of agency in language-learning contexts, often resulting in reduced motivation among some AL learners. However, it is noteworthy that this pattern differs from the motivational levels reported by participants who were adult AL learners in the present study.

The analysis showed that participants who were adult learners had a strong sense of agency in their instructed AL learning, primarily because they had chosen to undertake this learning. Participants indicated that their motivations for pursuing AL learning in adulthood mainly derived from intrinsic factors related to personal goals. Intrinsic motivation arose

from internal rewards, such as interest in and enjoyment of another language and culture. For example, Hunter's account demonstrated his intrinsic motivation to learn Japanese: *I married a Japanese woman, and so I wanted to learn her language and culture. So, I started by going to evening classes with other adults in small classes learning Japanese* (one-on-one interview). This finding only partially aligns with the observations of Campbell and Storch (2011), who noted a combination of extrinsic and intrinsic motivation among their participants. For example, some participants were motivated by the prospect of future job opportunities when learning Mandarin Chinese, while others found pleasure in the process of instructed AL learning. Consequently, it can be inferred that AL learners who possess a strong sense of agency in their learning endeavors are more likely to be motivated, potentially resulting in academic success. Understanding how AL learners' sense of agency, or lack thereof, impacts their learning behaviors can offer valuable insights for ESOL teachers when shaping their TESOL knowledge and teaching practices.

Notwithstanding the strong sense of agency displayed by participants who learned their ALs in adulthood, their recollections of AL-learning experiences suggested occasional feelings of vulnerability. This vulnerability primarily stemmed from their insecurity, which is largely attributable to their low proficiency levels in their ALs. For example, middle-aged and older adult AL learners among the participants often reported that they felt particularly insecure when compared to their younger peers, i.e., young adult AL learners in their classes. As expressed by Hunter: *that's kind of challenging, I think, sometimes for some older people when they've got a young whiz kid in the class that's showing them up* (one-on-one interview). These observations align with the findings from a study conducted by Bernal Castañeda (2017), who highlighted that some older adult AL learners experienced learning anxiety because they felt pressured to keep pace with their younger peers in learning their AL (Bernal Castañeda, 2017).

The diverse range of ages in which participants learned their AL(s) (i.e., childhood, adolescence, and adulthood) offered them distinct perspectives on their sense of agency and motivation as learners. This allowed them to reflect on AL learning across various age groups and motivational levels. Consequently, participants garnered experiential insights into the potential motivating and demotivating factors that learners from different age brackets might experience during their language learning. This valuable knowledge suggests a positive impact on participants' teaching practices, fostering a heightened sense of empathy for ELLs and enabling them to respond to their students' specific learning needs with greater understanding (see chapter five and 7.2.3).

**Former AL Teachers' Teaching Practices.** Participants' learning challenges and preferences shaped their evaluations of their former AL teachers' teaching practices. Enna's comment regarding her former ESOL teachers' use of the grammar-translation method is an example of such evaluation: *We fell asleep, of course* (one-on-one interview). Existing literature on the impact of language learning, including the work by E. Ellis (2016b) and Forman (2015), has provided valuable insights. However, much of the prior research had limitations. For instance, some researchers intentionally pre-selected specific teaching practices, such as grammar translation and watching films in learners' ALs (e.g., Dooley, 2016; Scheffler, 2013), when investigating AL learners' experiences. While these studies provided valuable insights, their focus on specific teaching practices resulted in a restricted scope of AL learners' evaluations since learners typically encounter a variety of teaching practices throughout their AL-learning journeys. Therefore, by examining a restricted set of teaching practices, these earlier studies may not have captured the full spectrum of experiences that shape AL learners' evaluations and perceptions of effective AL-teaching practices.

**Learning Challenges.** The learning challenges experienced during instructed AL learning impacted participants' evaluations of their former AL teachers' teaching practices, shaping their teacher knowledge. These challenges encompassed various aspects, with some of the key examples including:

- participants' perceptions of inadequate teaching practices employed by their former AL teachers;
- participants' fear of the potential consequences of making mistakes in their ALs; and
- participants' emotional challenges as former AL learners.

The analysis suggested that these challenges had additional repercussions on participants' motivation and learning outcomes. The following discusses these challenges in relation to the existing literature.

The findings of this study indicated that participants' AL-learning experiences reportedly allowed them to reflect on the challenges they encountered with specific teaching practices enacted by their former AL teachers. For example, Naifa recounted how her former Hindi teachers' teaching practices negatively impacted how she perceived her learning experience: *Well, we had to do the most embarrassing things like (pause) so the [Hindi] teachers (laughs) would make us stand up and read a paragraph aloud in class. It was excruciating. So I hated every minute of that* (Naifa, one-on-one interview). Several researchers have also noted concerns regarding the negative impact of particular AL teachers' teaching practices on learners (e.g., Kruk et al., 2022; Savignon, 2018). Kruk et al.'s (2022) study, for instance, investigated the possible sources of boredom in instructed AL-learning settings. In their study, one participant voiced frustration with their AL teacher's corrective feedback practice (Kruk et al., 2022).

Some findings in this study concerning the impacts of AL teachers' teaching practices on learners align with previous research while contradicting others. For example, Ma (2016) and Sali (2014) found that the bilingual-instructional approach was beneficial in enhancing learners' comprehension and explaining unfamiliar grammar or vocabulary. Consistent with existing literature, this study found that participants perceived this approach positively, such as Gregory: *And I have found it helpful, depending on the word, to just be able to get a quick definition rather [than] having to explain it around and around in a foreign language [i.e., Spanish].* Conversely, Alrabai's (2016) study presents a contrasting perspective, suggesting that the bilingual-instructional approach contributed to AL learners' learning challenges. Investigating factors contributing to low achievement among Saudi ELLs, he found that ESOL teachers' use of both Arabic and English negatively impacted learners' learning outcomes (Alrabai, 2016). Alrabai (2016) argued that this approach did not provide ELLs with sufficient opportunities to engage with English in the classroom. Indeed, when ELLs learn ESOL as a foreign language in regions where English is not the primary means of communication, having adequate exposure to the language becomes crucial. However, findings in this study did not find that participants had a negative perception of the bilingual-instructional approach in their past instructed AL learning.

One challenge faced by participants as AL learners was the fear of making mistakes in their ALs, as this could lead to negative consequences such as embarrassment and punishment. Catherine described her perspective on how her former Mandarin-Chinese teachers' teaching practices contributed to her emotional struggles: *My [Mandarin-]Chinese teachers, they always set this learning environment that's so strict and so stiff, you know, you're not free at all. So, there's that fear factor* (one-on-one interview). This finding aligns with previous research that has explored the connection between AL learners' fear and their perceptions of learning experiences (e.g., Bernal Castañeda, 2017; Jiang & Dewaele, 2019).

For example, Jiang's and Dewaele's (2019) study, which examined the enjoyment and anxiety levels of 564 Chinese undergraduate ELLs, identified a major challenge: the fear of criticism from ESOL teachers. However, the specific nature of this criticism was not explained in Jiang's and Dewaele's (2019) study. Oliver's account of an incident with one of his former Mandarin-Chinese teachers reacting to his mistake might offer an example of such criticism: *I remember one [Mandarin Chinese] teacher, a casual teacher, who laughed at one of my mistakes, and I (pause) well, I could not concentrate for the rest of the lesson (one-on-one interview).*

Findings also found that participants' firsthand emotional challenges as former AL learners provided valuable insights that helped them comprehend the emotional challenges learners face, contributing to their teacher knowledge. For example, Lawrence expressed a strong sense of empathy for his students because they had shared experiences in instructed AL learning: *I know exactly where they're [i.e., ELLs] coming from. I know exactly what they're thinking, and I know exactly what it's like when you figure it out. So, I can really relate to that (one-on-one interview).* This study broadly aligns with the findings of previous research (e.g., E. Ellis, 2004a; Turgut Dost, 2016). For example, Turgut Dost's (2016) study involved language-shock activities in which prospective teachers were tasked with completing assignments in an unfamiliar AL as part of their practicum to highlight the challenges of working with limited language proficiency. These prospective teachers reported facing various emotional challenges while completing these tasks (Turgut Dost, 2016). Turgut Dost (2016) concluded that AL teachers' ability to understand such emotional challenges through their own past instructed AL learning was salient for perceptive and empathetic AL teaching. This perception was mirrored by Hunter, for example, who stated: *It [learning Japanese as an adult learner] made me more empathetic to the role of an adult learner [i.e., ELL] (one-on-one interview).* No study examining the impact of AL teachers'

language-learning experiences has identified drawbacks resulting from teachers' understanding of their students' emotional challenges.

Participants' reflections on their past instructed AL learning were found to be prominent in their understanding of the challenges faced by their students. Catherine's account exemplifies this finding: *You know, I was struggling to learn, so I understand the struggles, I understand the lack of confidence, [and] I understand why often it's too hard to elicit from them [i.e., ELLs]* (one-on-one interview). This aligns with the findings in Cancino et al.'s (2020) and E. Ellis's (2013) research. For example, E. Ellis's (2013) study, which investigated how ESOL teachers in Australia perceived the relationship between their plurilingualism and their teaching, found that these teachers gained valuable experiential insights into AL learning from the learners' perspective. Consequently, based on her participants' responses, E. Ellis (2013) concluded that ESOL teachers' past instructed AL learning serves as an essential resource, enabling them to enact teaching practices that would benefit their students. A possible explanation for E. Ellis's (2013) conclusion, as well as for the perceptions reported by participants in the current study, is that both groups of ESOL teachers possessed experiential knowledge of the challenges associated with AL learning, which reportedly allowed them to empathize deeply with ELLs' language-learning experiences.

Furthermore, the challenges that participants experienced as former AL learners, such as their firsthand experience with particular teaching practices (e.g., memorization, reading dialogues/passages aloud), reportedly allowed them to scrutinize factors that may have contributed to their struggles as former AL learners. Moreover, participants' experiential knowledge of instructed AL learning was found to have reportedly impacted their TESOL-pedagogical decisions and practices, including their empathy for their learners and empathetic responses to ELLs' learning needs (see 7.2.3). Indeed, as E. Ellis (2012) points out, ESOL

teachers' experiential knowledge of instructed AL learning should be recognized as a valuable asset for their understanding of ESOL learning and teaching. E. Ellis's (2012) perception is consistent with, for example, Isabella's statement that highlights an advantage of ESOL teachers as AL users: *I think it [i.e., having learned an AL] definitely gives an understanding of what it's like for the students [i.e., ELLs]. Yeah, a lot more than teachers who don't speak another language* (one-on-one interview).

**Learning Preferences.** Participants' AL-learning preferences also impacted how they evaluated their former AL teachers' teaching practices. These preferences were primarily shaped by two key factors: their learning styles and learning needs. On the one hand, some participants explicitly mentioned their dislike for particular practices their former AL teachers enacted, such as the audiolingual method and the grammar-translation method, because these practices did not align with their preferred learning styles, which were tied to their personalities and interests. This finding resonates with the research of Oxford (2003) and D. Lu (2010), who also found that AL learners' preferred learning styles impacted their overall learning experiences and outcomes. For example, in D. Lu's (2010) study involving 57 ELLs in Hong Kong and their perceptions of computer-assisted ESOL learning, some ELLs favored the use of computer technology in their learning, while others did not. Those who were not fond of using computers in ESOL learning reported feelings of isolation and loneliness (D. Lu, 2010). The differences in learners' personal perceptions and experiences with particular teaching practices found in previous research were reflected in the current study, as evidenced by Hunter's recollections of his past instructed AL learning. He expressed that while the audiolingual method may have been suitable for some AL learners as it allowed them to learn without feeling *self-consciousness*, he *felt that the tape recorder didn't care, whereas a human being does* (one-on-one interview).

Some participants in the present study evaluated particular teaching approaches and practices (e.g., the immersion approach, the grammar-translation method) positively because these approaches/practices helped with their academic achievement. For example, Marie stated that her former ESOL teachers' immersion approach *was the best way* for her and her peers *to learn* (one-on-one interview). This finding is consistent with recent studies indicating a connection between AL learners' learning preferences and positive learning outcomes (e.g., Simon, 2020; Yasuda, 2017). The attitudes expressed by participants in this study bear similarities to those described in Simon's (2020) research. In his study, South Korean ELLs' expressed a preference for their ESOL teachers' communicative teaching approaches as these approaches enhanced their ESOL-speaking performances (Simon, 2020). The study noted that English grammar and reading are traditionally the main focuses of ESOL education in South Korea, making speaking weaker among South Korean ELLs (Simon, 2020). Both the current study and Simon's (2020) research demonstrate that AL learners' firsthand experiences with their AL-learning preferences potentially impact the effectiveness of particular teaching practices. Overall, these findings suggest that ESOL teachers' experiential knowledge of instructed AL learning informed and guided their teacher knowledge, particularly their understanding of ELLs' learning preferences and needs.

### ***7.2.3 Reported Impact of Past Instructed AL Learning on Professional Roles***

The recollections of participants' past instructed AL learning, a component of their linguistic identities, showed that these experiences reportedly served as a source of reference for their teaching as ESOL teachers. This study identified the interconnections between participants' experiential knowledge of instructed AL learning, their evaluations of their past AL teachers' teaching practices, and their TESOL practices. Researchers, such as E. Ellis (2004b, 2013) and Phipps and Borg (2009), have also noted that the past instructed AL

learning of AL teachers (including ESOL teachers) often shaped their knowledge of AL teaching.

While presenting answers to the overarching research question (ORQ: How do New Zealand-based plurilingual ESOL teachers' instructed additional-language (AL) learning experiences impact their professional roles?) and the second sub-question (SQ2: In what ways do or don't they integrate their past instructed AL learning into their ESOL teaching practices?), I discuss how my findings relate to the existing literature based on the following categorizations:

- reported impact of past instructed AL learning on participants' TESOL practices; and
- reported impact of past instructed AL learning on their empathy for ELLs.

#### **Reported Impact of Past Instructed AL Learning on TESOL Practices.**

Participants' past instructed AL learning reportedly allowed them to gain insights into language-pedagogical knowledge, a part of their TESOL knowledge, through experiencing and evaluating their former AL teachers' teaching practices. As a result, they were able to make informed decisions about whether or how to incorporate specific practices their former teachers enacted. This aligns with the research of Nguyen (2017), Cancino et al. (2020), and Davin et al. (2018), who similarly observed that ESOL teachers often made choices involving the avoidance, supplementation, alteration, and replication of teaching practices based on their experiences with former AL teachers.

Participants reported a 'non-incorporation' of their former AL teachers' teaching practices by refraining from adopting and avoiding practices they disliked or found ineffective in their past instructed AL learning. These practices, which included creating negative learning environments and inappropriate oral feedback practices, were sources of

avoidance, a finding that resonates with Nguyen's (2017) research. In Nguyen's (2017) study involving six Vietnamese ESOL teachers and their reflections on their language-learning experiences, it was noted that these teachers' TESOL-pedagogical decisions were often based on their experiences as former ELLs. For example, some of these teachers reported that their former ESOL teachers' grammar-driven teaching practices hindered their development of English communicative skills (Nguyen, 2017). Consequently, having encountered the limitations of such practices, these teachers chose to avoid replicating them (Nguyen, 2017). Nguyen (2017) concluded that these teachers regarded their past instructed ESOL learning as valuable sources of TESOL knowledge. Enna's perception in this study mirrors the conclusion drawn by Nguyen (2017): *because we've experienced the [AL] learning process, we know what [teaching practices] would be effective because we've experienced this* (one-on-one interview).

However, participants adopted teaching practices that they felt could enhance their students' learning, referred to as the 'incorporation of assumed good practices' in this study. These practices included providing follow-up student support and using essay planners, reflecting participants' assumptions about what would have benefited their own past instructed AL learning and would help their students. Examples of such assumptions can also be found in Nguyen's (2017) study (see above). In addition to avoiding the grammar-focused teaching practices of their former ESOL teachers, the participating six Vietnamese ESOL teachers reported reflecting on their experiences as former ELLs and made pedagogical decisions based on these reflections (Nguyen, 2017). Consequently, these teachers enacted teaching practices that focused on developing their students' English communicative skills, which were lacking in their own past instructed ESOL learning (Nguyen, 2017). Similarly, Enna incorporated an essay planner in her ESOL teaching based on the assumption that it would have been beneficial for her during her past instructed ESOL learning: *I gave [my*

*ELLs] an essay planner, and I helped them to break down the essay into different parts. [...] I don't think my [ESOL] teachers used essay planners. No. And that's why I struggled with writing for so many years (one-on-one interview).*

Participants also reported 'partial incorporation' of their former AL teachers' teaching practices into their TESOL practices. They achieved this by reflecting on their AL-learning experiences, identifying both positive and negative aspects of their teachers' practices, and subsequently modifying or discarding the elements they disliked or found ineffective. An example of this was the transformation of former teachers' class activities into educational games, as described by Naifa: *I have this little game where [the ELLs] have to put some elicited words they want to use on the board. And then they have to race to write sentences with [the words on the board], and then they go back and check (one-on-one interview).* This finding is in line with the findings of Cancino et al.'s (2020) study that investigated how eight Chilean pre-service ESOL teachers' experiences as ELLs impacted their teaching practices during their teaching practicum. The pre-service teachers reported that their past instructed ESOL learning impacted their pedagogical decisions (Cancino et al., 2020). They chose to replicate some aspects of their former ESOL teachers' practices while discarding others (Cancino et al., 2020). However, the specific details of which aspects these participants decided to retain or exclude from their own ESOL teaching were not provided in Cancino et al.'s (2020) study. Similarly, the participants in the current study did not provide details about how they made these decisions.

Finally, participants reported 'incorporation', signifying their adoption and replication of particular teaching practices their former AL teachers enacted. They incorporated practices they favored or deemed effective (e.g., games, scaffolding). For example, Enna incorporated some of her former ESOL teachers' teaching practices: *The American [ESOL] teachers, they would play a lot of games, have a lot of interactive activities, or use movies and songs to help*

*us get engaged. So, I would adopt those [teaching practices].* This aligns with findings reported in Davin et al.'s (2018) study, which examined how an experienced ESOL teacher's instructed AL-learning experience impacted her teaching practices. The teacher mentioned her appreciation for the warm and structured learning environment her former French-language teacher created (Davin et al., 2018). When observing their participant's teaching, Davin et al. (2018) noted that the teacher replicated a learning environment similar to the one she had described from her experience as a former AL learner.

### **Reported Impact of Past Instructed AL Learning on Empathy for ELLs.**

Participants' experiential knowledge of instructed AL learning reportedly impacted their levels of empathy for ELLs and, in some cases, their empathetic responses to their students' learning needs. This study identified two phases of empathy arising from participants' past instructed AL learning, categorized as 'reflective empathy' and 'enacted empathy'. These categorizations illuminate an aspect of teachers' empathy that has been previously overlooked, providing new insight into the various types of empathy that ESOL teachers develop through their experiences with instructed AL learning.

The first phase, termed 'reflective empathy' in this study, emerged from participants' reflections on their experiences as former AL learners without external actions. This reflection encompassed participants' insights into the AL-learning processes, their firsthand experiences with and evaluations of their former AL teachers' teaching practices, and the difficulties or ease they experienced as former AL learners. Collectively, these factors contributed to the formation of their TESOL knowledge. Prior studies have shown that AL teachers who have undergone instructed AL learning often reported employing reflective empathy for their students (e.g., E. Ellis, 2004a, 2012; Lindahl et al., 2013).

This study identified two factors that contributed to the development of participants' reflective empathy:

- participants' reported experiential knowledge gained from instructed AL learning; and
- their recounted positive and negative language-learning experiences.

Some findings in the present study align with those of earlier research related to teacher knowledge and linguistic identities (e.g., Cancino et al., 2020; E. Ellis, 2004a, 2012).

Participants in this study reported that reflecting on their past instructed AL learning enhanced their empathy for ELLs. The findings suggested that, on the one hand, participants felt that only ESOL teachers with instructed AL-learning experiences could truly understand instructed AL-learning processes from the learners' point of view. This perspective is exemplified through Naifa's account: *Because you have been through learning another language and using another language, so you are thinking about: "Oh, how was it for me" You are more attuned to their [ELLs'] needs and more empathetic, and more inclusive* (one-on-one interview). This perspective aligns with previous studies, such as those of E. Ellis (2004a) and Wright-Maley and Green (2015). For example, in E. Ellis's study (2004a), several ESOL teachers noted that their past instructed AL learning allowed them to better understand how formal AL learning might appear to AL learners (including ELLs). This understanding extended to how ELLs perceived particular teaching practices and responded to learning challenges (E. Ellis, 2004a). E. Ellis (2004a) concluded that ESOL teachers' past instructed AL learning provided them with an insider perspective, serving as a reference source of their teacher knowledge.

On the other hand, participants in this study expressed skepticism about ESOL teachers who had not undergone instructed AL learning, stating that such teachers may

struggle to comprehend the experiences of ELLs in their learning journey. Jasmin's account illustrates this viewpoint: *If you haven't studied a language [i.e., an AL] (pause) you didn't go through the whole process of learning it (pause) no experience (pause) so maybe you don't really feel how the students are like (pause) they feel challenges in the class to learn a new language* (one-on-one interview). Although not directly related to ESOL education, Valenzuela (1999) noted a correlation between teachers' lack of empathetic understanding of Mexican students within the US English curriculum and these students' academic performance. She argued that the absence of genuine concern is often worsened by teachers who, owing to their limited knowledge of the Spanish language and dismissive attitude toward Mexican culture, were unlikely to understand students' educational perspectives (Valenzuela, 1999). The insights from both the participants in this study and Valenzuela's (1999) work collectively highlight the connection between teachers' understanding of students' viewpoints and their empathy for their students.

Participants' negative experiences with instructed AL learning served as a catalyst for them to reflect on their experiences in such learning. These reflections, as indicated by the findings, reportedly allowed participants to scrutinize elements like their cognitive processes and emotional responses during their AL-learning journey. Catherine, for example, stated: *I think in general, when you put yourself into someone else's shoes, especially, you know, in terms of language learning. Then, you can use more [teaching] tools* (one-on-one interview). This aligns with existing research that has established a link between ESOL teachers' past instructed AL learning and their empathy for their students (e.g., Moodie, 2016; Nguyen, 2017). For example, in Moodie's (2016) study, Korean ESOL teachers reported that particular teaching practices, such as teacher-centered and grammar-focused lessons, made their ESOL-learning experiences unengaging. These teachers also noted that their past instructed ESOL learning enabled them to empathize with ELLs who shared similar dislikes

for these teaching practices. Moodie (2016) concluded that ESOL teachers with past instructed AL learning benefited from enhanced professional development.

While literature often associates ESOL teachers' empathy for their students with an understanding of the negative feelings and experiences these learners face in ESOL learning, findings in this study showed that positive empathy can also stem from participants' past instructed AL learning. Here, positive empathy denotes the capacity to comprehend another person's positive feelings and experiences through shared feelings and experiences (Andreychik & Migliaccio, 2015). For example, Lawrence reported that his reflections on his past instructed AL learning allowed him to empathize with his students when they shared a similar sense of accomplishment in AL-learning processes: *I know exactly what it's like when you figure it out. So, I can really relate to that* (one-on-one interview). However, no prior study within the existing literature has documented ESOL teachers' positive empathy for ELLs. This finding presents a new insight into teacher knowledge. The scarcity of information on this topic can likely be attributed to how researchers traditionally perceive AL learning, including ESOL learning, with a predominant focus on challenges AL learners face. While it is undoubtedly important to explore how ESOL teachers' struggles as former AL learners contribute to their empathy for their students, I argue that investigating how their positive AL-learning experiences shape their positive empathy for ELLs is equally vital. This perspective is essential because AL-learning experiences, including ESOL-learning experiences, encompass more than just learners' struggles.

Participants' recollections of their experiences showed that after reflective empathy, they sometimes entered a subsequent stage termed 'enacted empathy' in this study. In this stage, participants reportedly responded empathetically to the specific learning needs of their students. The findings indicated that participants' reflective empathy served as a guiding force for their enacted empathy, which, in turn, manifested in their application of particular

teaching practices, such as cautious oral feedback and sharing stories of their own struggles as former AL learners. Furthermore, data analysis showed that participants employed their enacted empathy for their students after reflecting on two aspects of their past instructed AL learning:

- AL-learning struggles participants encountered as learners; and
- positive AL-learning outcomes.

One source that reportedly guided participants' enacted empathy for ELLs was their struggles in their past instructed AL learning. For example, when reflecting on their former AL teachers' inadequate teaching practices, like providing insensitive oral feedback, participants reported adopting cautious oral feedback to help their learners and avoid subjecting them to similar negative learning experiences, as illustrated in Deborah's account: *Not jumping down the student's throat if they make a mistake but repeating what mistake they made correctly and see if they can pick it up* (one-on-one interview). This finding aligns with earlier research, such as studies by E. Ellis (2004a, 2012) and Cancino et al. (2020). The type of empathy described in E. Ellis's (2004a) study closely resembles the 'enacted empathy' identified in this study. In her study, ESOL teachers with past instructed AL learning reported a similar process of first reflecting on their own AL-learning experiences, empathizing with their students' learning difficulties, and then implementing cautious teaching practices (E. Ellis, 2004a). However, E. Ellis's study lacked specific details regarding the practices employed by her participants, in contrast to this study, which offered a more in-depth exploration of these practices.

Another source of participants' enacted empathy for ELLs stemmed from their positive learning outcomes. Specifically, participants shared AL-learning tips that had been beneficial for their own learning with their students. No prior study has documented ESOL

teachers who were former AL learners demonstrating their enacted empathy by sharing their own AL-learning tips. Therefore, this finding provides a novel insight into the existing literature on teacher knowledge. Investigating how ESOL teachers' sharing of their instructed AL-learning experiences can enhance ELLs' learning could be a valuable avenue for further research.

Thus far, this sub-section has discussed the connection between participants' past instructed AL learning and their reported reflective and enacted empathy for their students. Given that empathy is an inherent human quality, it raises the question of how effectively empathy cultivated in one context can be applied to unrelated disciplines. Consider, for example, how ESOL teachers' experiences of grappling with mathematics during their schooling might impact and shape their empathy for ELLs. From the participants' perspective, the sole means for ESOL teachers to truly understand their students' ESOL-learning experiences is through shared firsthand language-learning experiences. However, participants' assumptions that empathy for ELLs can exclusively develop through firsthand and discipline-specific experiences raises some issues, leading to the reevaluation of various aspects of ESOL teachers' empathy.

One facet of reconsideration involves considering whether empathy can be regarded as a skill that can be consciously developed and enhanced through education and training rather than solely reliant on instructed AL-learning experiences. Unfortunately, providing a straightforward 'yes' or 'no' answer to this question is challenging because empathy is a complex trait impacted by both intentional efforts (Jaber et al., 2018) and personal experiences (Cancino et al., 2020). Enhancing ESOL teachers' empathy can be aided by education and training. These resources equip teachers with valuable tools, knowledge, and perspectives to improve their understanding and connection with students (Jaber et al., 2018). Such educational methods may encompass empathy-focused courses, diversity and inclusion

training, or experiential learning opportunities like structured language-learning experiences (SLLE) (E. Ellis, 2003, 2006). However, ESOL teachers' experiences in instructed AL learning, as reported by participants in this study and those in prior studies (e.g., E. Ellis, 2004a, 2012; Cancino et al., 2020), can also enhance their empathy. These experiences provide ESOL teachers with a more profound and genuine comprehension of their students' challenges and emotions, thus enriching their capacity for empathy.

Another aspect to reconsider is whether confining ESOL teachers' empathy to discipline-specific experiences might overlook valuable insights from teachers' broader range of learning experiences. The answer to this is context-dependent and subjective as it varies based on the specific situations and individuals involved. While ESOL teachers' instructed AL-learning experiences may be crucial for understanding, these experiences may not encompass the entirety of valuable insights. Insights gained from other areas of learning could offer fresh perspectives, innovative teaching practices, or more holistic support for ELLs.

### **7.3 Linguistic Identity Contributing to TESOL Knowledge**

The findings of this study demonstrate that the participants' TESOL knowledge is related to their linguistic identities, particularly their experiences as former AL learners. Participants reported that their past instructed AL learning contributed to their teacher knowledge, including but not limited to their linguistic knowledge for teaching ESOL. Examples of such linguistic knowledge are morphology (how words are formed), phonology (how words sound), syntax (how words in a sentence are grammatically arranged), and pragmatics (how language is used based on the situation).

Regardless of their L1 linguistic identities, participants were unanimous in the view that their instructed AL-learning experiences enhanced their TESOL knowledge, with a

particular emphasis on syntax. This finding addresses the SQ2: In what ways do or don't they integrate their past instructed AL learning into their ESOL teaching practices? While it is important to note that effective ESOL teaching encompasses more than just grammatical knowledge, participants explicitly mentioned that their past instructed AL learning deepened their understanding of grammar in their L1s and ALs. For instance, Isabella expressed: *I think you need a good knowledge of [English] grammar because a lot of students relate to grammar* (focus-group discussion). Similar findings have been documented in prior studies, including research by E. Ellis (2004a, 2012), Forman (2015), and Zhang and Zhan (2014). For example, in a study by E. Ellis (2004a), ESOL teachers who had learned Latin reported that their experience with Latin grammar proved beneficial for teaching English grammar. They highlighted that formally learning Latin enabled them to analyze the grammar of both Latin and English, providing them with a profound understanding of linguistic structures and how linguistic units functioned in both languages (E. Ellis, 2004a). Much like the participants in the present study, E. Ellis's (2004a) participants also emphasized that their past instructed AL learning, in their case Latin, cultivated their skills in providing grammatical explanations (prescriptive grammar) to their students.

Participants also reported their observations regarding NESTs with past instructed AL learning and those without such experiences. They noted that the former generally possessed a more comprehensive understanding of syntactic knowledge required for teaching ESOL, whereas the latter typically lacked this knowledge. According to the participants, this discrepancy stemmed from the former group's engagement in text analysis during their instructed AL learning, while the latter group relied more on linguistic intuition. Here, linguistic intuition refers to an innate understanding of a language's grammar and structure, allowing individuals to make language choices based on what 'sounds right' without the need for explicit rule articulation (Crystal, 2003). Having intuitive linguistic knowledge does not

necessarily equate to the ability to explain syntactic and other rules effectively. Marie's account exemplifies this perspective: *As many native [English] speakers [who have not learned an AL] (pause) even if (pause) of course they can speak English and use correct grammar, they don't realize what they are doing or why* (one-on-one interview). Limited published research has compared or contrasted the levels of syntactic knowledge between NESTs who have undergone instructed AL learning and those who have not. Among the existing studies on the contributions of ESOL teachers' past instructed AL learning (e.g., Cancino et al., 2020; Nguyen, 2017), E. Ellis's (2004b) study is one of the few that acknowledged the disparity in syntactic knowledge between ESOL teachers who have learned an AL (both NESTs and non-NESTs) and NESTs who have not. She also noted that the levels of syntactic knowledge among NESTs and non-NESTs with AL-learning experiences were more similar to each other compared to NESTs who lacked past instructed AL learning. E. Ellis (2004b) concluded that instead of primarily focusing on ESOL teachers' L1s, more investigation should be conducted on teachers' language-learning experiences due to their contributions to TESOL knowledge and teaching practices. In this context, the present study contributes to filling this research gap to some extent by examining New Zealand-based ESOL teachers' perceptions regarding the reported impact of their past instructed AL learning (a component of their linguistic identities) on their teacher knowledge.

In addition to the reported enhanced syntactic knowledge of both NESTs and non-NESTs resulting from their past instructed AL learning, the findings showed that participants recognized non-NESTs' linguistic identities as former ELLs. For example, Lawrence stated: *I've always thought that quite often (pause) like, a non-native [English] language teacher is (pause) can be better than a native [English-speaking teacher] because they've gone through the [learning] process themselves* (one-on-one interview). This observation aligns with the findings of Shin (2008) and Walkinshaw and Oanh (2014), who noted similar perceptions in

their studies of Vietnamese and Japanese ELLs. In those studies, ELLs regarded non-NESTs as skillful teachers primarily because they felt that non-NESTs were knowledgeable in English syntax and could provide comprehensive explanations of complex English grammatical structures (Shin, 2008; Walkinshaw & Oanh, 2014). However, rather than attributing differences in ESOL teachers' levels of syntactic knowledge solely to their L1s, like those documented in Shin's (2008) and Walkinshaw's and Oanh's (2014) studies, participants in this study held the view that these disparities were related to ESOL teachers' past instructed AL learning or the lack thereof.

The discussion of TESOL knowledge in this study closely aligns with the broader literature on teacher knowledge, specifically exploring the nexus of teachers' knowledge, their past instructed AL learning, and their effectiveness as ESOL teachers. This integration of teacher knowledge and instructed AL learning experiences introduces a unique dimension to the teacher knowledge literature. Traditionally, teacher knowledge literature has centered on pedagogical content knowledge (Shulman, 1986), content knowledge (Wilson et al., 1987), and pedagogical knowledge (Gatbonton, 2000). However, this study contributes by emphasizing the significance of teachers' linguistic knowledge as AL users, particularly within the ESOL teaching context. It highlights that ESOL teachers' linguistic knowledge as AL users, resulting from their past instructed AL learning, plays a pivotal role in their ability to teach ELLs effectively. This emphasis on the role of ESOL teachers' past instructed AL learning experiences in shaping their TESOL knowledge expands the boundaries of the teacher knowledge literature. It also broadens the scope beyond traditional domains, indicating how linguistic knowledge through instructed AL learning can impact ESOL teachers' pedagogical practices.

#### **7.4 Insight of ESOL Teachers' Past Instructed AL Learning on Their Professional Standing in the TESOL Sector**

Participants noted that the attitudes of some stakeholders, including employers, ELLs, and young ELLs' parents, toward different groups of ESOL teachers impacted how they perceived the reported impact of their instructed AL-learning experiences on their professional standing in the TESOL sector. Specifically, participants' recollections of their experiences as ESOL teachers indicated the existence of prejudice in TESOL sectors in New Zealand and other countries, stemming from the NEST/non-NEST dichotomy. While participants acknowledged that their instructed AL-learning experiences held importance at an individual teacher level, they reported that these experiences had no impact on their professional standing within the TESOL sector. Instead, less-relevant features of ESOL teacher identity, like teachers' countries of origin, L1s, accents, and physical appearances, were privileged over their past instructed AL learning. Participants indicated that ESOL teachers originating from Kachru's inner-circle countries (Kachru, 1997, 2009), who spoke with native-English-speaking accents and were perceived as 'white', tended to receive preferential treatment over those who did not match these profiles. These preferences appeared to be rooted in a belief in the superiority of the native speaker of English in the field of English language teaching, a phenomenon often referred to as 'native-speakerism' (Holliday, 2015, 2017). Native-speakerism is a prejudicial fallacy that NESTs possess inherent superiority in the English language and TESOL knowledge, making them the ideal ESOL teachers (Holliday, 2015, 2017). Moreover, researchers such as Pennycook (1998, 2017) and Tupas (2022) have pointed out that British and American colonization during the last two centuries has led to linguistic consequences in various parts of the world. These consequences include linguistic inequalities between English and other languages and their

speakers, with native-speakerism being one such manifestation of these inequalities within the TESOL sector.

Participants' recollections of their experiences teaching in TESOL sectors in New Zealand and other countries indicated the presence of three manifestations of native-speakerism: country of origin and L1 prejudice, accent prejudice, and appearance prejudice. These forms of prejudice resulted in ESOL teachers being subjected to differential treatment and perceptions by employers, ELLs, and young ELLs' parents, particularly in private TESOL sectors across the globe where the participants had worked. The prejudice encountered by some ESOL teachers in the TESOL sector was rooted in native-speakerism. As such, the following sub-sections will first discuss native-speakerism, followed by discussions on country of origin and L1 prejudice (7.4.1), accent prejudice (7.4.2), and appearance prejudice (7.4.3) in the international and New Zealand TESOL sectors. It is important to note that while these different types of prejudice are discussed separately for clarity, there are instances of overlap and interplay among them. This section concludes by advocating for a reconceptualization of teacher identity that transcends the limiting NEST/non-NEST binary.

#### **7.4.1 *Native-Speakerism***

Previous research has examined native-speakerism as a fundamental factor contributing to prejudice against ESOL teachers (e.g., Holliday, 2015, 2017; Lowe & Kiczkowiak, 2016; Wang & Fang, 2020). However, this study extends the current understanding by demonstrating how ESOL teachers, representing diverse countries of origin, L1s, accents, and appearances, are impacted by this fallacy both in the hiring process and within the workforce. Notably, findings from this study indicated that the TESOL sector often failed to acknowledge the existence of ESOL teachers' past instructed AL learning and

plurilingual competence, a phenomenon also observed by E. Ellis (2016b). While earlier studies primarily fixated on the binary categorization of ESOL teachers as either ‘native’ or ‘non-native’, this often limited exploration of other aspects of teachers’ linguistic identities. In contrast, the data analyzed in this study showed that native-speakerism encompassed more than just ESOL teachers’ L1s. Furthermore, the findings underscored that the notion of native-speakerism resulted in some ESOL teachers experiencing unwarranted and unfair treatment from employers, ELLs, and, at times, the parents of young ELLs. In the following, I will discuss the findings related to the reported impact of native-speakerism in both the hiring process and during employment.

**Native-Speakerism in the Hiring Process.** A search of ESOL teacher recruitment advertisements in international and New Zealand TESOL sectors (see 1.3.3) and a review of the literature (e.g., Floris & Renandya, 2020; Mahboob et al., 2004; Mahboob & Golden, 2013) showed that having English as one’s L1 is perceived as a form of teaching ‘qualification’ in some parts of the world, particularly in Asia. It is important to note that while this study is based in New Zealand, the insights it presented were drawn from the experiences of ESOL teachers who had undergone past instructed AL learning and, in some cases, taught ESOL in various countries (e.g., China, South Korea, the Philippines). When asked about their perceptions of effective ESOL teachers, participants shared a unanimous view that such teachers should possess both experience in instructed AL learning and TESOL training. Specifically, they emphasized that being a native speaker of English does not guarantee TESOL knowledge and effective teaching skills. This notion aligns with the findings of various researchers (e.g., König et al., 2016; Reeves, 2009). For example, König et al. (2016) wrote that “a native speaker of English will not automatically constitute a professional EFL teacher in the context of a school in Germany” (p. 3).

Despite the alignment between the participants in this study and TESOL researchers regarding the lack of correlation between ESOL teachers' L1s and their TESOL knowledge and teaching skills, participants still recounted instances of witnessing or experiencing unjustifiable hiring practices related to merely ESOL teachers' L1s. These discriminatory hiring practices have also been documented in earlier studies (e.g., Clark & Paran, 2007; Mahboob & Golden, 2013). For example, Clark and Paran (2007) conducted research that explored perceptions of ESOL employers in the United Kingdom. Their findings indicated that over 70% of the 90 participating employers, representing both the private and tertiary TESOL sectors, considered 'native-English speaker' to be one of the most important criteria (Clark & Paran, 2007). However, the study also shows that ESOL teachers' citizenship, particularly British citizenship, was ranked as one of the least important criteria among these employers (Clark & Paran, 2007). This suggests they were possibly open to hiring ESOL teachers from other countries, particularly those classified as inner-circle countries (Kachru, 1997, 2009). Similarly, participants in this study reported encounters with employers who were specific about hiring NESTs, as exemplified by Lawrence's account: *I had the requirements where (pause) a degree in any discipline and plus coming from a native English (pause) being a native-English speaker (one-on-one interview).*

While Clark's and Paran's (2007) study did not explicitly clarify the reasons behind the employers' preference for NESTs, it may be linked to some employers' perceptions of the English proficiency levels of NESTs and non-NESTs. That is, they might view NESTs as ideal models of the English language while harboring doubts about the English proficiency levels of non-NESTs. Previous research has indeed documented instances of non-NESTs with lower English proficiency levels (e.g., I. Lee, 2004; Ling & Braine, 2007). For example, I. Lee (2004) found that the English proficiency of some non-NESTs had a negative impact on

ELLs' learning outcomes. However, while non-NESTs with lower English proficiency do exist, there are non-NESTs with high levels of English proficiency.

The findings also showed that the preferences of ELLs and, at times, their parents played a significant part in impacting the discriminatory hiring practices of teachers in the TESOL sector. This finding aligns with a study conducted by Kiczkowiak (2020), who examined the attitudes of 150 ESOL-teacher recruiters, including employers and school directors, in various Asian and European countries (e.g., Spain, France, China, and Indonesia) as well as Brazil. Despite recognizing the importance of ESOL teachers' teaching experiences and TESOL qualifications, nearly half of the recruiters still considered the NEST status of ESOL teachers' L1 important (Kiczkowiak, 2020). Moreover, Kiczkowiak's (2020) data suggests that some recruiters preferred NESTs due to concerns about potential negative reactions from ELLs when taught by non-NESTs. Kiczkowiak's (2020) assumption could be relevant to the present study, as recruiters in international and New Zealand TESOL sectors, particularly the private sector, might also consider similar factors when making hiring decisions.

**Native-Speakerism During Employment.** In addition to discriminatory hiring practices in the TESOL sector, participants reported that native-speakerism directly impacted some ESOL teachers during their employment, specifically in the form of pay discrimination. This discrimination involves NESTs receiving better compensation than non-NESTs solely due to their L1 English status, irrespective of relevant factors such as their levels of TESOL training, years of ESOL-teaching experience, whether they had formally learned an AL, or whether they have other languages. These findings align with the research of Ruecker and Ives (2015) and Erling (2017), who have also observed instances of pay discrimination in the TESOL sector stemming from native-speakerism. For example, Erling (2017) shared her experiences as an ESOL teacher in South Korea in an auto-ethnography, where she noted

differences in how Korean employers treated Korean ESOL teachers and NESTs. One difference she observed was that NESTs received higher pay than Korean ESOL teachers (Erling, 2017), which resonated with Catherine's recounts of her experiences with her former Korean employers, who exhibited pay discrimination by offering NESTs *a higher rate* (one-on-one interview).

Indeed, native-speakerism remains deeply entrenched in the TESOL sector, resulting in prejudice against ESOL teachers across various levels and sub-sectors (Holliday, 2015, 2017). Consistent with findings from prior research (e.g., Clark & Paran, 2007; Erling, 2017; Kiczkowiak, 2020), this study found that native-speakerism continues to favor NESTs in international TESOL sectors and the New Zealand private TESOL sector. Despite such favoritism toward NESTs, participants in this study expressed a contrasting viewpoint, asserting that non-NESTs were often better equipped with linguistic knowledge for ESOL teaching compared to NESTs due to their past instructed ESOL learning. This perception aligns with findings from previous research conducted by Walkinshaw and Oanh (2014), Moussu (2018), and Reeves (2009). For example, ELLs in Walkinshaw's and Oanh's (2014) study similarly reported their dissatisfaction with NESTs' ability to explain grammar concepts effectively, mirroring the observations made by participants in the present study. However, it remains unclear whether any of the NESTs observed by the ELLs in Walkinshaw's and Oanh's (2014) study had past instructed AL learning or possessed plurilingual competence. This perspective challenges the conventional belief that NESTs inherently possess superior language teaching skills in all aspects of ESOL instruction.

According to the participants in this study, NESTs who lacked linguistic knowledge for teaching ESOL were generally those who had not formally learned an AL. They also suggested that NESTs tended to lack past instructed AL learning. However, I argue that this is not entirely true, as there are NESTs with past instructed AL learning, including those in

this study. Furthermore, participants' widely held perception regarding NESTs' lack of instructed AL-learning experiences may have been impacted by the culture in the TESOL sector and TESOL occupational requirements. For example, the Teaching Council of Aotearoa New Zealand (2021a) does not require those who wish to teach ESOL in New Zealand to have past instructed AL learning (see 1.3). That is, ESOL teachers' experiences in instructed AL learning and proficiency in other languages do not impact their professional standing within the TESOL sector or the profession. Nonetheless, participants reported that NESTs with past instructed AL learning generally possessed more linguistic knowledge for ESOL teaching and were more proficient at providing their ELLs with grammar explanations than those without such language-learning experiences.

Participant responses highlight the importance of valuing ESOL teachers' experiences in instructed AL learning. However, the existing literature and the findings in this study suggested that the current occupational requirements in international and New Zealand TESOL sectors do not align with these values. Furthermore, native-speakerism seems to be a prominent issue, particularly in private TESOL sectors across various regions. This is a significant concern since the majority of participants had experience teaching in international and/or New Zealand private TESOL sectors. To date, there has been no detailed investigation into the authorization of NESTs with no AL-learning experiences "to teach students to do something – in this case, learn a second language [i.e., an AL]" (E. Ellis, 2004b, p. 105), something they have not done themselves.

#### ***7.4.2 Country of Origin and L1 Prejudice***

Country of origin and L1 prejudice, an extension of the fallacy of native-speakerism, is a prevalent form of bias that participants reported facing and witnessing in TESOL sectors in New Zealand and other countries. This prejudice manifests when TESOL employers, ELLs,

and young ELLs' parents demonstrate favoritism toward or discrimination against ESOL teachers based on teachers' countries of origin, typically determined by their citizenship status. It is worth noting that individuals' countries of origin may not always align with their current citizenship. For example, consider Deborah, a participant in this study originally from the Netherlands but now holding dual citizenship, Dutch and New Zealand. According to the participants' accounts, ESOL teachers hailing from inner-circle countries (Kachru, 1997, 2009) often received preferential treatment, irrespective of their L1(s). In contrast, teachers with 'other' nationalities were frequently overlooked, particularly in the international and New Zealand private sectors. This bias toward citizenship does not necessarily reflect the actual English language proficiency of ESOL teachers; rather, it is more closely linked to the passport they hold. However, participants did not provide explicit explanations for the underlying reasons driving the preference for ESOL teachers with inner-circle citizenship. Nevertheless, it is reasonable to assume that teachers' citizenship is often associated with their L1, although this connection is not always accurate. This assumption may lead some employers, ELLs, and parents of young ELLs to believe there is a correlation between ESOL teachers' citizenship and their L1. In the following discussion, I delve into the observed and perceived instances of country of origin and L1 prejudice by some employers, as well as how the preferences of ELLs' and young ELLs' parents for teachers from particular countries impacted the hiring process in private TESOL sectors.

Participants highlighted the importance some employers place on ESOL teachers' citizenship during the hiring process. They noted that these employers specifically favored teachers holding passports from countries where English is the dominant L1, i.e., the United Kingdom, the United States, Australia, Canada, Ireland, and New Zealand. This preference aligns with the observations made by various researchers who have also identified citizenship as a critical criterion in the recruitment of ESOL teachers (e.g., Daoud & Kasztalska, 2022;

Mahboob & Golden, 2013; Ruecker & Ives, 2015). For example, Daoud and Kasztalska (2022) found that ESOL teachers' citizenship serves as a benchmark for selecting job applications in the TESOL sector in the United Arab Emirates. Similarly, Mahboob et al. (2004) documented the existence of biases against ESOL teachers holding 'other' passports in the international TESOL sector, highlighting that such biases often result in discriminatory hiring practices. The significance of Mahboob et al.'s (2004) findings is noteworthy, as they closely align with those in this study.

Participants reported that the demands of ELLs and young ELLs' parents for teachers from inner-circle countries sometimes led to discriminatory hiring practices, particularly in international and New Zealand private TESOL sectors. They suggested that some employers complied with these demands due to business considerations. This aligns with previous studies that have also highlighted the business-oriented aspects of private TESOL sectors (e.g., Holliday, 2017; Kubota, 2019; Medgyes, 2001). For example, Medgyes (2001) argues that white ESOL teachers with citizenship from inner-circle countries are often perceived as being 'good for business' from the perspectives of private TESOL schools. However, Medgye (2001) did not specify the particular countries where he observed such attitudes. The recounts of participants in the present study reflect these business-oriented aspects, as they reported witnessing and/or experiencing unethical marketing practices by some employers in international and New Zealand private TESOL sectors. An example of such practices includes Bernice's employer requesting her to falsely claim that she was from an inner-circle country: *So, right now, with where I'm working [in New Zealand] (pause) um (pause) I'm supposed to adopt this (pause) you know, American persona (focus-group discussion).*

In the hiring process for ESOL teachers, there is often a conspicuous absence of inquiries into their language-learning experiences and plurilingual competency. Regrettably, these essential aspects of a teacher's professional development are frequently overlooked and

undervalued in the TESOL sector. Instead, the focus tends to shift towards less-relevant features of teacher identity, such as their countries of origin, L1s, and citizenship. This undue emphasis on these demographic factors tends to privilege these aspects over teacher knowledge, which includes their linguistic repertoires. This misalignment between what is prioritized and what is important in ESOL education underscores the need for a more comprehensive and equitable evaluation of ESOL teachers' TESOL knowledge and teaching practices.

### 7.4.3 *Accent Prejudice*

Another extension of the fallacy of native-speakerism, as stated by the participants, is accent prejudice. In this study, accent prejudice refers to the unjustified discrimination against or favoritism exhibited toward ESOL teachers based on their spoken English accent, whether it aligns with a desired or undesired accent. Participants reported instances of accent prejudice stemming from employers and ELLs in international TESOL sectors, including both public and private sectors.

Participants share instances where they encountered ELLs expressing a preference for native-English-speaking accents. Catherine's account illustrates this, where she discussed her Korean students in the Philippines specifically desiring an American accent, stating: "*I'd like to have the American accent*". *They were very specific* (one-on-one interview). These preferences align with findings by various researchers, including Y. Butler (2007), Rivers and Ross (2018), and Scales et al. (2006). For example, Y. Butler's (2007) research on young Korean ELLs indicated a preference for American-English accents. These learners associated ESOL teachers' English competence and TESOL knowledge with their accents (Y. Butler, 2007). However, it is worth noting that such associations were not evident in the present study.

Participants also expressed their understanding of ELLs' strong desire to learn native English accents. Jasmin's statement, *Yeah, definitely for students [i.e., ELLs], I think [non-native] accents are not acceptable* (one-on-one interview), reflects this perception. However, the participants did not explicitly delve into the reasons behind learners' preferences. Insights from previous studies may shed light on these motivations (e.g., Levis et al., 2016; Moussu & Llurda, 2008; Scales et al., 2006). For example, Scales et al.'s (2006) research on ELLs' perceptions of English accents suggested that learners' preference for native-English-speaking accents was driven by their aspiration to attain such accents. While these prior studies provide valuable context, the present study did not offer a comprehensive explanation for the learners' desires, highlighting the need for further research to explore the multifaceted nature of accent preferences among ELLs.

An intriguing observation from the participants was their recounting of experiences with ELLs' preference for native-English-speaking accents in private TESOL sectors in Asia, contrasted with their reports of not encountering similar preferences in the New Zealand TESOL sector. Specifically, they stated that they had not witnessed or personally experienced complaints from ELLs about the non-nativeness of their non-NESTs in New Zealand. However, this finding does not align with Kim's (2011) research findings. In Kim's (2011) study, which explored the impact of native-speakerism on three non-NESTs, she documented instances where the Korean ESOL teacher in her study received complaints from ELLs and their parents because she did not sound like a native speaker of English. Nevertheless, Kim's (2011) study did not specify the particular TESOL sector in which these complaints happened. These contrasting findings underscore the complexity of accent preferences among ELLs and the impact of various factors that may differ across contexts and regions within the TESOL sector.

The findings of this study showed a discrepancy in the impact of instructed AL-learning experiences on ESOL teachers' professional trajectories. While teachers' past instructed AL learning exerts significant influence at the individual teacher level, shaping their TESOL knowledge and teaching practices, these experiences seem to bear no consequential weight on teachers' professional standing within the TESOL profession or the broader TESOL sector. Instead, less relevant aspects of teacher identity, such as their English accents, are consistently prioritized over the valuable AL-learning experiences these teachers bring to their professional roles. This paradox highlights a systemic imbalance within the sector, where teachers' AL learning is undervalued in comparison to surface-level characteristics, undermining the potential for enriching and diversifying the TESOL profession.

#### **7.4.4 *Appearance Prejudice***

Appearance prejudice, an extension of the fallacy of native-speakerism, featured prominently in participants' recollections of prejudice in international public and private TESOL sectors, as well as the New Zealand private TESOL sector. Participants reported a prevailing misconception in these sectors that connected ESOL teachers' physical appearance, specifically their 'whiteness', with their L1s. In this study, the terms 'white' and 'whiteness' refer to individuals of European descent who exhibit stereotypical European facial features and skin tones. It is important to note that these terms do not necessarily align with individual ESOL teachers' self-identifications or their countries of origin and L1(s) but rather how they are perceived in specific sociocultural contexts, such as the TESOL sector.

In addition to linking ESOL teachers' appearances with their L1s, participants' recollections of appearance prejudice in the TESOL sector suggested that this bias extended beyond the physical aspects. Participants indicated that appearance prejudice was also

associated with perceptions of ESOL teachers' TESOL knowledge and teaching practices. This prejudice often resulted in discriminatory treatment during the hiring process or employment. Furthermore, participants highlighted the existence of a hierarchical structure within international public and private TESOL sectors, as well as the New Zealand private TESOL sector, where white NESTs received preferential treatment. These findings align with the research of Kubota and Fujimoto (2013) and Pennycook (2017). For example, Pennycook (2017) argues that 'whiteness' is deeply rooted in English language ideology, particularly in the TESOL sector, a perspective shared by Lawrence: *the association with what is considered a native-English speaker, and that's like a white face* (one-on-one interview).

It is important to acknowledge the counterargument that questions the existence of discriminatory practices, pointing out that non-white participants were indeed employed prior to and at the time of this study. In fact, other studies have consistently reported an overall preference for white teachers, particularly in private TESOL sectors worldwide (Flores & Rosa, 2019; Kubota & Fujimoto, 2013; Mahboob, 2009a). For example, Mahboob's (2009a) research had two significant findings. Firstly, the study highlighted the dominance of NESTs in the TESOL sector, where out of 1425 the ESOL teachers surveyed, only 107 were non-NESTs, representing approximately 8% of the total sample. Secondly, among these 107 non-NESTs, 56 were white, constituting 52% of the non-NESTs (Mahboob, 2009a). Therefore, Mahboob (2009a) concluded that white ESOL teachers are favored in the global TESOL sector regardless of their L1s. These findings align with the experiences reported by the participants in the current study, lending support to their claims.

Participants also reported instances of workplace discrimination stemming from appearance prejudice in the TESOL sector. Specifically, they reported cases of discriminatory pay scales where white and non-white ESOL teachers received different compensation for the same type of work. Notably, to the best of my knowledge, no prior research has explicitly

documented discriminatory pay scales in the TESOL sector solely based on ESOL teachers' facial features and skin tones. Nonetheless, such pay disparities have been reported by in-service ESOL teachers and journalists (e.g., Quinn, 2019; Wongsamuth, 2015). For example, Wongsamuth (2015), a journalist in Thailand, noted that despite a growing number of Filipino ESOL teachers working in the country's public and private TESOL sectors, their white colleagues (both NESTs and non-NESTs) received higher wages than they did. This aligns with the participants' experiences, such as Catherine's, who encountered discriminatory pay scales where her 'white-looking' mixed colleague received preferential compensation: *He got better pay (one-on-one interview)*.

Participants reported that appearance prejudice played a significant role in hiring and employment practices, often driven by the preferences and demands of ELLs and their parents for white ESOL teachers. It might be assumed that employers in the TESOL sector would prioritize the TESOL knowledge, teaching skills, and TESOL qualifications of ESOL teachers over their appearance. However, the participants' accounts indicated that some employers, particularly those in international and New Zealand private TESOL sectors, were primarily motivated by business considerations and did not place a high value on the teacher knowledge, skills, and qualifications for teaching ESOL. These employers appeared to face a dilemma, having to choose between satisfying their customers (i.e., their ELLs and young ELLs' parents) and maintaining the quality of education at their schools. Consequently, some employers opted for less qualified and inexperienced white NESTs over non-white ESOL teachers (both NESTs and non-NESTs) who were more qualified and experienced. Participants concluded that these decisions were driven by these employers' business interests. These findings align with the observations made by Medgyes (2001), who similarly concluded that white NESTs were perceived as commercially favorable in the sector.

The findings of this study highlight a significant disparity in how instructed AL-learning experiences impact the professional development of ESOL teachers. While these experiences contribute significantly to teachers' TESOL knowledge and teaching practices, they appear to have no discernible effect on their professional standing within the TESOL profession. Instead, the less-relevant aspects of teacher identity, specifically their appearance, particularly whether they are perceived as white or non-white, often take precedence over the valuable AL-learning experiences that these teachers bring to their professional roles. This imbalance within the profession underscores a systemic issue where the value of AL learning is underestimated, potentially impeding the field from fully capitalizing on the enriching potential of diverse language experiences.

This section discussed various forms of prejudice in international and New Zealand TESOL sectors, as reported by participants. As indicated at the outset of this section (7.4), although the types of prejudice were examined individually, they often intersected, showing that prejudice in the TESOL sector is a complex, multidimensional matter rooted in native-speakerism. Despite the expectation that educators, including ESOL teachers, should exhibit sensitivity and empathy when working with students from diverse linguistic, cultural, and ethnic backgrounds (Banks, 2006; Spiro, 2014), the participants' accounts suggested that equality for ESOL teachers of varying linguistic backgrounds, countries of origin, citizenship, accents, and appearances is frequently overlooked. The findings highlighted that ESOL teachers who do not conform to the specific profiles outlined in 7.4 are susceptible to prejudice, despite having valuable experiential knowledge of instructed AL learning, which shaped their TESOL knowledge and teaching practices.

## 7.5 Conclusion

The theoretical framings of ‘teacher knowledge’ and ‘teacher linguistic identity’ provide insight into how New Zealand-based ESOL teachers perceived the relationship between their past instructed AL learning, TESOL knowledge, teaching practices, and professional perceptions of the TESOL sector. Overall, the participants indicated a direct correlation between their past instructed AL learning and their TESOL knowledge and teaching practices. They highlighted how their experience formally learning an AL allowed them to gain valuable language-pedagogy insights, obtained through observing their former AL teachers, as well as English syntax for ESOL teaching. Furthermore, participants emphasized the importance of their English syntactic knowledge, as they felt that it enabled them to teach English grammar effectively, although ESOL teaching encompasses more than just grammar teaching.

Participants deliberately incorporating their experiential knowledge of instructed AL learning to avoid, supplement, alter, or replicate particular teaching practices their former AL teachers enacted. These incorporations were categorized into four types: non-incorporation, incorporation of assumed good practices, partial incorporation, and incorporation. These variations of incorporation were employed by participants with the goal of enhancing the effectiveness of ESOL learning and teaching.

Furthermore, participants’ language-learning experiences enhanced their empathy for ELLs. It is widely acknowledged that ESOL teachers’ empathy for and empathetic responses to their students are crucial factors in successful ESOL learning and teaching (e.g., E. Ellis, 2004a; Moodie, 2016; Wright-Maley & Green, 2015). This study identified two phases of empathy as reflective empathy and enacted empathy. Overall, this study reinforces

the notion that ESOL teachers' past instructed AL learning enhances their levels of empathy for ELLs, subsequently benefiting their effectiveness as educators.

As mentioned earlier, participants' recollections of their experiences as ESOL teachers with TESOL experiences in New Zealand, and in some cases, in other countries, contributed to the data. These recollections suggested that the three types of prejudice, i.e., country of origin and L1, accent, and appearance, were underpinned by native-speakerism in the TESOL sector. Participants' accounts of encountering prejudice in the hiring process and during employment broadly aligned with existing literature. What set this study apart from previous ones is the finer-grained analysis of these forms prejudice, examining each from the perspectives of employers, ELLs, and the parents of young ELLs. Furthermore, it became apparent that ELLs and their parents may have been a major cause of discriminatory hiring practices in international and New Zealand private TESOL sectors, given that ELLs and their parents were perceived as 'customers'.

An uncomfortable reality brought to light by the accounts of participants in this study is that, in international and New Zealand private TESOL sectors, some employers may resort to cater to student-customers and safeguard their business interests. In doing so, they favor some ESOL teachers whilst discriminating against others based on their countries of origin and L1s, accents, and appearances. These findings align with Mahboob's (2009b) argument that the TESOL sector often "gives preferential treatment to White native speakers of English" (p. 29). Unfortunately, such preferential treatment was witnessed and experienced by participants in the New Zealand private TESOL sector. Although the findings in this study are based on the recollections of a small group of New Zealand-based ESOL teachers ( $n = 14$ ) and cannot be extrapolated to encompass all international and New Zealand TESOL sectors, it is imperative for schools within these sectors to be vigilant and proactive in addressing practices that can foster discrimination to protect and repair the reputation of these sectors.

In the ever-evolving landscape of ESOL education, it becomes imperative to reevaluate the traditional NEST/non-NEST dichotomy and advocate for a more relevant and useful teacher identity position: teachers' plurilingual identity. This paradigm shift is necessary due to the globalized nature of English, where ELLs engage with individuals from diverse linguistic backgrounds. This necessitates that teachers possess an understanding of and capacity to address learners' unique needs. The theoretical framings of 'teacher knowledge' and 'teacher linguistic identity' recognize and value ESOL teachers' insights gain through their past instructed AL learning, challenging the prejudicial concept of native-speakerism. Moreover, it aligns with contemporary research emphasizing plurilingualism and supports ongoing professional development, fostering a culture of continuous learning in language education.

## **Chapter Eight: Conclusion**

### **8.1 Introduction**

In AL education, one main aim revolves around developing plurilingual competence and identities among learners. This educational imperative underscores the pivotal functions assumed by ESOL teachers who bring their knowledge and linguistic identities into the classroom. The theoretical framings of ‘teacher knowledge’ and ‘teacher linguistic identity’ serve as lenses to examine the potential impact of New Zealand-based ESOL teachers’ instructed AL-learning experiences on their professional roles. Findings showed that these experiences reportedly informed the participants’ TESOL knowledge, teaching practices, and perceptions of their professional stances in the TESOL sector.

This concluding chapter provides the aim and approach of this study (8.2), summarizes and concludes the key findings in response to the research questions (8.3), and presents contributions of the key findings to the literature and information to stakeholders in the TESOL sectors (8.4). Section 8.5 evaluates the limitations of this study. Finally, 8.6 recommends directions for further research.

### **8.2 Research Aim and Approach**

In this study, ‘teacher knowledge’ and ‘teacher linguistic identity’ operated as theoretical framings that offered insights into the complex relationship between how ESOL teachers’ past instructed AL learning shaped their TESOL knowledge, teaching practices, and perceptions of their positions in the profession. I chose to involve ESOL teachers who had formally learned an AL because previous studies primarily focused on the NEST/non-NEST dichotomy (e.g., Braine, 2010; Moussu, 2018; Walkinshaw & Oanh, 2014). However, I find such categorization problematic and feel it has nothing to offer the profession, as ESOL

teachers' L1 linguistic identities may not necessarily be relevant to their TESOL knowledge and teaching practices. Furthermore, studies focusing on distinguishing NESTs and non-NESTs tend to portray NESTs as monolinguals who lacked past instructed AL learning. E. Ellis (2004b, 2016a, 2016b) argues that the TESOL sector often overlooks the ALs that NESTs may possess. This portrayal of 'monolingual NESTs' is inaccurate, as members of this teacher group may have had instructed AL-learning experiences or could have been "circumstantial plurilingual" (E. Ellis, 2016b, p.59) from a young age due to their linguistic identities or immigrant background.

Moreover, my prior experience as an ESOL teacher trainer in South Korea allowed me to observe ESOL teachers from similar L1 backgrounds displaying varying levels of TESOL knowledge and diverse teaching practices. This observation piqued my curiosity about the factors that might account for these differences. Specifically, I wondered if, among other potential factors (e.g., TESOL training, cultural backgrounds, personality traits), ESOL teachers' past instructed AL learning and plurilingual identities, regardless of their L1s, played a prominent role in shaping their TESOL knowledge and teaching practices.

Upon reviewing existing literature in applied linguistics, I found evidence suggesting a correlation between ESOL teachers' past instructed AL learning and their teaching (e.g., Cancino et al., 2020; Moodie, 2016), particularly concerning their perspectives on effective AL teaching. Furthermore, these studies validated my assumptions about variations in perceptions among AL learners. Such differences arise from the non-linear nature of AL-learning processes, where AL learners exhibit discrepancies in factors like their learning needs, learning styles, cognitive capacity, and motivation. Consequently, the literature directed my focus toward how New Zealand-based ESOL teachers perceived the reported impact of their instructed AL-learning experiences on their teaching practices.

While this study was not the first to explore the relationships between AL teachers' (including ESOL teachers') past language learning and their teaching practices, previous research in this area primarily focused on specific teaching practices, such as oral and written feedback techniques (e.g., Phipps & Borg, 2009; Wei & Cao, 2020). In an effort to build upon existing research, I examined the relationship between ESOL teachers' past instructed AL learning, TESOL knowledge, and teaching practices. By taking this broader approach, I aimed to explore the rich connections that New Zealand-based ESOL teachers perceived between their language-learning experiences and their professional roles, which may not have been apparent if the study had solely focused on the reported impact of their past instructed AL learning on specific teaching practices.

In addition to examining participants' TESOL knowledge and teaching practices, another critical aspect of teachers' professional roles was their standing within the TESOL sector. To gain a deeper understanding of the intricate relationship between ESOL teachers' past instructed AL learning (including their linguistic identities) and professional standing, I investigated how this learning shaped their professional perceptions at both individual and TESOL-sector levels. It is worth noting that while the participants in this study were New Zealand-based ESOL teachers, their recollections of their perceptions drew from their TESOL experiences both within New Zealand and overseas. These perspectives provided a diverse and multifaceted view of the topic, enhancing its relevance and applicability to the field of TESOL.

IPA, a qualitative approach to research, proved most suitable for achieving the aim of this study as it allowed participants to share their perspectives on the connections between their past instructed AL learning and professional roles as ESOL teachers. Data collection methods included focus-group discussions, semi-structured one-on-one interviews, and follow-up emails, which generated rich data for analysis and provided insight into

participants' insider perspectives of their lived experiences as ESOL teachers with past instructed AL learning. Moreover, IPA facilitated an examination of participants' understanding of how their past instructed AL learning reportedly impacted their TESOL knowledge, the incorporation (or lack thereof) of this learning into their ESOL teaching practices, and their perceptions of their professional standing in the TESOL sector. Therefore, the analysis relied on participants' recollections and my interpretations of the data, following a double-hermeneutic approach (Smith & Osborn, 2008). Additionally, IPA's idiographic nature during data analysis allowed for an exploration of participants' unique perspectives on how their past instructed AL learning contributed to their professional roles as ESOL teachers. The key findings of this study are presented below.

### **8.3 Key Findings**

The research captured convergent and divergent perceptions in participants' recounts of their experiences. By applying the analytical steps within IPA (see 3.7 for the explanation of the steps), three main themes emerged:

- past instructed AL learning and its reported impact on ESOL teaching;
- enhanced empathy for English language learners (ELLs); and
- teachers' perceptions of the TESOL profession.

All three main themes addressed the overarching research question (ORQ), the first main theme addressed the first sub-question (SQ1), the first and second main themes addressed SQ2, and the third main theme addressed SQ3. This study has demonstrated that participants' past instructed AL learning had a positively reported impact and was valuable for their professional roles as ESOL teachers.

### ***8.3.1 Reported Impact of Past Instructed AL Learning on TESOL Knowledge and Teaching Practices***

Participants, regardless of their L1 background, reported that their past learning contributed to their TESOL knowledge and teaching practices. This finding holds importance because a prevailing public perception is that NESTs may not require experience in learning an AL, given their native fluency in the language they teach. However, findings in this study challenge this perception, as participants reported several advantages of teaching ESOL with instructed AL-learning experiences.

One of the reported advantages of participants' instructed AL-learning experiences was the enhancement of their TESOL knowledge, particularly their linguistic knowledge for teaching ESOL. This formal language learning allowed them to analyze language structures, such as grammar and syntax, in their L1s and AL(s). Consequently, they were better equipped to provide their students with clear and effective grammatical explanations, setting them apart from ESOL teachers who lacked language-learning experiences.

Another advantage, as reported by both NEST and non-NEST participants, was their linguistic awareness. Specifically, for some participants, this awareness involved their linguistic knowledge of their ELLs' L1s. This knowledge enabled them to anticipate potential challenges that ELLs from particular L1 backgrounds may encounter, thereby allowing them to provide targeted assistance to their students as needed.

Finally, gaining pedagogical insights was a third reported advantage of participants' instructed AL learning. This advantage emerged as they observed their former teachers' teaching practices firsthand. This exposure informed their pedagogical decisions and teaching practices, leading them to discard, supplement, modify, or adopt particular practices they

experienced as AL learners. Consequently, participants' experiential knowledge of instructed AL learning enhanced their TESOL knowledge and teaching practices.

### ***8.3.2 Reported Impact of Past Instructed AL Learning on Empathy for English Language Learners (ELLs)***

Empathy is a quality that ideally all teachers possess, but participants reported that their instructed AL-learning experiences enhanced their sense of empathy for and empathetic responses toward their students. They attributed this heightened empathy to their shared experiences with language learners. Furthermore, participants highlighted the importance of having firsthand experiences of instructed AL-learning processes, whether those experiences were positive or negative.

Participants' empathy for ELLs consisted of two phases, which were termed 'reflective empathy' and 'enacted empathy' in this study. Reflective empathy was evident when participants reportedly reflected on their prior instructed AL learning upon observing their students having similar learning experiences. On occasion, participants applied their enacted empathy through empathetic responses to their students after reflecting on their past instructed AL learning, i.e., reflective empathy. These responses took the form of teaching practices aimed at benefiting their students cognitively and emotionally, such as extending their patience during instruction and sharing stories of their own struggles as former language learners. Participants reported that the reflective and enacted empathy they developed through their experiential knowledge of instructed AL learning was made possible due to these learning experiences.

### ***8.3.3 Reported Professional Standing in the TESOL Sector***

Participants' perceptions of their professional standing as ESOL teachers, despite reporting positive impacts on their TESOL knowledge and teaching practices resulting from their past instructed AL learning, indicated that these experiences had no bearing on their standing in the TESOL sector. Instead, the predominant trend within the sector often emphasized less-relevant aspects of teacher identities, with the NEST/non-NEST dichotomy taking precedence due to the prevalence of native-speakerism. In practice, this led to prejudice in hiring practices and employment in international and New Zealand TESOL sectors, particularly the private sector, where some ESOL teachers were favored while others faced discrimination. The findings suggested an overall preference in the private TESOL sector for ESOL teachers from Kachru's inner-circle countries (Kachru, 1997, 2009), those with stereotypical European features and skin tones, and those who spoke with native-English-speaking accents. These preferences appeared to stem from native-speakerism, resulting in three types of prejudice in the TESOL sector: country of origin and L1, accent, and appearance prejudice. The research also found that participants who did not align with these preferred profiles encountered prejudice in the sector despite possessing experiential knowledge of instructed AL learning, plurilingual competence, and enhanced empathy for their students.

Participants reported instances of country of origin and L1 prejudice in their experiences teaching ESOL in international and New Zealand TESOL sectors, with a particular emphasis on occurrences at private language schools. The findings indicated that ESOL teachers from the United Kingdom, the United States, Ireland, Canada, Australia, and New Zealand were often accorded a special status. This form of prejudice was associated with discriminatory hiring practices and salary inequality, privileging ESOL teachers from these countries.

Participants also described their experiences with accent prejudice in international and New Zealand private TESOL sectors, which manifested as a general preference for ESOL teachers with native-English-speaking accents. Further, they noted a prevailing inclination for North American accents among East Asian ELLs and British accents among New Zealand-based employers.

Finally, participants reported instances of appearance prejudice during their employment in the international and New Zealand private TESOL sectors. They perceived a preference for white NESTs and, at times, white non-NESTs over non-white ESOL teachers. It was also observed that appearance prejudice was frequently a business consideration for employers.

Therefore, based on the insights of participants, it can be inferred that in the recruitment process for the international and New Zealand private TESOL sectors, ESOL teachers' countries of origin, L1s, accents, and appearances often outweigh their TESOL knowledge and teaching practices. Furthermore, the data showed that participants held the perception that ELLs' preferences for ESOL teachers who aligned with these specific profiles (i.e., white NESTs with native English-speaking accents) may have contributed to discriminatory hiring practices in the private TESOL sector. Consequently, instead of fixating on attributes unrelated to ESOL teachers' knowledge and skills to teach ESOL, decision-makers in the private TESOL sector should direct their attention toward more pertinent and valuable aspects of teacher identity than teachers' countries of origin, L1, accents, and appearance. That is, they should prioritize the value of ESOL teachers' past AL-learning experiences and plurilingual competence, as the conventional NEST/non-NEST distinction does not contribute to the advancement of the profession.

#### 8.4 Contributions of the Study

This study offers multifaceted contributions encompassing theoretical, methodological, empirical, and practical dimensions. Theoretical significance arises from its challenge to conventional perspectives, which prioritize ESOL teachers' countries of origin and L1, emphasizing instead the reported impact of instructed AL-learning experiences on TESOL knowledge and teaching practices. This necessitates a reevaluation of existing theoretical frameworks in teacher preparation and development, shifting focus from ESOL teachers' countries of origin and L1s as determinants of pedagogical abilities to recognizing the substantial impact of their past instructed AL learning on TESOL knowledge and practices. Additionally, the study contributes to the literature on 'teacher knowledge' (e.g., Reeves, 2009; Sanchez, 2014) and the 'apprenticeship of observation' (e.g., Lortie, 1975; Moodie, 2016) by highlighting the considerable importance of experiential knowledge gained through AL-learning experiences. It recognizes that such experiential knowledge, a component of teachers' linguistic identities, significantly shapes their professional roles, thereby challenging and broadening prevailing perspectives on the origins and dimensions of 'teacher knowledge'. This research also enriches the literature on 'teacher linguistic identity' by highlighting the dynamic nature of linguistic identity, which continuously evolves in response to experiences impacting TESOL knowledge and teaching practices. The study enriches the existing literature on 'teacher linguistic identity' by underscoring the dynamic nature of linguistic identity, which evolves in response to experiences that exert a tangible impact on teaching practices. This contribution deepens the understanding of how linguistic identity is not a static construct but one that is continuously shaped and reshaped by teachers' experiences, impacting how they approach and engage in their teaching roles. Furthermore, the research extends the existing literature on the 'apprenticeship of observation' in language

teacher cognition, providing a deeper exploration of how teachers' learning experiences impact their cognitive processes and practices within the context of AL learning.

In terms of methodology, this study employed interpretative phenomenological analysis (IPA), which was innovative in providing an in-depth qualitative exploration of New Zealand-based ESOL teachers' perceptions and experiences. This approach offered rich, context-specific insights into the complex interplay between teachers' instructed AL-learning experiences and their professional roles, as perceived from the participants' perspectives. What was innovative about this approach was its capacity to delve deeply into the subjective experiences and perspectives of these teachers, allowing for a nuanced and contextually deep understanding of the connections between their past instructed AL learning and their TESOL knowledge, teaching practices, and perceived stances in the TESOL sector. This depth of exploration contributed to the field by offering a more profound understanding of the intricate dynamics involved.

Empirically, this research offers context-specific insights into the New Zealand ESOL sector, shedding light on the experiences of ESOL teachers in this unique setting, thereby contributing to a more nuanced understanding of language education on a global scale. Moreover, it validates the experiential knowledge gained through AL learning as a valuable asset for ESOL teachers, particularly within the New Zealand context, where such validation had been relatively unexplored.

On a practical level, the study underscores the importance of ESOL teachers' instructed AL-learning experiences in enriching their TESOL knowledge and teaching practices. This revelation offers invaluable guidance for the refinement of teacher training programs and the design of professional development initiatives, ensuring that educators are

adequately equipped with the experiential knowledge necessary for effective language instruction.

Furthermore, this study addresses the pressing issue of prejudice in the hiring process within the private TESOL sector. It calls for discriminatory practices related to teachers' countries of origin, L1s, accents, and appearances. In doing so, it urges decision-makers to reinforce policies that adopt more equitable and relevant criteria for the recruitment of ESOL teachers.

### **8.5 Limitations of this Study**

This study examined the intricate relationship between the participants' past instructed AL learning, TESOL knowledge, teaching practices, and professional perceptions at both individual and TESOL-sector levels. While it contributes to the existing literature and provides valuable insights for future research and ESOL teachers, the investigation does have conceptual and methodological limitations. The following part discusses these limitations respectively.

One of the primary conceptual limitations of this study is its potential lack of generalizability. It focuses specifically on ESOL teachers in the New Zealand context, providing valuable insights for this setting. However, caution must be exercised when applying these findings to other educational contexts, as the ESOL landscape can vary significantly between countries. What holds true in New Zealand may not necessarily apply universally.

Additionally, the study highlights the importance of teacher knowledge gained through instructed AL-learning experiences but does not explicitly explore the boundaries or limitations of this experiential knowledge when compared to more formal pedagogical

knowledge. This omission represents a missed opportunity to provide insights into how these two knowledge sources could provide a deeper understanding of their relative impacts on ESOL-teaching practices.

The study also did not closely examine whether the time elapsed between participants' instructed AL learning and their ESOL teaching shaped their perceptions of the reported impact of their experiences as former AL learners on their TESOL knowledge and teaching practices, which could have revealed valuable insights.

From a methodological perspective, a notable limitation is the potential for recall bias, as the study relied on participants' recollections of their past instructed AL learning experiences. Participants may not accurately remember or fully represent their past experiences. Employing a longitudinal approach or triangulating data from different sources may mitigate this limitation.

## **8.6 Recommendation for Future Research**

Although my study has revealed in depth the perceptions of New Zealand-based ESOL teachers regarding the relationships between their language-learning experiences and their TESOL knowledge and teaching practices, there is always more to explore. One area for future research, which emanates from a limitation of this study, is the dual focus on ESOL teachers' past instructed AL learning and their TESOL training. As both are considered vital components in ESOL education and teacher education, simultaneously focusing on AL learning and TESOL training could provide researchers with a thorough understanding of their interrelationships.

Another area for future research is conducting longitudinal studies that span an extended period and offer an opportunity to gain in-depth insights into the impact of

instructed AL-learning experiences on ESOL teachers' careers. Future research could conduct longitudinal studies to explore how the impact of instructed AL-learning experiences evolves over time. Initially, researchers could examine how these experiences impact teachers' TESOL knowledge, teaching practices, and perceptions in the early stages of their careers. This might include assessing changes in their teacher beliefs and teaching practices.

Finally, another area for future research is to investigate the impact of NESTs' past instructed AL learning on student outcomes. Future researchers could design empirical studies that compare the academic performance and language proficiency gains of ELLs taught by NESTs who have undergone instructed language learning with those taught by teachers who have not had such experiences. These studies can employ both quantitative and qualitative research methods to provide a comprehensive understanding of the relationship.

This study has provided new insights into the intricate relationship between instructed AL-learning experiences and the professional roles of ESOL teachers within the New Zealand context. It has not only highlighted the need for changes within the TESOL sector but also advocated for a shift away from the traditional NEST/non-NEST binary. Instead, it emphasizes the importance of ESOL teachers being experienced AL learners, irrespective of their L1, as this perspective offers a more comprehensive and valuable contribution to the profession.

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## Appendix A

### *AUTEC Ethics Approval Letter*



#### AUTEC Secretariat

Auckland University of Technology  
 D-88, WU406 Level 4 WU Building City Campus  
 T: +64 9 921 9999 ext. 8316  
 E: [ethics@aut.ac.nz](mailto:ethics@aut.ac.nz)  
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3 May 2016

Irmengard Wohlfart  
 Faculty of Culture and Society

Dear Irmengard

Re Ethics Application: **16/140 A phenomenological study of the lived experiences of bilingual-bicultural ESOL teachers in intercultural classroom settings.**

Thank you for providing evidence as requested, which satisfies the points raised by the Auckland University of Technology Ethics Subcommittee (AUTEC).

Your ethics application has been approved for three years until 2 May 2019.

As part of the ethics approval process, you are required to submit the following to AUTEC:

- A brief annual progress report using form EA2, which is available online through <http://www.aut.ac.nz/researchethics>. When necessary this form may also be used to request an extension of the approval at least one month prior to its expiry on 2 May 2019;
- A brief report on the status of the project using form EA3, which is available online through <http://www.aut.ac.nz/researchethics>. This report is to be submitted either when the approval expires on 2 May 2019 or on completion of the project.

It is a condition of approval that AUTEC is notified of any adverse events or if the research does not commence. AUTEC approval needs to be sought for any alteration to the research, including any alteration of or addition to any documents that are provided to participants. You are responsible for ensuring that research undertaken under this approval occurs within the parameters outlined in the approved application.

AUTEC grants ethical approval only. If you require management approval from an institution or organisation for your research, then you will need to obtain this. If your research is undertaken within a jurisdiction outside New Zealand, you will need to make the arrangements necessary to meet the legal and ethical requirements that apply there.

To enable us to provide you with efficient service, please use the application number and study title in all correspondence with us. If you have any enquiries about this application, or anything else, please do contact us at [ethics@aut.ac.nz](mailto:ethics@aut.ac.nz)

All the very best with your research,

Kate O'Connor  
 Executive Secretary  
 Auckland University of Technology Ethics Committee

Cc: Rohan Willis [rohan.willis78@gmail.com](mailto:rohan.willis78@gmail.com), Ineke Creeze

## Appendix B

### *AUTEC Ethics Approval Letter for Amendment*



#### AUTEC Secretariat

Auckland University of Technology  
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28 March 2017

Irmengard Wohlfart  
 Faculty of Culture and Society

Dear Irmengard

Re: Ethics Application: **16/140 A phenomenological study of the lived experiences of bilingual-bicultural ESOL teachers in intercultural classroom settings.**

Thank you for your request for approval of an amendment to your ethics application.

The amendment to the data collection protocols to include focus groups is approved.

I remind you that as part of the ethics approval process, you are required to submit the following to the Auckland University of Technology Ethics Committee (AUTEC):

- A brief annual progress report using form EA2, which is available online through <http://www.aut.ac.nz/researchethics>. When necessary this form may also be used to request an extension of the approval at least one month prior to its expiry on 2 May 2019;
- A brief report on the status of the project using form EA3, which is available online through <http://www.aut.ac.nz/researchethics>. This report is to be submitted either when the approval expires on 2 May 2019 or on completion of the project.

It is a condition of approval that AUTEC is notified of any adverse events or if the research does not commence. AUTEC approval needs to be sought for any alteration to the research, including any alteration of or addition to any documents that are provided to participants. You are responsible for ensuring that research undertaken under this approval occurs within the parameters outlined in the approved application.

AUTEC grants ethical approval only. If you require management approval from an institution or organisation for your research, then you will need to obtain this. If your research is undertaken within a jurisdiction outside New Zealand, you will need to make the arrangements necessary to meet the legal and ethical requirements that apply there.

To enable us to provide you with efficient service, please use the application number and study title in all correspondence with us. If you have any enquiries about this application, or anything else, please do contact us at [ethics@aut.ac.nz](mailto:ethics@aut.ac.nz).

All the very best with your research,

Kate O'Connor  
 Executive Secretary  
 Auckland University of Technology Ethics Committee

Cc: [rohan.willis78@gmail.com](mailto:rohan.willis78@gmail.com); Ineke Crezee

## Appendix C

### *Participant Information Sheet (Approved in May 2016)*



## Participant Information Sheet

**Date Information Sheet Produced:** 19 April 2016

**Project Title:** *A Phenomenological Study of the Lived Experiences of Bilingual-Bicultural ESOL Teachers in Intercultural Classroom Settings*

### **An Invitation**

Kia ora! My name is Rohan Willis and I am currently a PhD candidate at Auckland University of Technology in the School of Language and Culture. I would like to invite you to participate in this research. In this study, I intend to explore how one's language abilities and cultural identities are perceived in intercultural classroom settings through interviews. As a bilingual-bicultural ESOL teacher, you are in an ideal position to contribute valuable first hand information from your own perspective.

The interview will take around 45 to 60 minutes. My aim is to capture your thoughts and viewpoints on your lived cross-cultural experiences with students as a bilingual-bicultural ESOL teacher. Your responses to interview questions will remain confidential and both you and the interview will be assigned a code/fictitious name to ensure that your identity will not be revealed.

As a member of this underrepresented population myself, I believe that your participation will be a valuable addition to my research and findings would lead to greater understanding of ESOL education in this ever-changing world that we are living in.

If you would like to participate, please contact me and suggest a day, time, and place that best suits you. Should you have any questions, please feel free to ask.

Thank you.

Sincerely yours,

Rohan Willis

### **What is the purpose of this research?**

Researchers have suggested that the key to the success of intercultural communication lies in the roles and beliefs of teachers. However, there is insufficient research into how bilingual-bicultural ESOL teachers view their experiences in intercultural classroom settings. This research aims to close this research gap through exploring the cross-cultural experiences of bilingual-bicultural ESOL teachers with their students. I am particularly interested in your views of the way(s) that your spoken languages and cultural identities affect your intercultural experiences with students.

### **How was I identified and why am I being invited to participate in this research?**

You are invited to participate in this study because you have responded to the participant recruitment advertisement and/or you have been identified as a bilingual-bicultural ESOL teacher.

### **What will happen in this research?**

The research will be conducted in form of an interview, which will take between 45 to 60 minutes to complete. If you agree to take part in it, I shall contact you. We will arrange a time to meet that is convenient for you (e.g., library, AUT study room, or another place). There will be an interview with myself and the interview will be audio-recorded.



TE WĀNANGA AROHUI  
O TĀMAKI MAKĀU RAU

### What are the discomforts and risks?

There are no risks or disadvantages of taking part in this research study, as I will protect your confidentiality. All of the information you give will be anonymized so that those reading the final report of the study will not be able to identify you. As you will be asked to share your intercultural experiences with your students, such information may recall unpleasant memories. If you feel uncomfortable, you may choose not to answer a particular question or withdraw your participation and/or data from the study 3 weeks after the interview.

### What are the benefits?

You may find the project interesting and the result of the study may provide you with a better understanding of what other bilingual-bicultural ESOL have gone through. Your participation may also benefit future ESOL teachers and students by helping researchers understand how bilingual-bicultural ESOL teachers view their intercultural experiences with their students, which is useful to teacher training programs.

### How will my privacy be protected?

If you agree to take part, your contact details and the information that you provide will be strictly confidential as only my supervisors and I will have access to the consent forms and the data. Once the project has been completed, the forms and the data will be securely stored in separate cabinets in the School of Languages and Culture at AUT to be destroyed after a period of 6 years. Your responses to the interview questions will be used for the purpose of this research study only. You can be assured that no material that could personally identify you will be used in the transcripts or the final report.

### What are the costs of participating in this research?

Other than your time, there is no cost to you for participating in this study. The interview will take 40 to 60 minutes.

### What opportunity do I have to consider this invitation?

From when you receive the invitation, you will have 3 weeks to consider this invitation. If you are interested in participating, please contact me as soon as possible.

### How do I agree to participate in this research?

If you wish to participate in this study, please contact me with your preferred date and time via email at: [gyv8330@autuni.ac.nz](mailto:gyv8330@autuni.ac.nz) or phone at: 022 657 1457. Prior to the interview, you will be required to complete a Consent Form. This will be provided.

### Will I receive feedback on the results of this research?

If you would like to receive the results of this study, I shall write up a summary and send it to you via email. The results will also be included in a PhD thesis.

### What do I do if I have concerns about this research?

Any concerns regarding the nature of this project should be notified in the first instance to the Primary Project Supervisor, Irmengard Wohlfart, [iwohlfart@aut.ac.nz](mailto:iwohlfart@aut.ac.nz), and 09 921 9999 ext 6125.

Concerns regarding the conduct of the research should be notified to the Executive Secretary of AUTEC, Kate O'Connor, [ethics@aut.ac.nz](mailto:ethics@aut.ac.nz), 09 921 9999 ext 6038.

### Whom do I contact for further information about this research?

Please keep this information Sheet and a copy of the Consent Form for your future reference. You are also able to contact the research team as follows:



TE WĀNANGA ARONUI  
O TĀMAKI MAKĀU RAU

**Researcher Contact Details:**

Rohan Willis: [gyv8330@autuni.ac.nz](mailto:gyv8330@autuni.ac.nz) 022 657 1457

**Project Supervisors Contact Details:**

Dr. Irmengard Wohlfart: [iwohlfart@aut.ac.nz](mailto:iwohlfart@aut.ac.nz) 09 921 9999 ext 6125

Dr. Ineke Crezee: [ineke.crezee@aut.ac.nz](mailto:ineke.crezee@aut.ac.nz) 09 921 9999 ext 6825

*Approved by the Auckland University of Technology Ethics Committee on 03/05/2016*

*AUTEC Reference number 16/140*

## Appendix D

*Amended Participant Information Sheet (Approved in March 2017)*



TE WĀNANGA ARONUI  
O TĀMAKI MAKĀU RAU

### Participant Information Sheet

**Date Information Sheet Produced:** 26 March 2017

**Project Title:** *A Phenomenological Study: The Lived Experiences of Bilingual ESOL Teachers in Intercultural Classroom Settings*

#### An Invitation

Kia ora!

My name is Rohan Willis. I am a PhD student at Auckland University of Technology in the School of Language and Culture. I am working on a research project looking at the effect(s) of bilingualism. I would like to invite you to participate in my research study, which is concerned with your lived intercultural classroom experiences as a bilingual ESOL teacher. I am also interested in how your cultural self-identification affects your intercultural interactions with students in classroom settings.

#### What is the purpose of this research?

This study aims to understand the lived intercultural communication experiences of bilingual educators who teach ESOL. Through this research, my goal is to provide useful information for institutions involved in ESOL education and teacher training as well as both current and future ESOL teachers. I am particularly interested in your views of the way(s) that your spoken languages and self-cultural identity/identities affect your intercultural experiences with students.

#### How was I identified and why am I being invited to participate in this research?

You have been chosen for this study because you are a bilingual ESOL teacher with intercultural classroom experiences.

#### What will happen in this research?

The data collection methods for this study will be focus groups and individual interviews. Focus group discussions with other bilingual ESOL teachers and me will take between 60 to 90 minutes. Each one-on-one interview will take 45 to 60 minutes. This will be one, single interview with myself. Both focus group discussions and interviews will be audio-recorded. It is solely your choice to participate in either one or both sessions. If you agree to take part, please let me know. I shall contact you and we will arrange the most suitable and convenient time(s) to meet (e.g., library, AUT study room, or another place).

#### What are the discomforts and risks?

There are no risks or disadvantages of taking part in this research study, as I will protect your confidentiality. All of the information you give will be anonymized so that those reading the final report of the study will not be able to identify you. As you will be asked to share your intercultural experiences with your students, such information may recall unpleasant memories.

#### How will these discomforts and risks be alleviated?

If you feel uncomfortable, you may choose not to answer a particular question or withdraw your participation and/or data from the study 3 weeks after the focus group discussion or the one-on-one interview. AUT also

provides free counselling in case you would like to talk about such unpleasant memories brought up through the interview.

### What are the benefits?

You may find the project interesting and the result of the study may provide you with a better understanding of what other bilingual ESOL teachers have gone through. Your participation may also benefit future ESOL teachers and students by helping researchers understand how bilingual ESOL teachers view their intercultural experiences with their students, which is useful to teacher training programs.

### How will my privacy be protected?

#### Focus Groups

If you choose to participate, you will not be asked your name at the focus group. If by chance you or someone you know addresses you by your real name in the session, I will delete all the names from the transcription and replace them with pseudonyms. All participants of focus groups will also be required to sign a consent form to keep any information retrieved during the sessions confidential.

#### One-on-One Interview

If you agree to take part, your contact details and the information that you provide will be strictly confidential as only my supervisors and I will have access to the consent forms and the data. There will be no names attached to the audio files or transcripts as I will assign you with a pseudonym.

Once the project has been completed, the forms and the data will be securely stored in separate cabinets in the School of Languages and Culture at AUT to be destroyed after a period of 6 years. Your responses to the discussion and/or interview questions will be used for the purpose of this research study only. You can be assured that no material that could personally identify you will be used in the transcripts or the final report.

### What are the costs of participating in this research?

Other than your time, there is no cost to you for participating in this study. Each focus group discussion will take 60 to 90 minutes whereas the one-on-one interview will take 45 to 60 minutes.

### What opportunity do I have to consider this invitation?

From when you receive the invitation, you will have 3 weeks to consider this invitation. If you are interested in participating, please contact me as soon as possible.

### How do I agree to participate in this research?

If you wish to participate in this study, please contact me with a few options of your preferred date and time via email at: [gyv8330@autuni.ac.nz](mailto:gyv8330@autuni.ac.nz) or phone at: 022 657 1457. Prior to the focus group discussion and/or interview, you will be required to complete a Consent Form. This will be provided.

### Will I receive feedback on the results of this research?

If you would like to receive the results of this study, I shall write up a summary and send it to you via email. The results will also be included in a PhD thesis.

### What do I do if I have concerns about this research?

Any concerns regarding the nature of this project should be notified in the first instance to the Primary Project Supervisor, Irmengard Wohlfart, [iwohlfart@aut.ac.nz](mailto:iwohlfart@aut.ac.nz), and 09 921 9999 ext 6125.

Concerns regarding the conduct of the research should be notified to the Executive Secretary of AUTEK, Kate O'Connor, [ethics@aut.ac.nz](mailto:ethics@aut.ac.nz), 09 921 9999 ext 6038.

**Whom do I contact for further information about this research?**

Please keep this Information Sheet and a copy of the Consent Form for your future reference. You are also able to contact the research team as follows:

**Researcher Contact Details:**

Rohan Willis: [gyv8330@autuni.ac.nz](mailto:gyv8330@autuni.ac.nz) 022 657 1457

**Project Supervisor Contact Details:**

Dr. Irmengard Wohlfart: [iwohlfart@aut.ac.nz](mailto:iwohlfart@aut.ac.nz) 09 921 9999 ext 6125

*Approved by the Auckland University of Technology Ethics Committee on 03/05/2016*

*AUTEC Reference number 16/140*

## Appendix E

### *Consent Form for Focus-Group Discussions (Approved in March 2017)*



## Consent Form

### Focus Groups

**Project title:** *A Phenomenological Study: The Lived Experiences of Bilingual ESOL Teachers in Intercultural Classroom Settings*

**Project Supervisor:** *Dr. Irmengard Wohlfart*

**Researcher:** *Rohan Willis*

- I have read and understood the information provided about this research project in the Information Sheet dated.
- I have had an opportunity to ask questions and to have them answered.
- I understand that identity of my fellow participants and our discussions in the focus group is confidential to the group and I agree to keep this information confidential.
- I understand that notes will be taken during the focus group and that it will also be audio-taped and transcribed.
- I understand that taking part in this study is voluntary (my choice) and that I may withdraw from the study at any time without being disadvantaged in any way.
- I understand that if I withdraw from the study then, while it may not be possible to destroy all records of the focus group discussion of which I was part, I will be offered the choice between having any data that is identifiable as belonging to me removed or allowing it to continue to be used. However, once the findings have been produced, removal of my data may not be possible.
- I agree to take part in this research.
- I wish to receive a summary of the research findings (please tick one): Yes  No

Participant's signature: .....

Participant's name: .....

Participant's Contact Details (if appropriate):

.....  
 .....  
 .....

Date:

**Approved by the Auckland University of Technology Ethics Committee on 28/03/2017**

**AUTEC Reference number 16/140**

*Note: The Participant should retain a copy of this form.*

## Appendix F

### *Consent Form for One-on-One Interviews (Approved in May 2016)*



## Consent Form

**Project title:** *A Phenomenological Study of the Lived Experiences of Bilingual-Bicultural ESOL Teachers in Intercultural Classroom Settings*

**Project Supervisors:** *Dr. Irmengard Wohlfart & Dr. Ineke Crezee*

**Researcher:** *Rohan Willis*

- I have read and understood the information provided about this research project in the Information Sheet.
- I have had an opportunity to ask questions and to have them answered.
- I understand that notes will be taken during the interviews and that the interviews will also be audio-taped and transcribed.
- I understand that I may withdraw myself or any information that I have provided for this project at any time prior to completion of data collection, without being disadvantaged in any way.
- If I withdraw, I understand that all relevant information including tapes and transcripts, or parts thereof, will be destroyed. I understand that my name will not be used and the information I give will be kept confidential.
- I agree to take part in this research.
- I wish to receive a summary of the research findings (please tick one): Yes  No

**Participant's signature:** .....

**Participant's name:** .....

**Participant's Contact Details (if appropriate):**

.....  
 .....  
 .....

**Date:**

**Approved by the Auckland University of Technology Ethics Committee on 03/05/2016**

**AUTEC Reference number 16/140**

*Note: The Participant should retain a copy of this form.*

## Appendix G

### *Semi-Structured Interview Question for Pilot Study*

1. Could you tell me how you got into ESOL teaching?
2. Can you remember your first intercultural experience with your students?
3. How do you perceive ESOL education? What is your philosophy? What do you think are the most important?
4. What are some English-learning-related issues that your students raise in class? How do you deal with them?
5. What other language(s) do you speak? In your opinion, what were/are some of the challenges of acquiring the language(s)? Why?
6. Would you consider yourself bicultural/multicultural? Why?
7. Tell me about an intercultural interaction with your students that did not go the way you had expected. Why do you think that the interaction was not so successful?
8. How has learning a second/additional language helped you as an educator?
9. How has learning a second/additional language helped you in intercultural situations?

## Appendix H

### *Interview Schedule for Focus-Group Discussions and One-on-One Interviews*

#### **Personal background:**

- Can you tell me a bit about yourself? Where are you from? What is your first language? What is/are your other language(s)?

#### **As ESOL teachers:**

- How long have you been teaching ESOL? / When did you start teaching ESOL?
- How did you become an ESOL teacher?
- What types of ESOL students have you taught? (age group, L1 background)
- How has knowing another language helped you teach? / How has having learned another language helped you teach?
- Have you had students confronted by challenges you also encountered as a student? If so, what did you do?
- Have your own experiences as a language learner influenced your ways of teaching? If so, in what ways?
- In your opinion, what are the advantages and disadvantages of having learned another language? And, what do you think are the advantages and disadvantages of ESOL teachers who have not learned another language? Why?
- What do you think are some of the most challenging aspects of being an ESOL teacher? Why?

**As former language learners:**

- When was the first time you learned another language?
- What were some of the methods that your language teachers used?
- What did you like about some of the methods used by your language teachers? / What didn't you like about some of the methods used by your language teachers?
- What were some of the struggles you experienced as a language learner?
- What were some things that you wish your language teachers could have done to help with your learning?