Two case studies of language teachers' cognitions of learner autonomy and their observed practice in a Japanese university setting

RICHARD ANTHONY SILVER

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Aston University

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Thesis summary

This thesis presents qualitative case studies of two native English speaker teachers of English in a Japanese university. The longitudinal research investigated the teachers' cognitions about learner autonomy and the links to their practice through two research questions:

What cognitions do native English speaker teachers working in Japanese universities hold about language learner autonomy?
How do they try to foster language learner autonomy in their classrooms and what role do cognitions play in how teachers do this?

Though there have been studies into learner autonomy through the prism of teacher cognitions, to my knowledge this is the first to also investigate classroom practice through the methodology of interviews, classroom observations and participant diaries. Results showed that each teacher in the study had a unique understanding of learner autonomy that had developed without exposure to professional learning or training. The findings also confirmed the limiting effect of both contextual and cognitive factors on the ways in which teachers can introduce strategies to enhance learner autonomy in classrooms. It was found that beyond oft-cited restrictions of institutional contexts and learners' ability, teachers' own professional cognitions, which included how they identified themselves as teachers, led to self-limiting behaviour. This is not a factor that has been noted in previous studies and suggests how more research is needed to establish how context intersects with cognitions and how it affects autonomous practice.

Key words: TESOL, professional cognitions, language teacher beliefs, Japanese universities

Dedication

This thesis is dedicated to my parents whose belief in my education has been the basis for my success in life.

Acknowledgements

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Chapter 1: Introduction

1.1 Introduction

There is a growing body of research into teacher cognition, the unseen processes acknowledged to influence how teachers behave (Borg, 2006), and there is also a growing body of research into learner autonomy, broadly understood as the extent to which learners have control over different aspects of their learning (Benson, 2011). However, until recently almost no published research has sought to understand the relationship between the two, even though the study of what is today known as teachers' cognitions, or the hidden side of teaching (Freeman, 2002), is recognised as a key factor in driving how teachers teach. By understanding more about cognitions, it is believed that much can be understood about why teachers teach in the way that they do, the decisions they make and the activities that they choose, greater knowledge of which could lead to improvements in teacher education and more effective language teaching generally (Johnson, 2009).

A teacher's cognitions are believed to be collected in dynamic systems that are resistant to change, although not immune to adapting to circumstances (Pajares, 1992). It has long been thought that a teacher's own school experiences are the main influence on their beliefs about teaching that make up a major part of their cognitions (Lortie, 1975). However, it is possible past studies have paid too much attention to what teachers believe about teaching at a moment in time and there has been an uncritical acceptance that what teachers say reflects what they do. Observation of practice is an essential aspect of teacher cognition research that is too often

excluded from studies (Borg, 2006). To date, methodologically orientated teacher cognition

research has often relied on teacher questionnaires and interviews for its findings without looking

inside classrooms, a gap which this thesis addresses.

Separately, those studies that have investigated cognitions and practice have often been

carried out to discover convergence or divergence of teachers' cognitions and their practice (see

Basturkmen, 2012), a view of the relationship that has recently come in for criticism because of

its simplicity and the seemingly static quality attached to cognitions. Borg and Al-Busaidi (2012b,

p. 22) advocate a different view of cognitions. They suggest "it is more productive to think of

teachers' cognitions as being characterised by systems of competing forces which vie for

implementational supremacy (i.e. in shaping teachers' actions)". By adopting this view, it

becomes clear that cognitive systems are less stable than much published research implies and

more needs to be understood about how the competing forces achieve implementational

supremacy, something that this thesis also tries to do.

Furthermore, there has been minimal investigation into the wider complexities of how

cognitions intersect with the communities and contexts within which they work. In the words of

Kubanyiova and Feryok (2015 p. 436), teacher cognition research should aim to "embrace the

complexity of teachers' inner lives in the context of their activity". This is another under-explored

aspect of the questions considered in this thesis that is strongly connected to the implementation

of learner autonomy. This is because autonomous practice is embedded in the local context,

something that is recognised as hugely important in the successful application of teaching practice

that can foster learner autonomy in learners.

Learner autonomy is a flexible concept which exists on a spectrum from weak to strong (Kumaravadivelu, 2003; Smith, 2003). The kind of learner autonomy invoked in a classroom depends on a number of factors such as institutional requirements and restrictions, learners' language ability, their motivation, and their learning goals and context (see Borg and Al-Busaidi, 2012a, 2012b). Further, while it is acknowledged that learners must make their own efforts to learn a language, the focal point for learning in the classroom remains the classroom teacher who is seen as a facilitator of opportunity rather than a transmitter of knowledge and information (Hedge, 2000). In other words, learner autonomy should not be confused with learning independently, a position that is reflected in the amount of practitioner research that details classroom activities and events (see, for example, Barfield & Brown, 2007; Barfield & Nix, 2003). Though published practitioner research has deepened our knowledge about how learner autonomy can be fostered in classrooms so that there is now consensus on the importance of learner reflection, learner interaction and target language use in fostering autonomy (Little, 2007), there are few comprehensive accounts of how teachers navigate the complexities of enhancing learner autonomy within a Japanese tertiary setting.

There is evidence that though teachers think learner autonomy is desirable they often find it difficult to implement in class. This is a powerful contradiction if the advocated benefits of learner autonomy are correctly understood and so there is a clear need for research that situates teachers in their teaching environment and investigates how they deal with perceived obstacles and whether they do or do not overcome them in their classroom practice. This study, which sets the participant teachers' cognitions about learner autonomy in greater contextual detail than has been done up to now, while also giving detailed accounts of how autonomy is fostered in actual

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practice, could address weaknesses in both fields and fill longstanding gaps noted above. It could also draw attention to previously unknown connections between a teacher's cognitions about learner autonomy and their practice and reveal new areas to investigate.

1.2 Aims of this study

As explained in the previous section, this research serves to fill research gaps that currently exist in the areas of teacher cognition and learner autonomy research. This thesis aims to fill the gap with a fine-grained analysis (Kubanyiova, 2015) of the cognitions of two teachers that elucidates what they know and believe about language learner autonomy, their reasoning behind the adoption or rejection of accepted autonomous principles in their practice, and the contextual factors which affect their decision making.

There are numerous examples of research into either teacher cognition or language learner autonomy in a Japanese setting but, crucially, almost nothing that has examined both issues in tandem. Two exceptions are Nakata (2011), which investigated high school teachers' cognitions, and Stroupe, Rundle and Tomita (2016) which focused on university teachers. Significantly, neither used classroom observations as part of their methodology. This thesis therefore aims to fill a research gap in the literature on language learner autonomy as it is perceived through the prism of teacher cognition. The research questions are as follows:

1. What cognitions do native English speaking teachers working in Japanese universities hold about language learner autonomy?

2. How do these teachers try to foster language learner autonomy in their classrooms and what role do cognitions play in how teachers do this?

To try to answer the above questions, this thesis presents a qualitative case study of two teachers working in a Japanese university. The argument uses a constructivist-interpretivist paradigm (see section 3.2). Though the context is Japan, given the current worldwide interest in learner autonomy, it is hoped that the findings will be relevant to researchers outside of the country. In the particularity of both cases, it is hoped that a light will be shone upon as yet unperceived, and therefore under-researched, aspects of teacher cognition that could be generalisable to other contexts. In offering a teacher-generated account of autonomous practice, it also hopes to highlight and account for differences between the conceptualisation of language learner autonomy in the literature and in the way it is developed in the classroom, while taking into account the powerful effects of the contexts in which teachers work.

1.3 Structure of the thesis

      Chapter 2 (A Review of the Literature) starts by surveying the historical background of research into language teacher cognition. It surveys the research landscape in general education (Berliner, 1986; Clark & Peterson, 1986; Clandinin & Connelly, 1995; Murphy & Mason, 2006; Nespor, 1987; Schön, 1987; Woolfolk Hoy, Davis & Pape, 2006) and shows how that work became influential in language teaching and resulted in teacher cognitions research moving from being a marginal concern in the 1970s to a central concern of language teaching research in the present day. After discussing debates surrounding key terminology such as beliefs and knowledge,

the chapter explains how research into cognitions and practice has been a primary area of

language teacher cognition research. The chapter then brings the reader up to date with the most

recent studies before showing how the research paradigm is currently being influenced by

dynamic, complex and ecological systems theories (Feryok, 2010; Kubanyiova & Feryok, 2015;

Larsen-Freeman & Cameron 2008) and briefly discussing the reasons why this might be. The

chapter concludes by outlining the theoretical understandings that underpin learner autonomy in

language learning (Benson, 2011; Little, 1995, 2007a) with the aim of situating this doctoral study

firmly within an ever-expanding field. It shows that, while definitions of learner autonomy vary,

there is a growing, collectively acknowledged body of empirical evidence which has strong

suggestions for how autonomy can be fostered in the language learning classroom (Benson, 2012;

Borg & Alshumaimeri, 2017).

Chapter 3 (Research methodology) establishes the qualitative nature of the study and

discusses issues of credibility, transferability, dependability, and confirmability (Anfara, Brown

& Mangione, 2002; Denzin & Lincoln, 2011; King & Mackey, 2016). Reasons why a qualitative

case study methodology was adopted and a variety of data collection methods used are also

provided. In this chapter, acknowledgement is also be made of my role as a participant-observer

and reflection is given on my relationship with each of my participants. It is hoped that

transferability is established by a description of the sampling methods and a detailed account of

the context in which the research took place. The chapter ends by offering a defence of small

number case studies and documents the measures taken to ensure this was an ethical undertaking.

Chapter 4 (Data collection and analysis) explains how the data collection took place and reflects on issues encountered during it. It then details the procedures which were used during the analysis and gives an insight into the challenges encountered, depicting the way in which the thesis developed and the findings emerged. Credibility, dependability, and confirmability are all established through this detailed and reflexive account that includes multiple examples of actual documents that helped develop the analysis. In doing so, it is hoped that this thesis avoids the opacity of many qualitative accounts as to how the findings were reached (Duff, 2014; Richards, 2011) and its credibility is further supported.

Chapters 5 – 8 (Case study of A's and B's practices and cognitions respectively) begin with a detailed account of the cognitions of the participants before turning to the classroom practices that each participant used in order to promote and foster language learner autonomy. Classroom materials are provided in the appendices.

The aim of these chapters is to illustrate the complex systems of cognitions that each teacher held in relation to language learner autonomy. In particular, these chapters show the ways in which the participants' general cognitions about language learning; their personal, practical knowledge (Elbaz, 1983; Clandinin & Connelly, 1995) gained over teaching for many years in Japan, had resulted in learner autonomy cognitions and practice that were directly derived from Japanese culture. The chapter also describes how their general understanding of language learner autonomy, and their cognitions about their roles in the classroom, combined with their professional cognitions and their personal concerns in their practice, enabled them to overcome obstacles and helped them order their practice. In both cases, it can be seen how cognitions were

layered, with some being prioritised over others, and how factors outside the classroom also influenced how they taught. This confirms the crucial mediating role of context (A as a part-time teacher labelled a native speaker, and B in a new university setting) in causing teaching practice to differ from the teacher's stated cognitions.

Chapter 9 (Discussion) addresses the research questions set out in this introduction. In addition to providing a summary of the main findings derived from each case, the chapter also refers to past research to show how this thesis is situated in the field and to show its contribution. It also makes suggestions for future research.

Chapter 10 (Conclusion) provides a concise summary of the conclusions that can be drawn from the whole study.

Chapter 2: Language Teacher Cognitions and Learner Autonomy

2.1 Introduction

There are two theoretical domains that provide the base for this study: teacher cognition and learner autonomy. Both have been the subject of much theoretical discussion over the past 30-40 years and while researchers of learner autonomy have largely reached a consensus about how it should and should not be defined, the same cannot be said about teacher cognition. Teacher cognition is both the term most commonly used today and also the one which will be used throughout this thesis to refer to the body of work which grew out of studies initially made into teacher thinking, followed by teacher decision making, teacher knowledge and teacher beliefs amongst many other descriptions. The aim of this chapter is not to cover all of the arguments that have occurred in the development of the field as Borg's (2006) book on the topic is both relatively recent and thorough. Instead, while it will briefly outline the historical background of research into teacher cognition from the 1970s, and introduce some of the most commonly used terms, it will then turn to a discussion of where the field is today by showing current developments and their importance.

In the second half of the chapter, I will examine the literature on learner autonomy.

2.2 Language teacher cognition research

The field of language teacher cognition owes much to the development in the 1970s, largely in America, of psychologically-based investigations into teacher thinking that recognised teaching as "thoughtful behaviour" and teachers as decision-makers rather than the passive conduits of knowledge (Borg, 2006, p. 7). Pre-1970s, formal research neglected teachers' mental

work (planning, evaluating, reacting, deciding) or simply ignored it (Burns, Freeman & Edwards, 2015). Recognition of teachers as being mentally engaged in classroom processes became a basis to argue for teachers having a greater role in the discourse on education rather than simply being a cog in systems devised by "researchers, curriculum developers and policy makers" (Freeman, 1996a, p. 90). More recently, the "sociocultural turn" (for example, Johnson, 2009) has been influential, though without being "integrated into mainstream reviews" (Kubanyiova & Feryok, 2015, p. 438).

In other words, early teacher cognition research could be considered a first step in the empowerment of teachers, introducing what appeared to be a moral and ethical imperative to understanding what teachers did in classrooms. Today ethical concerns about what teacher cognition research offers to the field, practitioners and society in general have been brought up by Kubanyiova and Feryok (2015), who frame the 2015 volume of papers that they edited for the *Modern Language Journal*:

> As setting an agenda for reinvigorated inquiry into language teacher cognition that aims to redraw its current boundaries and thus reclaim its relevance to the wider domain of applied linguistics and to the real-world concerns of language teachers, language teacher educators, and language learners around the world. (p. 435)

Though Kubanyiova and Feryok (2015) argue that language teacher cognition research is currently "at a crossroad", there can be no doubt that it has come a long way in the past forty years, helping teachers find a voice and dislodging the prevailing 1970s behaviourist view of teaching as interest in the field developed. Borg, (2006, p. 7) explains "Teaching was no longer viewed solely in terms of behaviours but rather as *thoughtful* behaviour; and teachers were not

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being viewed as mechanical implementers of external prescriptions, but as active, thinking decision-makers".

Freeman's 2002 article "**The hidden side of the work: Teacher knowledge and learning to teach" was an** important paper that argued for greater appreciation of what teachers knew, and argued that how they behaved in the classroom was undervalued and underappreciated. It followed on from the work of Donald Schön (1983), best known for the terms "knowing-in-action" and "reflection in action" that has influenced teacher cognition research significantly (Borg, 2006; Johnson, 2009) especially in the area of teacher education, in which reflection has come to be understood as playing a hugely important role in a teacher's overall development (Beauchamp & Thomas, 2009; Edge, 2011; Lave & Wenger, 1991). Schön (1983) argued for the existence of a type of professional knowledge that he called "school knowledge". Nonetheless, in proposing this concept he also acknowledged its flaw, noting that "there is also in this view of school knowledge, the notion that the more general and the more theoretical the knowledge, the higher it is" (Thomas, 2007, p.16). This meant that teachers were excluded from doing research because practice was seen as being a less valuable type of knowledge. On the other hand, he argued that in teaching there was a "kind of artistry that good teachers in their everyday work often display" or knowledge-in-action. Teachers, in other words, possessed forms of knowledge which they were not necessarily able to articulate in words. Giving voice to teacher knowledge was a major concern of teacher cognition research that arguably began with Elbaz's (1983) seminal study (Borg, 2006) that identified a teacher's "practical knowledge", a term meaning personal knowledge learned from experience of dealing with practical problems, and first introduced by Elbaz (1983) in a case study of a high school English teacher based on interviews and classroom observations (Hawley Nagatomo, 2012).

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Prior to Elbaz though, Shavelson and Stern's (1981) review of research on "teachers' pedagogical thoughts, judgements, decision and behaviours" was significant in recognising "the two-way interaction between thinking and classroom practice" (Borg, 2006, p. 10) with decision-making becoming a major focus of enquiry (e.g. Clark & Peterson, 1986). It also draws attention to how from its earliest days the field was wracked with competing concepts and terminology, a problem that it has never resolved as will be shown below.

Shavelson and Stern (1981) also identified how students, classrooms and working environment affected teachers' decision-making, suggesting how, very early on, context was recognised as being of significance in the study of how teachers teach. However, contextual factors seemed to drop out of teacher cognition research design as the cognitivist view became dominant; one that recognised that the mental processes of teachers were significant but without taking into account context and interaction (Li, 2013).

The development of the concept of teachers' narrative knowledge by Clandinin and Connelly (1995) seems to have been important in reinstituting context into the research agenda for understanding teacher knowledge. By making teacher reflection, that emerged through teachers talking about their teaching, a research focus, teachers' stories became a way for teachers to learn about and develop their practice in order to avoid "endless, repetitive, living out of stories [i.e. classes] without possibility for awakenings and transformations" (p. 13). Again, research into how teachers explained their practice, in Clandinin and Connelly's (1995) view, had an ethical purpose, namely by allowing for teacher development through reflection on the value of their own practice, in a safe space that did not risk them being "portrayed as uncertain, tentative, nonexpert characters" (p. 15). In their opinion, the prevailing view was that teaching was something teachers acted out, using methods discovered by researchers, and very little heed was paid to their voices.

One of Clandinin and Connelly's objectives was to give teachers a voice, particularly in research. In other words, they were working to overcome the split between teachers and researchers that, as Schön (1983) noted, placed researchers' theories on a higher plane than teachers' knowledge.

The work of Schön (1983) and Clandinin and Connelly (1995) draws attention to the close links between teacher cognition research and language teacher education (LTE). Teacher cognition research has often cited as its aim a desire to improve the efficacy of language teacher education. Though an important field in its own right, LTE is beyond the scope of this review, though Johnson (2009) connects the two fields through a sociocultural lens (see pp. 7-16) and Freeman acknowledges the impact of research into teacher knowledge on LTE in his 2002 review.

Up until the early 2000s, general education studies had investigated "attitudes, perceptions, implicit theories, cognitions, reasoning, images, metaphors, and epistemological beliefs" (Woolfolk Hoy et al., 2006, p. 715) among other more holistic organisational concepts like "gestalt" (Korthagen, 2010). Developments connected to teacher learning in general education have influenced research into language teacher cognition by broadening "ideas of how language teacher cognition occurred in situ" (Burns, Freeman & Edwards, 2015, p. 588), a significant shift from the cognitivist-individualist ontology that has paved the way for social, sociohistorical and finally complex chaotic systems ontologies (Burns, Freeman and Edwards, ibid) (see section 2.3).

Having outlined a few of the major developments in teacher cognition research in a chronological way, the next part of this chapter briefly introduces key terminology that has been used over the past forty years and some of the debates surrounding their use.

2.2.1 Teacher thinking

Teacher thinking, though only the subject of research since 1974, was by the time of Clark

and Peterson's (1986, pp. 292-293) review significant enough to have a chapter in the *Handbook*

of Research on Teaching. In it, they drew a constructivist picture of the teacher as "a reflective

and thoughtful professional" with the capability to "reflect and analyze the apparent effects of

their own teaching and apply the results of these reflections to their future plans and actions. They

have become researchers on their own teaching effectiveness", they added (pp. 292-293). By

showing the interactive link between "Teachers' Thought Processes" and "Teachers' Actions and

their Observable Effects" (see Figure 2.2) they highlighted the importance of actually examining

teachers in their classrooms, which was rare at the time and was still not standard research practice

throughout the twenty-year period that followed (Borg, 2006). Clark and Peterson (1986) also

stated clearly how "Teachers do have theories and belief systems that influence their perceptions,

plans, and actions" (p. 292) thus laying a clear foundation for a new phase of research into what

was mainly labelled with the term teacher beliefs.

Figure 2.1 The relationship between teachers' thought processes and teachers' actions and their observable effects

CONSTRAINTS & OPPORTUNITIES

Teacher Planning [Preactive & Postactive Thoughts]
Teachers' Interactive Thoughts & Decisions
Teachers' Theories & Beliefs

Teachers' Thought Processes

Teachers' Classroom Behavior
Students' Classroom Behavior
Student Achievement

Teachers' Actions and their Observable Effects
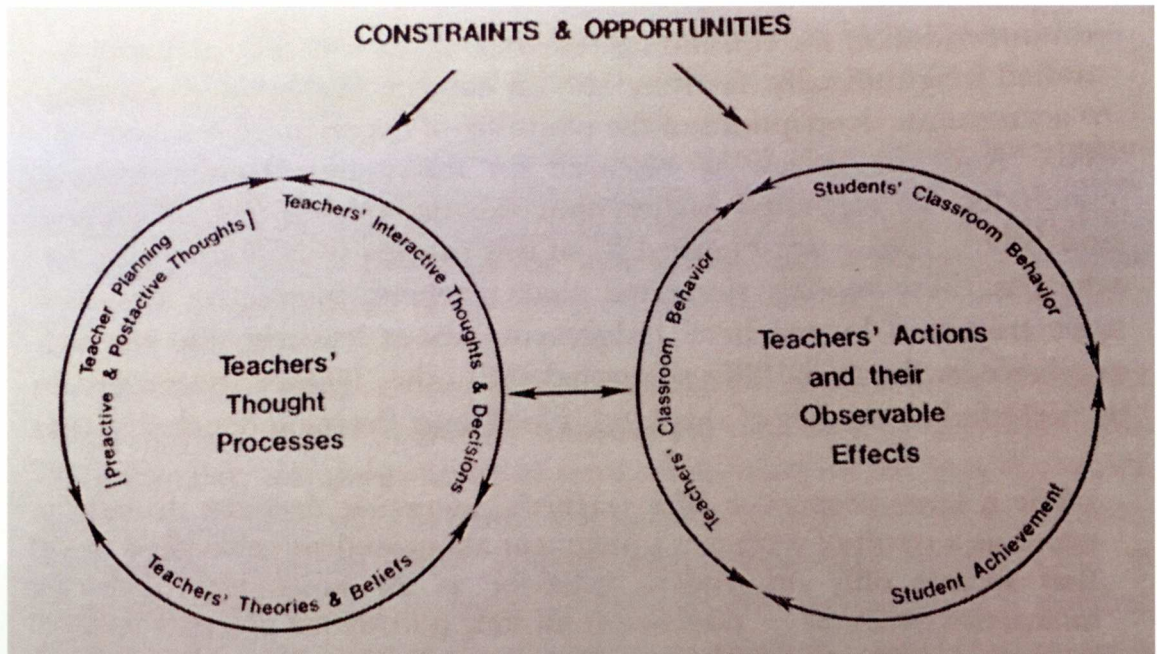
(Clark & Peterson, 1986, p. 257)

2.2.2 Teacher beliefs

Today, the term teacher beliefs has largely replaced the term teacher thinking, although they largely seem to describe the same thing. Nespor's (1987) study was one of the first to examine the role of beliefs in the practice of teaching, using data from the Teacher Beliefs Study in which eight teachers were observed and interviewed. In arguing that beliefs and knowledge were different, a view shared by Fenstermacher (1986, cited in Borg, 2006, pp. 29-30) writing with a philosophically-based epistemological concern (Borg, 2006), Nespor also pointed out how beliefs are organised into systems which "involve moods, feelings, emotions and subjective evaluations...they take the form of gestalts" (p. 323, also see Korthagen, 2010). A key point Nespor made was that teachers' contexts were complex and beliefs helped them make sense of the problems and challenges they faced. He also pointed out that "Beliefs are not so much sets of

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propositions or statements as they are conceptual systems which are functional or useful for explaining some domain or activity" (p. 326) reminding us of the systematic and practical nature of beliefs.

At around the same time, Pajares (1992) did a major and still influential review of the field in which he noted that knowledge and beliefs are different but inseparable, a view which has generally become universal in both general education (Alexander & Dochy, 1995; Alexander et al., 1998; Murphy & Mason, 2006; Woolfolk Hoy et al., 2006) and language teaching research (Borg, 2006; Freeman, 2002; Woods, 1996). Woods and Cakir (2011) for example, argue that teacher knowledge, made up of Beliefs, Attitudes and Knowledge (BAK) exists on a continuum, with things that teachers know or believe sometimes being more personal, and at other times, more true or universal.

Some of Pajares 16 statements about beliefs, based on the empirical findings up to that point, are included in the summary in section 2.2.3.1. (see Borg, 2006, p. 26 for a full list of statements.). More recently, Skott (2015 in Borg & Alshumaimeri, 2017, p. 2) looking at different definitions of beliefs, identified and condensed the findings into "four core elements" as summarised here:

- they refer to ideas that individuals consider to be true;

- they have cognitive and affective dimensions;

- they are stable and result from substantial social experiences;

- they influence practice.

2.2.3 Teacher knowledge

The idea of teachers having a specialised kind of knowledge, possibly internalised and therefore difficult to articulate but knowledge nonetheless, has already been introduced above. For example, Elbaz (1983) argued that "teachers play a central autonomous role in shaping curricula" (in Borg, 2006, p. 13) and that "the single factor which seems to have the greatest power to carry forward our understanding of the teacher's role is the phenomenon of teachers' knowledge" (Elbaz, 1983, p. 45 in Borg, 2006, p. 13). This concept, although often labelled slightly differently, has been widely adopted in language teaching (e.g. Abdelhafez, 2014; Breen et al. 2001; Golombek, 1998; Mangubhai et al., 2005). A fuller list of knowledge concepts and terminology can be found in Borg (2006, pp. 36-39 and 46-49).

It has been pointed out that the domain of language teaching is distinct from other subjects because the subject being taught is generally also the medium of instruction (Borg, 2006). It is important to recognise then that teachers' knowledge is distinct from pedagogical content knowledge (PCK), which is "the blending of content and pedagogy into an understanding of how particular topics, problems or issues are organised, represented, and adapted to the diverse interests and abilities of learners, and presented for instruction" (Shulman, 1986). One of the suggestions from Shavelson and Stern's (1981) review was for more research into the role of subject knowledge in teaching. In other words, they suggested that more attention should be paid to the issue of teachers needing to know things, while also being able to communicate them effectively so students could learn. As Borg (2006) notes, PCK has since been studied a great deal in subject-specific areas like science and maths but not in language teaching (although see Grossman, 1989), something Freeman (2002) suggests is because "When applied to language as subject-matter […] PCK becomes a messy and possibly unworkable concept" (p. 6).

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Also in the early 1980s, Calderhead (1983) presented a paper at the Annual Meeting of the American Educational Research Association that specifically used the word cognitions in a study that compared those of experienced, student and probationer teachers. The focus of results though, were still on types of teacher knowledge, of which Calderhead identified four: knowledge about pupils; knowledge about particular pupils; specific knowledge about pupils; knowledge of diagnostic/remediation routines. Though labelled as knowledge, arguably these could as much be called beliefs because they seem essentially the personal judgements of the teacher, though they might be informed by some evidence (for example, other teachers' student reports; official tests or examinations). This example illustrates the difficulty of knowing whether what is identified as knowledge is epistemologically "knowledge" and supports Pajares (1992), Woods and Cakir (2011) and numerous others' contention that trying to differentiate knowledge from beliefs is not necessarily beneficial if it is even possible (see section 2.2.2). Rather, as Festenmacher (1986) identified, "teacher knowledge" as generally invoked in research is an umbrella or "grouping" term that includes beliefs and other similar concepts like attitudes etc. Today, since Borg (2006), the prevalent term – also an umbrella one – has become teacher cognition, which is also the one preferred for this thesis.

2.2.3.1 Key points of teacher cognition research

As this brief review of important areas in the field currently known as teacher cognition research has shown, it is a huge challenge to acknowledge and fully understand the competing influences on the development of different ontologies that have formed over the past forty years. And the fact that teacher cognition remains such a slippery concept, which nobody seems to have satisfactorily defined possibly shows us a fundamental truth about cognition systems: they are

undefinable and we might never be able to identify or label all of the parts which make up the whole. Rather, accepting the term as amorphous with room for concepts to be added and removed from cognition systems might be a better way to approach the topic because it acknowledges that cognition systems are individual and unique, and therefore undefinable except by the possessor of that cognition system. In other words, they resist definition and being universalised in frameworks. As Woods and Cakir (2011) suggest, the important thing about research into teacher knowledge (their preferred term) is learning about the interactions between components rather than trying to comprehensively identify the component parts. The view that teacher cognition research needs to put a greater focus on understanding complex interactions (particularly with contextual factors in different teaching environments) is supported by Kubanyiova and Feryok's (2015) suggestion of the study of "ecologies of teachers' inner lives" (p.440) and more generally by Borg and Alshumaimeri (2017).

Putting forward the idea that teacher cognition research may be undefinable, and may for too long have focused on what exactly it is, does not mean that it remains an unknown 'black box'. In fact, the opposite is true and much is known about how teacher cognition systems function. However, too vast a body of research exists to be adequately covered in this review, so this section ends by offering a brief summary of key ideas that underpin this research along with a reference to a key work.

- Cognitions are formed early and become systematised (Borg, 2006; Pajares, 1992).

- Cognition systems are not stable or closed but dynamic (Johnson, 2009); however, educational cognitions are well established by university (Lortie, 1975) and more established cognitions are more resistant to change (Murphy & Mason, 2006; Pajares, 1992).

- Beliefs and knowledge are overlapping if distinct concepts within teacher cognition; a teacher's cognition acts as a filter for interpreting new information that helps them make practical decisions and act in the classroom (Johnson, 1995; Pajares, 1992; Woolfolk Hoy et al., 2006).

- During learning, new knowledge is integrated into existing networks of knowledge (Murphy & Mason, 2006).

- Cognitions and experiences have an interactive, reciprocal relationship i.e. beliefs drive classroom activity but experiences can also lead to changed cognitions (Borg, 2006; Basturkmen, 2012).

- Cognitions are prioritised (for example, Ahn, 2011; Farrell & Tan Kiat Kun, 2007; Li, 2013) and older ones are more resistant to change (Pajares, 1992).

- Weaker cognitions must be understood in terms of their relationship to stronger ones and situated within the overall system (Pajares, 1992); a teacher may have multiple cognition systems (see Basturkmen, 2012, pp. 283-4).

- Reflection is important for a teacher's development (Farrell, 2007; Freeman, 2002; Johnson, 2009; Schön, 1983, 1987).

- Teacher cognition is tacit and personal, so beliefs must be inferred from statements, intentions and behaviour. (Borg, 2006; Pajares, 1992).

- Context and teachers' personal lives influence cognition in significant ways (Clandinin & Connelly, 1995; Kubanyiova & Feryok, 2015).

2.2.4 Research comparing cognitions and practice

Though attempts to define cognitions have dominated the field, another major strand within teacher cognition research is research which compares the cognitions and practices of

language teachers, which is of particular relevance to my study. Teachers do not always do what they say (Borg, 2006; Li, 2013; Nunan, 1988; Pajares, 1992; Woods, 1996) and it is only through careful and deliberate interactions with them that researchers can really understand the full picture of classroom activity (Li, 2013). For example, Li (2013) showed her participant deliberately chose to make a class she observed more teacher-led because he knew students had important tests coming up, even though his espoused views supported creating opportunities for student communication. This divergence was only discoverable through observation and the reasons why only uncovered in a post-observation stimulus recall interview. In other words, accepting a teacher's stated beliefs about their practice can be misleading because it fails to unravel the complexities and depth of teachers' cognition and its embedded relationship in practice.

It is generally believed that the convergence of cognitions and practices is "desirable and should therefore be facilitated" in teacher education and professional development (Kubanyiova & Feryok, 2015, p. 437). However, in reality, practice may converge (for example, Farrell & Tan Kiat Kun, 2007) or conflict with cognitions (for example, Fang, 2006; Ho-yan Mak, 2011). As in Li (2013), conflicts or divergence from beliefs are often the result of contextual factors, which force teachers consciously to change or adapt (Basturkmen, 2012; Borg, 2006; Crookes, 2009; Woods, 1996). Understanding why divergence occurs is seen as a step "to improve teacher learning and practice by identifying further development needs" (Kubanyiova & Feryok, 2015, p. 437). Li (2013) points out the advantage for participants in teacher cognition research, implying another moral aspect that underpins the field: teachers, particularly novice ones, are not always conscious of acting differently to their stated beliefs but through involvement in teacher cognition research can become cognisant, for as Li (2013, p. 188) points out "seeking a connection or studying the gap between espoused theories and theories-in-use creates a dynamic for reflection

and dialogue". This further emphasises how the effect of teacher cognition research on LTE and its ability to promote change is seen by many as a core role of the research (Clandinin & Connelly, 1995; Johnson, 2009; Johnson & Golombek, 2011; Kubanyiova & Feryok, 2015; Schön, 1987).

Research into convergence and divergence of beliefs is one area where studies involving classroom observations have been more numerous than Borg (2006) generally suggests (see Basturkmen, 2012). However, the usefulness of such studies is questionable. Borg (2006) for example, identifies teachers as holding both ideal-oriented cognitions and reality-oriented ones, implying congruence between beliefs and practices is unlikely. This, he argues, further shows the importance of observing teachers' practice as well as asking them about their beliefs, as he explains "As researchers we must ensure that cognitions expressed theoretically and in relation to ideals are not used as evidence of the practically-oriented cognitions which inform teachers' actual instructional practices" (p. 280).

More recently, Borg's criticism of studies searching for congruence between beliefs and practice has grown more scathing:

> Recent work on teachers' beliefs can also be critiqued for its simplification of complex issues (such as the relationship between teachers' stated beliefs and what they do in the classroom). This is particularly obvious in studies (e.g. Hos & Kekec, 2014) that compare prior stated beliefs and subsequently observed classroom practices without sufficient critical awareness of the many factors that make discrepancies between the two very likely. The expectation that stated beliefs and enacted beliefs will be consistent is naive; in fact, in critical social psychology, inconsistency between what people say and do is seen as a more normal state of affairs (Gross, 2015). (Borg & Alshumaimeri, 2017, p. 3)

The "simplification" here seems to be concerned with the lack of sufficient interrogation and subsequent understanding of the "many factors" which can affect how teachers in reality are able to teach in classrooms, factors that include "a range of socio-cultural, intercultural, professional, occupational and institutional forces" (p. 1). They conclude by suggesting a need for "further quantitative and qualitative analyses of teachers' beliefs and practices in broader socio-cultural, intercultural, professional, occupational and institutional contexts for teaching and learning" (p. 24), a call which echoes Kubanyiova and Feryok's (2015) argument in support of research which captures ecologies of teacher's inner lives possibly through a prism of "collective intentionality" (p. 440). The importance of context has previously been pointed out by Basturkmen (2012), who in her review of 17 studies comparing stated beliefs and practice since 2000, including 13 doctoral theses, found evidence to suggest that "contextual factors" played an important role in "mediating the relationship between teachers' stated beliefs and practices" (p. 286).

Kubanyiova and Feryok's (2015) and Borg and Alshumaimeri's (2017) recent papers suggest that enough attention is still not being given to "contextual factors". There does, however, seem to be a key difference in their suggested focusses (initially at least) of future research efforts. While Borg and Alshumaimeri (2017) point out the importance of macrosystems, Kubanyiova and Feryok (2015) place greater emphasis on microsystems and furthering understanding of teachers' inner worlds as a starting point for learning about larger systems. In this regard, they seem to be drawing much more closely on recent research into teacher narratives and identities:

> The micro-perspective of language teachers' inner worlds and individual practices is embedded in the larger ecologies of workplaces, educational systems, national language policies, and global issues... all play decisive roles in determining which of the teacher's unobservable dimensions are relevant at an instant and over a career. (Kubanyiova & Feryok, 2015, p. 445)

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Ideally, of course, a study would in its findings refer to both macro- and microsystems and be closer to an ecological approach. Though this study as originally planned was a conventional "stated cognitions-observed practice design" (Kubanyiova & Feryok, 2015, p. 437) that aimed to address the issue of convergence-divergence between participants' cognitions about learner autonomy and their practice, it has evolved in such a way that the final investigation is closer to a study of teachers' ecological systems, a point which will be expanded on in section 2.4.

Up to this point, this chapter has established the background to the development of the field of language teacher cognition, made clear what is currently understood about cognition systems and discussed key terms. It has also covered different areas of research and commented on current methodological concerns. The next section will provide a brief overview of more recent work in the field of language teacher cognition that is relevant to this study, explain the present research paradigm and situate the study within it.

2.2.5 Recent research on language teacher cognition

In Applied Linguistics and its related fields, language teachers' cognitions became a major area of research after 1990 (Borg, 2006, Li, 2017). This has resulted in the generation of more concepts or labels to describe teacher cognition or identify it as being an influencing factor. For example, in the last few years, work has been published on attitudes (Russell & Kuriscak, 2015); beliefs (Sadeghi & Abdi, 2015); cognitions (Baker, 2014); emotions (Aragao, 2011; Cowie, 2011); future selves (Kubanyiova, 2015); reflections (Demir, 2015); perceptions (Al Asmari, 2013); philosophies (Crookes, 2009); roles (Wan et al., 2011); and theories (Li, 2013) amongst others.

Research focusing on a particular aspect of language teaching (for example, grammar, writing, communicative language teaching etc.) has also continued to grow and in a wide range of areas. Clearly Borg's (2006) fear that the proliferation of different terms would hinder development in the field has not come to pass, though some working in the field still voice fears about the issue (Kubanyiova & Feryok, 2015). The many new additions to the field of teacher cognition research also draws attention to the limitations of Borg's framework for studying language teacher cognition (see Figure 2.2); notable omissions being "emotions" (Cowie, 2011; Kubanyiova & Feryok, 2015) and teacher identity (Kanno and Stewart, 2011; Stewart, 2005). This seems to illustrate what Kubanyiova and Feryok, (2015) argue is an issue with the top-down approach that has resulted in the "the mainstream language teacher cognition domain offer[ing] a limited epistemological landscape for understanding cognition, [because it is] largely informed by the cognitivist paradigm" (Kubanyiova & Feryok, 2015, p.436).

Clearly, Borg's (2006) framework, though acknowledging "contextual factors" draws little attention to "workplaces, educational systems, national language policies, and global issues" (Kubanyiova & Feryok, 2015, p. 445). More crucially, it makes no attempt to show how they interact, nor to describe "the communities of practice in which teachers work" (Johnson, 2009, p. 10), all elements that undoubtedly affect a teacher's cognitions. The alternative approach, as has already been mentioned, is a bottom up ecological approach proposed by Kubanyiova and Feryok (2015).

Figure 2.2 Framework for the study of language teacher cognition research

Personal history and specific experience of classrooms which define preconceptions of education (i.e. teachers, teaching)

May impact on existing cognitions though, especially when unacknowledged, these may limit its impact

Schooling → **Professional Coursework**

Beliefs, knowledge, theories, attitudes, assumptions, conceptions, principles, thinking, decision-making

LANGUAGE TEACHER COGNITION

About teaching, teachers, learners, learning, subject matter, curricula, materials, activities, self, colleagues, assessment, context

Contextual   Factors

Classroom Practice
including practice teaching

Around and inside the classroom, context mediates cognitions and practice. May lead to changes in cognitions or create tension between cognitions and classroom practices

Defined by the interaction of cognitions and contextual factors. In turn, classroom experience influences cognitions unconsciously and/or through conscious reflection

Figure 10.2 Elements and processes in language teacher cognition

(Borg, 2006, p. 283)

2.3 The present research paradigm: dynamic, complex and ecological systems

An ecological approach to studying teachers, that seeks to retain the rich contextual network within which the teacher lives and acts, reflects where teacher cognition research should be going to remain relevant, according to Kubanyiova and Feryok, (2015). This view is shared by Li (2017) who suggests a greater focus on the "investigation of teacher cognition-in-interaction" (p. 33). These imply more qualitative approaches to researching language teacher cognition. At the same time, Borg and Alshumaimeri (2017) have argued that quantitative research, particularly large-scale surveys, still have their part to play. It is clear, however, that language teacher research more generally has taken on a constructivist-interpretivist view of teaching (Freeman & Richards, 1996) and greater attention to teachers' inner lives (Kubanyiova & Feryok, 2015) and teacher identities (Stewart, 2005) would put teacher cognition research in line with the prevailing trends in language education. Socio-cultural theory seems to have had a big impact in fomenting this change (Kubanyiova & Feryok, 2015). In other words, without undervaluing the importance of teachers' cognitions and their impact on practice, there is a move towards more sophisticated attempts to capture the complex nature of relationships within which teachers' cognitions exist rather than "putting them in an almost adversarial relationship by abstracting them from the context that binds them together" (Kubanyiova & Feryok, 2015, p. 438). Kubanyiova and Feryok further explain how practices are understood, not as spaces in which reified mental constructs, such as beliefs, may or may not be applied, but rather as "dynamic and evolving outcomes of individual and communal acts of meaning-making" (Skott, 2015, p. 24 cited in Kubanyiova & Feryok, 2015). Accordingly, studying language teachers' sense making should be understood as an interpretive activity, akin to research in sociolinguistics, anthropology, or cultural psychology, whose aim is to gain a deeper understanding of how ecologies of language teachers' inner lives

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[…] unfold in contexts of their practice. The researcher's task lies not in eliciting cognitions, but rather in "disentangl[ing] patterns in the teacher's reengagement in other past and present practices in view of the ones that unfold at the instant" (Skott, 2015, p. 24).

Burns, Freeman and Edwards (2015) suggest that we might already be in a dynamic, complex systems ontology previously outlined in relation to language teacher cognition, theoretically at least, by Feryok (2010). Certainly, the image of the researcher as a disentangler of patterns fits much better into a framework that adopts a dynamic systems approach. This research paradigm has recently gained attention generally throughout language learning research as having the potential to capture the complexity and dynamic nature of second language learning. The growth in interest in dynamic systems theory seems to have developed at the same time as concerns about the inadequacy of experimental methods that aims to identify a single variable isolated from its context have come to the fore, something that has also benefitted qualitative research more generally (Larsen-Freeman & Cameron, 2008). (Also see Chapter 3.)

Cross and Hong (2012) have shown how a dynamic systems approach can be realised in teacher cognition research in their study of the emotions of two elementary teachers in a school serving a high-poverty, high-minority population. Using Bronfenbrenner's Ecological Systems Framework (Bronfenbrenner, 1976) they summarised their findings in the following way:

Figure 2.3 Summary of findings
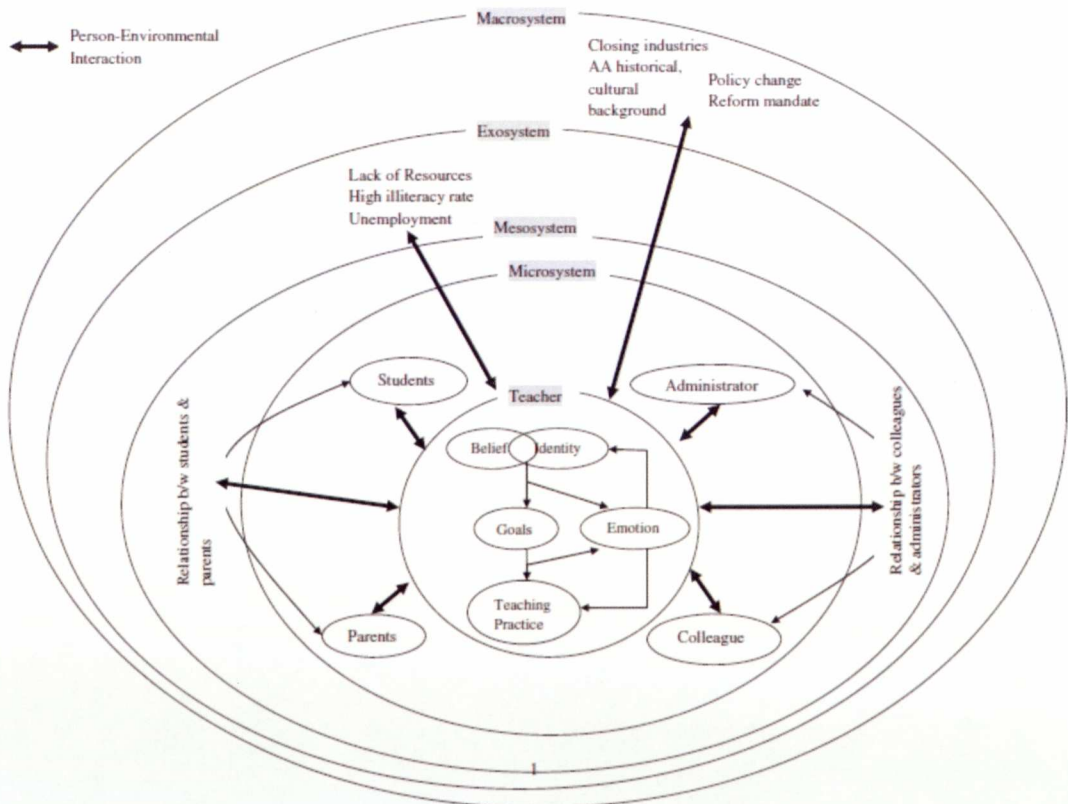
Fig. 1. Summary of the findings.

Cross and Hong (2012, p. 959)

Diagrammatically, it is easy to see the contextual richness and resulting advantages of an ecological approach to gain a deeper understanding of competing pressures and contexts on a teacher's practice. At the same time, it seems to show how the criticisms of stated cognitions-observed practice research designs may be well-placed.

Though the obvious weakness of attempts to capture dynamic processes in static 2D form is not overcome, the figure is notable for the amount of detail that frames and thus supports their findings. Cross and Hong (2012) identify how their participants' cognition is held suspended in four larger systems (microsystem; mesosystem; ecosystem; and macrosystem). Moreover, in identifying these greater systems, they can situate the participants' cognitions in a deeper and

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arguably more personal narrative than more conventional teacher cognition research has generally done up till now. Being personal, this narrative takes on a unique quality that draws attention to aspects that affect teachers' cognitions, for example, culture, economics, politics and even history, that have been unexplored until now.

Cross and Hong (2012) is a particularly good example of how teacher cognition research can shed light on as yet unexplored contexts in which teachers work, such as in socially marginalised and under resourced environments (Kubanyiova & Feryok, 2015). For example, of their two participants, one was an African-American who had spent ten years in urban low socio-economic status (SES) schools and the other, who identified as Latina, "understood the struggles of students...based on her experiences as a teacher and with family member who struggled financially" (p.960). They concluded that the two teachers' personal backgrounds and experiences created a strong empathy between them and their high-poverty, high-minority students who made up 90% of the student population. Both were highly committed, with strong beliefs in the potential for their students to be successful learners; at the same time, Cross and Hong noted that "Although both teachers were similar in many respects, they differed in their teaching style" (p. 967), reminding us of Breen et al.'s (2001) finding and showing the relevance of Kubanyiova and Feryok's call to study "collective intentionality" (p.440) and Borg's (2006) call to study groups of teachers rather than individuals. Cross and Hong's finding that their teacher participants had coping strategies that were embedded in their "pedagogical beliefs" and "well-developed professional identities" (p. 966), that enabled them to continue to work in an under-resourced school in a deprived area, shows the contribution that such research can make to the study of language teachers' cognitions.

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2.4 Situating this study

As was noted in the Introduction, learner autonomy has not featured greatly in the teacher cognition literature and studies have mostly been surveys of teachers' beliefs or cognitions without any investigation of the surveyed teachers' practices. The most recent study by Borg and Alshumaimeri (2017) does show, however, that there has been an increased interest in examining learner autonomy in conjunction with teacher beliefs.

Although the study reported in this thesis is not an ecological one, it might have some legitimate claim to be working within its tradition. This claim is made on the basis that the participant teachers' lives and identities were incidentally captured as a result of the qualitative-interpretative research design that allowed teachers to elaborate on their classroom experiences during interviews and in diaries. In other words, the participants, through recounting stories and episodes about their teaching, revealed in great detail the emotions, motivations and values that affected how they taught in the classroom, many being unexpected factors, thus presenting the researcher with a valuable opportunity to include these elements in the final presentation of the case studies. By using Borg's (2006, p. 283) framework (see Figure 2.2) as a guide, the initial focus of the interviews was on known factors that affect cognitions like "schooling, professional coursework, and classroom/contextual factors". However, as the research evolved it became clear that other factors were affecting cognitions, notably emotions, cultural connections, knowledge about Japanese learners and what I have termed "professional cognitions" (see Chapters 5 and 7). This made it difficult to adopt a working definition of teacher cognition and instead Kubanyiova and Feryok's (2015, p. 441) position is adopted. They say that "The conceptual scope of language teacher cognition research cannot be fully determined in advance, but needs to be allowed to

emerge (in light of researcher knowledge and experience) through the research process". Thus, within the case study chapters themselves, each teacher's uncovered cognitions will be outlined and illustrated.

2.5 Language teacher cognition summary

This section has outlined the theoretical background and historical developments of language teacher cognition research, which provides one part of the framework for this PhD study, from the 1970s up to the present day. It has also shown ways in which the study is connected to current concerns in the field. In the next section, I will look at theories and research connected to the other main focus of enquiry, which is language learner autonomy.

2.6 Learner autonomy

Over the past twenty years learner autonomy has become a mainstream concern of language teaching, generating a vast amount of writing on the subject (for example, Farrell & Jacobs 2010; Harmer, 2007; Hedge, 2000; Kumaravadivelu, 2003; Scharle & Szabó, 2000). Its popularity with teachers has resulted in many collected volumes written by practitioners about their classroom practice, especially in Japan (for example, Barfield & Brown, 2007; Barfield & Nix, 2003; Skier & Kohyama, 2006; Stewart & Irie, 2012). Moreover, its strong connections to communicative language teaching (CLT) (van Esch et al., 2002), learner-centred curriculums (Nunan, 1997; Tudor, 1996), motivation (Ushioda, 2008, 2011) and good language learner traits, amongst other areas, has produced many cross-over studies (for example, Leaver, Ehrman & Shekhtman (2005) on CLT and good language learners; Murray, Gao & Lamb (2011) on motivation). In fact, it has been pointed out how learner autonomy has been an integral part of the

general shift in language teaching from formulaic accuracy to communicative ability, and how

the two have developed in tandem (Littlewood, 1996).

It is also important to acknowledge that the concept of learner autonomy has origins

outside of language teaching (see Figure 2.4) and draws historical connections to the work of

Paolo Freire, Lev Vygotsky, John Dewey and the eighteenth-century thinker Jean-Jacques

Rousseau amongst others (Benson, 2011). Because of the volume of material written about a

popular concept, this review limits itself to research into learner autonomy in language classrooms,

the majority of which has taken place since 1981.

Figure 2.4 Major influences on the theory of autonomy in language learning
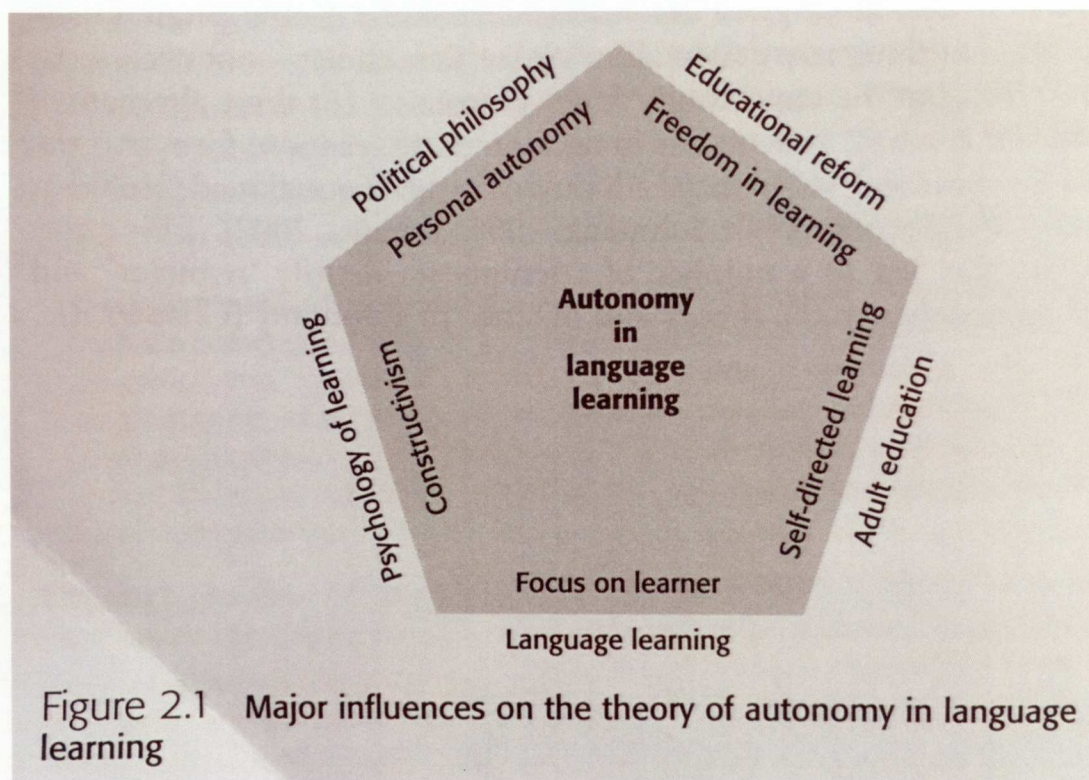
Figure 2.1   Major influences on the theory of autonomy in language learning

(Benson, 2011, p. 26)

It has been pointed out that the development of learner autonomy is a natural and inherent

goal for any educational endeavour (see, for example, Harmer, 2007; Little, 1995; Littlewood,

1996). This suggests that teachers who claim to foster language learner autonomy in classroom

practice might be doing so with no formal teacher training on the topic. Thus, their practice is

likely to be personal, uniquely influenced by their experiences and will not necessarily conform

to what might be considered orthodox practice in the field. The notion that learner autonomy is

naturally initiated by teachers in their practice has implications for this study. One is that using

only frameworks for developing learner autonomy, that appear in the literature to judge whether

a teacher's classroom promotes learner autonomy or not, is problematic because a teacher who

has had no formal exposure to the discourse on learner autonomy may not obviously exhibit

practice that promotes learner autonomy as described in research. Thus, in the absence of formal

learning on learner autonomy, the fullest understanding of whether a teacher's classroom practice

supports learner autonomy can only be understood through discovering what their cognitions are

about the topic, and how those cognitions underpin their observed classroom practice. This

underlines the soundness of the methodology employed in this study (see Chapter 3).

The next section starts by briefly defining learner autonomy as used in this study before

describing various theoretical frameworks. It then describes roles teachers adopt and tasks they

use to promote learner autonomy in classrooms, before finally noting the impact of institutional

restrictions.

2.6.1 Defining learner autonomy

The majority of reviews of language learner autonomy mention Holec's (1981) definition

that it is "the ability to take charge of one's own learning", although it has often been criticised

for implying that autonomy is something that can be learned like a body of knowledge. Rather, as Little (2007) argues, humans exhibit autonomy from birth, so it is in fact better thought of as a capacity that can be developed. Thus, the goal in language teaching is how to develop, foster or promote the capacity for autonomy.

Benson's definition of autonomy as "the capacity to take control of one's own learning" (2011, p. 58) is the one adopted for this study. The advantage of capacity over ability is the sense that it suggests a learner's potential for development without them being held to rigid universal markers of progress that are implied by ability. Benson, elaborating on his definition, explains this well:

> It is [...] assumed that it is neither necessary nor desirable to define autonomy more precisely than this, because control over learning may take a variety of forms in relation to different dimensions of the learning process. In other words, it is accepted that autonomy is a multidimensional capacity that will take different forms for different individuals, and even for the same individual in different contexts or at different times. (Benson, 2011, p. 58)

A loose definition then "establishes a space in which differences of emphasis can coexist" (Benson, 2011, p. 61) and allows teachers in different educational contexts to adapt learner autonomy to make it usable in their local conditions. Furthermore, as Kumaravadivelu (2003, p. 133) points out, highlighting its multidimensionality, "autonomy is a complex process of interacting with one's self, the teacher, the task and the educational environment". Therefore, studies of learner autonomy must try to understand the wider contexts within which teachers work because these are likely to impact how the fostering of learner autonomy occurs. In a similar vein, Toohey and Norton (2003) arguing from a sociocultural perspective suggest that:

readers [...] consider language learning as increasing participation in communities of practice (Lave & Wenger, 1991), [and therefore] to understand 'autonomy' not so much as individualized performance but as socially oriented agency, and to conceptualise 'cultures' as specific settings with particular practices that afford and constrain possibilities for individual and social action in them. (p. 59)

Those working from a sociocultural perspective might question whether autonomy, when it suggests an individual's freedom of action, is ever possible at all given the individual's embedded state in social structures (Benson, 2011). They would argue that an individual can only seek greater agency not autonomy in their lives. This, Benson (2011, p. 45) suggests, emphasises "how learner autonomy is socially conditioned and constrained", and stresses that an individual's autonomy is negotiated with other individuals within society and takes into account society's needs, a point that has been supported by others in the field of learner autonomy (for example, Little, 2007). Further discussion of the arguments over definitions of autonomy and agency are beyond the scope of this thesis, although detailed accounts are given in Benson (2007) and Benson (2011, pp. 45-49).

This thesis accepts the view that learner autonomy is "a multidimensional capacity that will take different forms for different individuals, and even for the same individual in different contexts or at different times" (Benson, 2011, p. 58). It is socially embedded and subject to the constraints of the social context in which an individual learns or uses language. As a result of its multidimensionality, studies of learner autonomy must be data-driven with priority given to meaning as it is put forward by the participants (learners or teachers), rather than the *a priori*

frameworks of best practice as set out in the literature (Little, 1995), something the adoption of a qualitative, interpretive paradigm in this study allows for.

In a nod to sociocultural theory, Benson points out that "it is ultimately through the learner's own agency that a capacity for autonomy develops" (Benson, 2012, p. 18), but this requires "the conscious efforts of the learner" (Benson, 2011, p. 16). It is also a long-term process though, and learners' efforts can be supported and enhanced by language teachers who simultaneously address both the capacity to learn a language and to use it (Dam, 2011; Little, 2007). The idea that learner autonomy equals learning on your own (Dickinson, 1987) has been rejected largely because of the strong influence of constructivist and socio-cognitive theories of learning which highlight the importance of interdependent collaboration in the development of autonomy (for example Little, 1995).

The following is a short summary of key ideas about learner autonomy highlighted in this section:

• Autonomy is a capacity for a learner to take control of their learning

• All humans have this capacity to varying degrees; it is an accepted goal of education with a long history

• It remains a capacity of the learner but can be developed, fostered or promoted by teachers over time

• The meaning of autonomy can change according to context; it is a flexible concept that allows for local interpretations

• Autonomy is developed through interaction with others

• In language classrooms, learners' increased capacity to learn a language and communicate using the language are simultaneous goals of learner autonomy; they are "two sides of the same coin." (Little, 2007, p. 26)

2.6.2 Operationalising the concept

Benson (2012), in defining autonomy as a capacity for learners to take control of their learning, suggests it consists of three main components: "ability", "desire" and "freedom". Teachers support the development of these components by helping their learners gain control of three areas: "learning management", "cognitive processes" and "learning content", as summarised in the following diagram:

Figure 2.5 Benson's components of autonomy
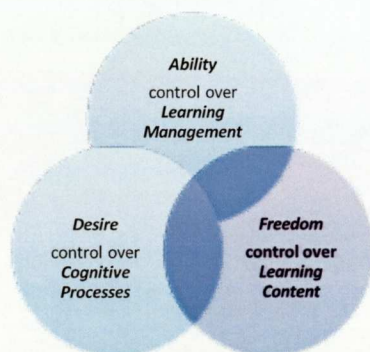
(Adapted from Benson, 2012, pp. 17-18)

Benson explains that:

> the practice of autonomy can be said to consist in creating conditions that help learners to: (1) develop mental and behavioural capacities to control their learning (developing ability); (2) develop positive attitudes towards learning and control over learning (arousing and sustaining desire), and (3) make choices and decisions about their learning (creating freedom). It also consists in helping

to develop this capacity to control learning along the dimensions of learning management, cognitive processing, and learning control (sic. content?). (Benson, 2012, p. 20)

Benson's model suggests that the components can be addressed individually, allowing teachers to emphasise just one of them in an activity (Littlewood, 1996). However, he also points out that classroom practices that address all three areas (i.e. the centre of all three circles) are where autonomy is both strongest and most likely to be developed (Benson, 2012). In reality, classroom practice is unlikely to ever only address a single area of control as there is considerable overlap and interdependency as illustrated by the interlocking circles.

The tasks that a teacher might use to promote autonomy will be explained later in this chapter (see section 2.6.5); however, here I give some brief examples of what is suggested by "learning management", "cognitive processes" and "learning content". In terms of learning management, a teacher might show learners how to make a study plan or introduce them to opportunities to use the L2 (Benson, 2012). Learners who understand their cognitive processes, including metacognitive knowledge can have more power to influence the outcomes of tasks and be more successful in doing them (Wenden, 1999). Thus, teachers can introduce processes of reflection, specifically planning, monitoring and evaluation (Little, 2007), into the classroom to raise awareness of cognitive and metacognitive knowledge. Finally, giving learners choices about the goal of learning and the forms of language to be learned is one example of how control over learning content can be promoted (Macaro, 2008).

2.6.3 Versions and levels of autonomy

For teachers, learner autonomy in general seems more attractive in theory than in practice and underpinning many attempts to theorise the concept, has possibly been a desire to show teachers how it can be done. This has led to the development of several versions and levels of autonomy. (See Tables 2.1 and 2.2 for selected examples.) While versions show "ways of representing the idea of autonomy" (Benson, 2007, p. 24), levels attempt "to operationalise the notion that autonomy is a matter of degree" (Benson, 2007, p. 23). In other words, levels appear more closely linked to how autonomy can be fostered in the classroom, whereas versions have a greater theoretical focus and situate learner autonomy within a broader educational philosophy. In reality the distinction is not always clear-cut.

In this section, a brief discussion of different "versions" of autonomy will be followed by one on "levels", the aim being to orient the reader to some of the theories which informed the analysis and findings and the terms adopted in the chapters that follow.

Table 2.1 Versions of autonomy

Author	Year	Number of versions	Descriptions
Benson	1997	3	"technical", "psychological" and "political" autonomy
Holliday	2003	3	"native-speakerist", "cultural-relativist" and "social" versions of autonomy
Kumaravadivelu	2003	2	"narrow" autonomy and "broad" autonomy
Oxford	2003	4	"technical", "psychological", "socio-cultural" (2 forms) and "political-critical" dimensions of autonomy
Smith	2003	2	"weak" autonomy and "strong" autonomy

Table 2.2 Levels of autonomy

Author	Year	Number of levels	Descriptions
Littlewood	1996	3	autonomy as a communicator, autonomy as a learner, autonomy as a person
Nunan	1997	5	"awareness", "involvement", "intervention", "creation" and "transcendence"
Scharle & Szabó	2000	3	"raising awareness", "changing attitudes" and "transferring roles"

2.6.3.1 Versions

Confusion over the meaning of learner autonomy has long been a characteristic of the field (Benson, 1997; Littlewood, 1996) and various attempts have been made to bring clarity and unity to the issue without necessarily solving it. For example, Benson (1997) devised a three-part model of autonomy consisting of "technical", "psychological" and "political" autonomy. This was developed by Oxford (2003, pp. 77-79) to include a *socio-cultural* perspective that recognised interaction with others in a community of practice. Though recent research often refers to Benson and Oxford's frameworks, very few researchers seem to use them as the basis for studying learner autonomy (Borg & Alshumaimeri, 2017). As Borg and Alshumaimeri (2017, p. 2) explain, "while this is important work, it is unlikely to be analogous to the more practical ways in which teachers conceptualise learner autonomy". In other words, they suggest there is a gap between the work of academic researchers and of practitioner-researchers that highlights the importance of making how teachers conceive of learner autonomy central to uncovering their autonomous practice, as in this thesis.

A more political version of learner autonomy was Holliday's (2003) that argued autonomy was a western concept that pinned negative traits on the disadvantaged learner, who could then be rescued by discovering autonomy through their native speaker teacher. Questions

about the appropriateness or applicability of learner autonomy to non-western settings have been

questioned by others (e.g. Pennycook, 1997; Schmenk, 2005), but criticism has largely been

rejected on the basis that autonomy has historically been found in cultures around the world, and

in practice it is adapted to local educational situations (Aoki & Smith, 1999; Benson, 2011; Borg

& Al-Busaidi, 2012a, 2012b; Borg & Alshumaimeri, 2017).

The recognition of autonomy as a flexible and adaptable concept has led to versions of

autonomy which reflect these ideas. For example, Smith (2003) suggests "weak" forms of

autonomy focus on learner training because learners lack a capacity to exercise autonomy, and

learning is "determined by the teacher, syllabus and/or institution" (p. 132). On the other hand,

"strong" forms assume students have an existing capacity for autonomy that can then be

developed in collaboration with the teacher through activities like a negotiated syllabus.

Kumaravadivelu's (2003) broad/narrow version is similar. He suggests that narrow

autonomy "maintains the goal of learner autonomy is to learn to learn" and treats "learning to

learn as an end in itself" (Kumaravadivelu, 2003, p. 47). On the other hand, a broad approach to

autonomy makes the liberation of the student the aim of developing learner autonomy thus

connecting it to more radical personal transformation on a political, social and economic level.

Like Smith (2003), Kumaravadivelu associates autonomy at the narrower ends of the spectrum

with learner training, particularly through better use of learning strategies.

Because of the prevalence of educational landscapes where teachers have limited control

over what and how they teach (Benson, 2007; Crookes, 2009; Wedell, 2009), research most often

details classroom practice at the weaker or narrower end of the spectrum. As a result, the explicit

connections between learner autonomy and political change or individual empowerment have

been weakened (Oxford, 2003; Ushioda, 2006). Narrow or weak pedagogies might also be less

effective because of the marginal attention they appear to pay to the different aspects of autonomy (Benson, 2012) or actually harm its development because learners do not feel they are genuinely in control of their learning (Dörnyei, 2001). On the other hand, Morrison (2011) notes how "for many learners their primary goal is the learning of a language and not the development of learner autonomy" with the result that some "may decide that relinquishing a degree of control at one or more stages of the learning process is an effective learning strategy" (pp. 4-5) suggesting that learners themselves allow and might even prefer weaker or more narrowly autonomous classrooms.

2.6.3.2 Levels

As mentioned earlier, unlike versions, a characteristic of levels of autonomy is how they provide frameworks for teachers to use in classrooms. For example, Littlewood (1996) suggests how a teacher can address three levels of a learner's autonomy (as a communicator, as a learner, and as a person). This, he argues, can be done by focusing on the knowledge, skills, motivation, and confidence of a learner's autonomy as a communicator and learner, something that leads to the learner's autonomy as a person naturally developing.

In contrast, Nunan's (1997) five level model presents a less holistic and more linear progression. In the first two stages, "awareness" and "involvement", students are guided towards a greater understanding of the purpose of tasks, their own learning preferences and given choices about how they learn. There follow two more levels, "intervention" and "creation", in which learners adapt or create tasks to suit their needs before they reach the fifth level "transcendence" where they "begin to be truly autonomous by utilizing in everyday life what they have learned in formal learning contexts" (p. 200). Nunan emphasises the importance of the teacher's guiding

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hand because few language learners are already strongly autonomous. This point is also taken up

by Scharle and Szabó (2000), who suggest that learners will need to be made aware of their

responsibilities and then trained, before classroom roles can be transferred to them.

Whether it is versions or levels, the literature generally characterises learner autonomy

as a positive intervention that helps learners escape from an ineffectual, teacher-centred pedagogy.

However, it is not without risk for teachers who may find that learners, who are unfamiliar with

autonomy and have different expectations of classroom learning, resist and reject it:

> Sometimes the slaves become enamoured of their chains and are reluctant to
> accept freedom. Having teachers make all the decisions can become the
> accepted and expected practice. So, if the students are given more scope for
> self-determination, they may reject it and criticize the teachers who offer it.
> (Farrell & Jacobs, 2010, p. 26)

As a result, transitions to student-centred learning can be difficult and chaotic and may even fail

(Breen & Mann, 1997; Brown, Smith & Ushioda, 2007; Dam, 1995) while teachers can come to

consider learners themselves as obstacles to the implementation of autonomous practice in their

classrooms (Borg & Alshumaimeri, 2017).

2.6.4 The roles of the teacher

Attempts to foster learner autonomy require teachers to adopt more varied roles than

those required in a traditional teacher-led classroom focusing on the one-way transference of

knowledge (Dam, 1995; Hedge, 2000; Voller, 1997). In the following section these new roles will

be described.

The term facilitator is often used to describe the teacher's role in an autonomous learning environment because it reflects the general shift of the classroom towards a learner-centred, collaborative environment (Dam, 1995; Macaro, 1997; Scharle & Szabó, 2000; Voller, 1997). A designation as a facilitator implies that teachers are responsible for maintaining an environment conducive to learners taking control by "cultivating a classroom dynamic that constantly lifts them to new levels of effort and achievement" (Little, 2007, p. 24). They also manage and coordinate events within the classroom, as Farrell and Jacobs (2010) explain "The teacher helps orchestrate the collection of resources and organising experiences that will provide optimal opportunities for learning as well as providing a structure for organising and making sense of learning" (p. 55). At the same time, the title of facilitator also suggests teachers are flexible and skilful in a number of different roles. For example, Hedge (2000, p. 66) notes how in a particular group work activity the teacher must be the "manager of activity, classroom organiser, guide, language resource, corrector of errors, monitor, [and] diagnoser".

How exactly a teacher facilitates learning also depends on the classroom. At the stronger, broader end of the autonomy spectrum the teacher-learner relationship becomes more collaborative and mutually supportive (for example, Smith, 2003). However, in weaker or narrower situations the teacher as a facilitator will have to create and maintain a learning environment that allows learners to take control and responsibility for their learning, as Dam explains:

> we are talking about the development of autonomy in an institutional context. Within these constraints, I see the development of learner autonomy as a move from an often totally teacher-directed teaching environment to a possible learner-directed learning environment [...] The task for the teacher in this connection is two-sided. On the one hand, she has to make the learners willing

to take over the responsibility for planning their own learning, for carrying out the plans and for evaluating the outcome. At the same time, she has to support them in becoming capable of doing so. (Dam, 2011, p. 41)

Dam's picture of the teacher reflects a common distinction, noted by Voller (1997), between two facets of support the teacher offers as a facilitator: psycho-social support and technical support (see Figure 2.6). For example, Hedge (2000) sees the teacher's role as being to promote positive attitudes and group cohesion so that collaborative work can be successful. On the other hand, a teacher must manage the classroom environment and teach strategies so that learners become more responsible for their learning. Littlewood (1996) also notes the psychological support a teacher gives learners, for example highlighting how they encourage learners during communicative tasks to overcome their fear of making mistakes, and also technical support such as the scaffolding of activities so that learners can achieve their goals. Macaro (2008) argues that a teacher should help learners behave strategically in order to reduce the "risks of both error and incomprehensibility" (p. 60) when using the L2, suggesting how psycho-social and technical support are often inseparable.

Figure 2.6 Different types of support a teacher can offer learners

<u>Psycho-social support</u>

teachers' personal qualities: e.g. being caring, supportive, patient, tolerant, empathic, open, non-judgmental

teachers' capacity for motivating learners: e.g. encouraging commitment, dispersing uncertainty, helping learners to overcome difficulties

teachers' ability to raise learners' awareness: e.g. "deconditioning" learners from preconceptions about the classroom roles of learners and teachers

<u>Technical support</u>

Teachers helping learners organise their own learning: (e.g. planning, choose materials, setting goals etc.)

Teachers helping learners evaluate themselves (e.g. through self-, peer-assessment etc.)

Teachers helping learners to acquire the necessary skills and knowledge (e.g. by raising awareness of language and learning, their learning styles etc. through learner training)

Adapted from Voller (1997, p. 102)

The role of teachers in training learners to become more autonomous often centres on the teaching of strategies (e.g. guessing unknown vocabulary, practicing saying words aloud, looking for opportunities to use language and asking the help of others (Macaro, 1997, pp. 118-119) that can make them more autonomous (Dörnyei & Murphey, 2003; Hedge, 2000; Little, 1995; Smith, 2003). However, training learners in strategy use is less explicitly connected to autonomy than it has been in the past (for example, Oxford, 2003; Uhl Chamot, Barnhard, Beard El-Dinary & Robbins, 1999; Wenden, 1991) because it is now recognised that it is how learners combine and use strategies, rather than the number they know, which is important (Chen, 2007; Kumaravadivelu, 2003). Instead, the teacher's role has become one of facilitating activities that more holistically develop learners' autonomous capacities (see section 2.6.5).

While learner autonomy is built on the transference of control and responsibility to the learners, Little (2007a) points out how "Learners cannot construct their knowledge out of nothing [...] Teachers remain indispensable, both as pedagogues and as discipline experts" (p. 20). This implies the unavoidable, and more traditional, teacher role of policing rules and regulations on attendance and other official policies as dictated by the institution; however, the term more broadly includes the commitment and self-regulation required to learn a language successfully which learners might not have fully developed. Hence, it is a teacher's responsibility "to intervene when her learners' choices are leading them into a blind alley, and especially when they are failing to set themselves optimal challenges" (Little, 2007, p. 23). Having knowledge of what constitutes an appropriate challenge for students is part of the other teacher role Little mentions, that of the teacher as pedagogical expert.

Expertise includes both linguistic knowledge and pedagogical knowledge of how best to engage learners in the tasks that will enhance their autonomy. The literature devotes a lot of space to the latter, suggesting how the teacher must be actively engaged with understanding their students, as Voller explains:

> If we see learning as an interpretative process, in other words, if we believe in the social construction of knowledge [...] the teacher will have to have a profound understanding both of the discourse community that the learner aspires to join, and of the discourse community from which learners come, if the teacher is to mediate effectively between them. (Voller, 1997, p. 106)

Teachers who know more about their learners' prior learning experiences, needs, goals and interests can take on the mediator role of which Voller writes. As a result, they can create classes that are relevant to learners and give them more choice and control over the learning content

thereby increasing their autonomy (Cotterall, 2000; Noels, 2013). They do this by providing

learners with opportunities to reflect their true selves in the L2 rather than repeating the formulaic

language of others as found in textbooks (Macaro, 2008), and by helping learners understand their

own beliefs about language learning (Cotterall, 2000).

Having background knowledge of students is important because it is widely

acknowledged that learners are often not in a position to take on responsibility for their learning

(Farrell & Jacobs, 2010; Harmer, 2007; Scharle & Szabó, 2000; Smith, 2003) and as Little

(2007a) points out "Few learners will arrive at their first class ready to take complete charge of

their own learning; for most, self-management in learning will be something they have to learn,

to begin with by taking very small steps" (p. 23). Therefore, in order to promote autonomy, a

teacher's role includes gauging learners' existing autonomy and their readiness to further develop

it (Cotterall, 2000). The accumulation of knowledge about their students is ongoing and feedback

surveys or in-class discussions about tasks can help teachers to adjust their level of support and

provide activities to suit learners' needs and interests (Noels, 2013, p. 28), and can also help

maintain a dialogue that resolves any issues (Farrell & Jacobs, 2010; Harmer, 2007).

2.6.5 Activities and tasks

As shown above, the role of the teacher in autonomous learning environments is to

support, guide and encourage learners towards greater control and responsibility in the classroom

and the achievement of their learning goals. This can be achieved through tasks and activities that

encourage learner involvement, learner reflection and appropriate target language use, as will be

explained in the following section.

There is some consensus on what type of activities might promote autonomy. Benson (2012), for example, suggests that they are ones that:

1. involve student preparation

2. involve an element of student design

3. draw on out-of-class experience

4. involve independent inquiry

5. involve student-student interaction

6. use "authentic" materials and "real language"

7. involve peer teaching

8. produce multiple outcomes

9. involve self- or peer-assessment

10. are followed by reflection

All of these characteristics of tasks or activities either put greater onus on the learner to take responsibility for their learning or give them opportunities to control aspects of the classroom.

A common theme, and one widely taken up in the literature, is the importance of fostering peer relationships and using group work to increase cooperative learning skills (Farrell & Jacobs, 2010; Hedge, 2000). In group work, learners must work with other people both for their own goals and for the success of the group, thus improving participation and collaboration (Breen & Mann, 1997; Farrell & Jacobs, 2010; Macaro, 1997; Murphey, 2003; Scharle & Szabó, 2000). This acknowledges the influence of constructivist and sociocultural theories on learner autonomy, in particular the work of Lev Vygotsky who "assumed that learning begins from the starting point of the child's existing knowledge and experience and develops through social interaction" (Benson, 2011, p. 41). Little (2007a) similarly invokes Vygotsky when he notes the crucial role of group work in learner development that particularly focusses on target language use:

The key to successful implementation of the principle of target language use lies in the effective use of group work [...] Group work is essential because it is only by working in small groups that learners can engage in intensive interactive use of the target language - following Vygotskian principles, we predict that language produced interactively gradually becomes part of the individual learner's internalised mental resources. (p. 25)

At one level group work is simply an efficient way for learners to use the L2 but it also lowers risks when speaking and helps them evaluate both the comprehensibility of their speech and how much they understand (Hedge, 2000).

Autonomous learning environments also emphasise activities where learners investigate their interests or plan their own tasks, and in which they can use "real" or "authentic" language generated by them and reflecting their immediate needs (Littlewood, 1996). This gives learners greater control and is empowering, because, as Macaro (2008) points out "Autonomy resides in being able to say what you want to say rather than producing the language of others" (pp. 59-60).

The final two items on Benson's list are assessment and reflection that help students gain greater control over cognitive processes because they become more aware of what they know, what they do not know and how they can bridge the gap. This enables them to plan their learning with appropriate goals and targets, giving them greater overall control and enhancing their autonomy (Benson, 2012). Little (2007a, p. 20) notes that reflection is supported by "classroom procedures that are participatory, proactive, communal and collaborative" and that incidental reflection is naturally promoted when learners are involved in setting learning targets and choosing materials, activities and tasks. However, he also notes the need to "embrace reflective intervention" and "supplement the incidental reflection that planning, monitoring and evaluating

learning entail by an explicitly detached reflection on the process and content of learning" (Little, 2007, p. 24). More explicit forms of reflection increase learners' understanding of their own cognitive and meta-cognitive processes. However, it is also generally assumed that teachers will need to train learners in reflection and self-assessment, because in conventional classrooms it is always the domain of the teacher (Farrell and Jacobs, 2010).

2.6.6 Institutional influences

The previous two sections have suggested that learner autonomy requires teachers and learners to embrace different roles while doing tasks that increase learner control and responsibility. However, there are many perceived barriers to these changes occurring such as the level and attitude of learners, the ability of teachers to teach in a way that promotes autonomy and the restrictions of the institution (Borg & Alshumaimeri, 2017, La Ganza, 2008). As Kumaravadivelu (2003) points out, "Autonomy is not context-free, that is, the extent to which it can be practiced depends on factors such as learners' personality and motivation, their language learning needs and wants, and the educational environment within which learning takes place" (p. 134). The effect of the educational environment on learner autonomy is what the final section of this review will now address.

How teachers see their roles and the activities which they consider to be beneficial to autonomy will depend on their cognitions; however, as pointed out earlier (see section 2.2), teachers are not always able to teach according to their cognitions. For example, teachers remain authority figures in classrooms who represent and are responsible for institutional expectations as stipulated/identified in the curriculum and syllabus and as policed by administrative oversight; naturally these factors affect the extent to which autonomous modes of learning can be promoted

(Benson, 2012; Hedge, 2000, La Ganza, 2008). Benson also notes how too much institutional control can have a negative effect on learner autonomy if learners feel the decisions they are offered "have few real consequences, or that they are being asked to take responsibility without at the same time being offered genuine freedom" (Benson, 2011, p. 175).

On the other hand, Dam (2011), while acknowledging restrictive aspects of the institutional setting, do not consider it incompatible with developing learner autonomy. Little suggests that regardless of how prescriptive syllabuses and curriculums are, there is always space to be exploited for the benefit of promoting learner autonomy because "First, each teacher will necessarily have her own understanding of the curriculum and her own approach to its delivery. Secondly, whereas the curriculum itself may not be negotiable, how precisely its goals are pursued certainly is" (Little, 2007, p. 24).

In other words, his suggestion seems to be that where teachers are naturally inclined towards promoting autonomy it will emerge through their teaching; and additionally, that they have a power to tailor the institutional requirements towards greater learner control. Benson (2012) alternatively draws an image of a teacher promoting autonomy almost as an act of rebellion against the institution, describing autonomous classroom practice as "opportunist" and reminding us that developing learner autonomy is not always an officially recognised educational goal, and notes that "In practice, approaches to autonomy in the classroom tend to be opportunist – a matter of doing what we [teacher-practitioners] can or, perhaps, what we get away with, given the constraints under which we work" (p. 19).

Quite how teachers identify and interpret the space for learner autonomy that Little and Benson suggest exists and the nature of this relationship between teachers' "understanding of the

curriculum" and their "approach" is something that this research hopes to shed light on. However, there is already some evidence that the space they identify cannot always be exploited by teachers. For example, in one recent study by Borg and Alshumaimeri, (2017, p. 16), using a survey to look at teacher cognition and learner autonomy, found that their participants identified "curriculum" factors (17.2%) as being amongst several obstacles that teachers felt prevented them from promoting learner autonomy along with learner characteristics (64%), prior education (13.4%), society (2.7%) and classroom management (1.5%). Moreover, as will be shown later, other factors such as concerns over continuing employment, can complicate to the point of destabilising a teacher's identity their attempts to mediate between their cognitions and the curriculum (see Chapter 5, section 5.3.2).

In other words, attempts to promote autonomy in the classroom will be reflected in the control that the teacher has over their teaching. This has been described in the concept of "teacher autonomy", which, it is argued, is a natural and requisite counterpart to learner autonomy (Little, 1995). Teacher autonomy though has generated a separate literature in itself and further discussion is beyond the scope of this thesis (see Sinclair, McGrath & Lamb, 2000).

2.7 Chapter summary

This chapter has situated the research reported in this thesis by offering a review of the most relevant literature on the two areas which this study focusses on: teacher cognition and learner autonomy.

One of the most significant points that this chapter has highlighted is how important context is to understanding both teacher cognition and learner autonomy and that past research may have been too narrowly focused on teachers' cognitions. It has also shown how, while both

fields have developed quite sophisticated organising schema and frameworks, teachers in the classroom are actively engaged in interpreting events and this may lead to discrepancies between how a teacher describes or explains their teaching to a researcher (ideal-oriented cognitions) and how they actually teach in class (reality-oriented cognitions). This, however, is to be expected given the dynamic nature of the classroom and the fact that the relationships which surround the teacher that are always in flux. Above all, this literature review has shown the potential for the field to gain from studies which combine teacher cognition and learner autonomy, of which there are a growing number but none to my knowledge using the methodology that will be outlined in the next chapter.

Chapter 3: Research Methodology

3.1 Introduction

As already pointed out in the previous chapter, both teacher cognition and learner autonomy are complex and dynamic concepts that in spite of their popularity as research topics for the past thirty to forty years have resisted simple definitions (Borg, 2006; Woods & Cakir, 2011). Teacher cognition is also contextually specific "private mental work" that is "invisible to outsiders and beyond the reach of researchers" (Burns & Freeman, 2015, p. 585); while learner autonomy can be understood as a series of observable behaviours that a teacher aims to encourage in a classroom (Pekkanli Egel, 2009). These characteristics, as well as a desire on my part to gain a deep understanding of what in a teacher's life influences their practice leads to the choice of qualitative case study for this research.

Qualitative case study is a "research strategy" (Denzin & Lincoln, 2003) appropriate for "a detailed examination of ... a single subject" (Bogdan & Biklen, 2007, p. 59) because of its use of multiple data collection methods that can generate rich and detailed data longitudinally (Duff, 2008; Flyvbjerg, 2011; Merriam, 1998; Richards, 2003). It also allows for flexibility in its design that means the research plan can evolve iteratively during the research period in response to the data (Denzin & Lincoln, 2011). Finally, there is an emphasis on studying the case in its context so as to gain as full and complete a picture of the network of relationships which can impact a subject (Duff, 2014; Flyvbjerg, 2011; Richards, 2011). These characteristics of case study make it appropriate for the challenge of trying to tease out the relationships between teacher cognition and learner autonomy as they exist within my participants' theoretical cognition systems and how they are manifested in practice in order to answer my research questions (see Chapter 1, section 1.2).

This chapter begins by describing the research methodology and outlining the characteristics and strengths of qualitative case study, in particular ones which only involve a small number of participants like my own (see sections 3.2 and 3.3). Following that, the participants and setting for the study will be introduced. This section will include the reasons for selecting the two participants who took part in the study and describe their teaching experience, personal teaching philosophies and relationship to the researcher. Information about the institution and language programme where they worked will also be given in the hope of creating "a unified representation of the object of study" (Richards, 2011, p. 214). After that the choice of data collection methods will be explained (see section 3.5), before a discussion of the ethical concerns connected to this research and the measures taken to protect the participants (see section 3.6).

3.2 Qualitative inquiry

According to Richards (2003, p. 10) "the broad aim of qualitative inquiry is to understand better some aspects of the lived world". This is a view shared by others, like Berg (2007) who emphasises the particular interest qualitative research has in "how humans arrange themselves and their settings and how inhabitants of these settings make sense of their surroundings through symbols, rituals, social structures, social roles, and so forth" (p. 8).Given these two characteristics of qualitative research it comes as no surprise that Duff (2008, pp. 30-31) notes "the importance of examining and interpreting observable phenomena *in context*." Berg (2007, p. 9), makes the additional point that the researcher's aim is to "explore how people structure and give meaning to their daily lives... and examine how people learn about and make sense of themselves and others".

This can be termed "the emic or insider's perspective" (Merriam, 1998, p. 6). Because of the researcher's reliance on their participants to gain the insider view, it is important they are treated ethically and respectfully (Radnor, 2001).

However, in setting out to understand the "lived world" qualitative research also accepts, even celebrates, the lack of one single objective reality. In other words, as Stake (2005, p. 454) makes clear, "knowledge is socially constructed". This account of knowledge is shared by this doctoral research which took place within a constructivist paradigm that Denzin and Lincoln (2003) describe here "The constructivist paradigm assumes a relativist ontology (there are multiple realities), a subjectivist epistemology (knower and respondent concrete understandings), and a naturalistic (in the natural world) set of methodological procedures"(p. 35).

The co-construction of knowledge means that the methods for collecting data, the execution of the data collection and the subsequent storage, analysis and interpretation of the data are of enormous significance. Each stage is not simply of equal importance but reliant and intertwined with each of the others. As Coffey and Atkinson (1996, p. 6) make clear, qualitative inquiry is organic and ongoing "The process of analysis should not be seen as a distinct stage of research; rather, it is a reflective activity that should inform data collection, writing, further data collection, and so forth". In other words, in the simultaneously occurring processes of data collection and analysis the researcher is recognised as bringing their own subjectivity to proceedings, something that can be controlled but not eliminated (Merriam, 1998; Radnor, 2001; Stake, 2005) (see section 3.3.2). This subjectivity sets qualitative research in stark opposition to quantitative research, whose "proponents claim that their work is done from within a value-free framework" (Denzin & Lincoln, 2011, p. 8). Qualitative researchers on the other hand "stress the socially constructed nature of reality, the intimate relationship between the researcher and what

is studied, and the situational constraints that shape enquiry. Such researchers stress the value-laden nature of enquiry" Denzin & Lincoln, 2011, p. 8). While qualitative research seems to take on a distinct form when placed in opposition to quantitative research with its positivist paradigm and preference for experimental methods, qualitative research remains a site of theoretical conflict and is not exclusively associated with either a particular field or specific methodological practices (Coffey & Atkinson, 1996; Denzin & Lincoln, 2011) implying its flexibility and potential application to a variety of research endeavours.

What is clear is that qualitative research has, since the 1990s, become hugely popular in social science (Denzin & Lincoln, 2011) and mainstream in applied linguistics (Duff, 2008, 2014; King & Mackey, 2016; Richards, 2003), something that Richards (2003, p. 8) notes in the field of TESOL may have occurred in reaction to experimental studies that "are not designed to explore the complexities and conundrums of the immensely complicated social world that we inhabit". The need of researchers to closely investigate practice might also have spurred many of them to pursue alternative research methodology, while the "transformative potential for the researcher" of qualitative research make it suitable for language teaching (Richards, 2003. p. 9).

However, qualitative research has also been subject to criticism. One of several major criticisms (along with others like a lack of validity, rigorousness, and generalisability, issues which will be addressed in section 3.3) that has traditionally been levelled at qualitative research is that it is less valuable than quantitative research because of its inherent subjectivity. As has already been pointed out though, it is argued that qualitative research is better at capturing complex multi-faceted phenomenon that have more than a single variable. Additionally, Richards (2003, p. 9) points out how qualitative research contributes to a "community of practice" (Lave & Wenger, 1991) because "we [practising teachers] can draw strength from our shared

understandings and experiences". This view of the contribution that qualitative research can make is something to which this thesis aspires.

3.3 Case study

Case study has been variously described as a research method (Yin, 2009); a research strategy (Denzin & Lincoln, 2003); a type of research design and analysis (Duff, 2008); as "an umbrella term for a family of research methods" (Adelman, Jenkins & Kemmis, 1977 cited in Bell, 1999, p. 10); and as either "a set of procedures common to different types of research or as a distinct approach in itself" (Scott & Usher, 1999, p. 87 cited in Richards, 2011). This plethora of similar but distinct definitions reflects the point made by Merriam that case study is "used by many people in many different ways to mean many different things" (1998, p. xiii). Consensus does exist, however, on its strong association with qualitative research traditions, although not exclusively so (Yin, 2009), and there have been calls for more mixed methods case studies (e.g. Flyvbjerg, 2011). In applied linguistics, case studies are "usually associated with interpretive qualitative research" (Duff, 2008, p. 35) having been used extensively to understand learners, teachers, classrooms, educational institutions and language policies (Duff, 2014).

Stake (2005) tells us that "case study is not a methodological choice, but a choice of what is to be studied" (p. 443) and this highlights the central concern of case study, which is the subject of study (Richards, 2011; Yin, 2009), because "understanding the critical phenomenon depends on choosing the case well" (Stake, 2003, p. 151). Flyvbjerg, (2011, p. 306) also points out that "generalizability of case studies can be increased by the strategic selection of cases".

Whatever the choice of subject to be studied, cases must be "bounded" and as a complex, functioning unit should, through intensive investigation, provide rich detail and depth often over

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long periods of time (Yin, 2009), a factor which suggests case study's suitability for research of

ecological or dynamic systems (see Chapter 2, section 2.2.5). A further connection to these

system-based research ontologies is that in case study the unit of study is observed in context, the

variables of which the researcher must capture both in the research process and also in the final

written document that then allows the reader to fully understand and interpret the case (Flyvbjerg,

2011; Merriam, 1998; Richards, 2011; Stake, 2003; Stake, 2005; Yin, 2009;). In this way, Merriam

(1998, p. 30) points out that case studies are "heuristic", a view presumably supported by Yin

(2009, p. 188) who comments that the reader of an "exemplary case study ... can reach an

independent judgment regarding the merits of the analysis". In order for the reader to be in such

a position as outlined by Yin above, care must be taken in the reporting of case studies and the

writing needs "to be persuasive and provide compelling but sound arguments and evidence" (Duff,

2008, p. 193). It must also "describe the case in sufficient descriptive narrative so that readers can

experience these happenings and draw their own conclusions" (Stake, 2005, p. 450).

Despite their popularity, for some the legitimacy of case studies as data sources is still

open to question (King & Mackey, 2016, p. 223) and the negative judgement of case studies is

often not helped by the opaque or vague way in which methodological issues are written up

(Richards, 2011). On the other hand, Duff (2014, p. 233) notes how in the field of applied

linguistics case study "has contributed substantially to theory development, generating new

perspectives or offering a refutation or refinement of earlier theories".

A successful case study will allay any suspicions about legitimacy by employing a range

of techniques and strategies that demonstrate the rigorousness of the whole research process that

underpins the final report (Coffey & Atkinson, 1996; Dörnyei, 2007). In order to be rigorous,

King and Mackey (2016) argue that case studs should have credibility, transferability,

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dependability and confirmability (Denzin and Lincoln, (2011) agree though they use the term

"trustworthiness" instead of credibility). Definitions of the terms are given below:

Credibility – e.g. established through prolonged engagement in the field

Transferability – e.g. purposeful sampling and low inference, thick description

Dependability – e.g. triangulation

Confirmability – e.g. via practiced reflexivity

(King & Mackey, 2016, p. 217)

Stake (2005, p. 454) places particular emphasis on the importance of triangulation in order to

achieve credibility because apart from helping to "clarify meaning [and] verifying the

repeatability of an observation or interpretation" it also shows the case from different perspectives

and realities thereby reducing the risk of incomplete or biased representations (Coffey & Atkinson,

1996; Nunan & Bailey, 2009; Richards, 2003). Richards (2011, p. 213) gives more practical

insights into how a rich data set and therefore effective triangulation might be achieved. He notes

the importance when planning research of organising the data effectively in some kind of database,

and the value of a journal "as means of getting to grips with the data".

It is hoped that the rigorous nature of this research will be apparent throughout this thesis.

The sections that follow, together with Chapter 4, will attempt to provide a thorough account of

the way in which the research was approached and the participants chosen (see section 3.4) and

also the manner of data collection, analysis and interpretation (see Chapter 4). It will also show

the importance of reflection (Richards, 2011) and participant-checking (Dörnyei, 2007; Yin,

2009) in driving the case study to this final account and how alternative readings and

interpretations were considered, challenged and ultimately put to one side.

3.3.1 Defining the case in my case study

The choice of participants in case study is recognised as being of paramount importance (Duff, 2008; Stake, 2005) if the "significant particularity" of a case is to be uncovered (Richards, 2011, p. 219). Stake's (2005) advice here is practical but revealing about the essence of case study. Researchers should:

> choose that case from which we feel we can learn the most. That may mean taking the one most accessible or the one we can spend most time with [...] Sometimes it is better to learn a lot from an atypical case than a little from a seemingly typical case. (p. 451)

Within applied linguistics, as Duff (2008, p. 114) points out, single case studies are "primarily based on opportunistic convenience sampling" which means "people in one's social network", something that resembles what Stake (2003, p. 152) calls the "purposive sample" which seeks "variety" while "acknowledging opportunities for intensive study". This was the approach I adopted and this research was conducted in the institution where I worked for the practical reasons cited by Duff (2008): namely, that familiarity aids access to the site of study and participants and simplifies issues around informed consent, while potentially allowing for longer access and therefore potentially deeper and more interesting data to be gathered.

My focus on teacher cognition naturally suggested the teacher as the unit of study, and my research involved two "native speaker" teachers of English who were teaching the same course within the same university in Japan (see section 3.4). Each teacher could be considered a separate, clearly "bounded" case (Richards, 2011; Stake, 2005; Yin, 2009). While the similarities of their teaching circumstances meant A and B were comparable, they also represented unique

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belief systems that sat within distinct and contrasting networks, as will be explained later in this chapter (see section 3.4.1).

Yin (2012) underlines how using theoretical concepts to inform the design of a case study can enhance the chance of its success and a thorough review of the literature on both teacher cognition and learner autonomy had occurred prior to starting this research. Based on the identified gaps in the literature A and B were chosen as participants because it was believed that they would be able to provide insights into their cognitions about learner autonomy in tertiary education in the Japanese context and the manner in which they fostered it in their teaching (also see section 3.4). In this sense, this study is an "instrumental case study" in that "the case is of secondary interest, it plays a supportive role, and it facilitates our understanding of something else", in my case, how learner autonomy is realised in practice in a Japanese university. At the same time though, it exists in "a zone of combined purpose" because my desire to learn about my participants' cognition and belief systems means it can also be described as an "intrinsic case study" whereby "one wants better understanding of this particular case" (Stake, 2005, p. 445).

By choosing to study two teachers within my institution who taught similar courses to me, I was clearly also, by default, adopting the role of participant-observer, a common feature of case study research that originated in ethnographic studies (Richards, 2003). In simple terms, in order to get maximum exposure to the field, the researcher works in the institution where the case is being studied. Described as "insider research" by Brannick and Coghlan (2007), they argue for its validity and usefulness in terms of easier access, greater understanding and the ability to manage the politics of the landscape.

As in this case study, when the researcher is central to the collection, interpretation and final presentation of the data, the theoretical background and experiential insights that the

researcher has can bring value to the research and final thesis that might not be visible from an etic perspective (Brannick & Coghlan, 2007; Duff, 2008; Stake, 2003; Strauss & Corbin, 1998). However, there are dangers associated with being a participant observer (Labaree, 2002), the most significant of which is "taking for granted the sorts of beliefs, attitudes and routines that the researcher needs to remain detached from in order to observe and describe" (Richards, 2003, pp. 14-15). As Duff (2008, p. 131) points out, "the researcher may be seen as too close to the case to see things differently ... to consider alternate explanations".

However, these issues, which reflect more general issues with validity in qualitative research (Maxwell, 2002), can be mitigated by full disclosure and acknowledgement of the relationships within the research and explanations of the reasons for key decisions being taken (Duff, 2008). Issues with descriptive and interpretive validity can be respectively overcome through the use of suitable and comprehensive methods to collect data (e.g. recording devices in addition to field notes) and a commitment to understand "the perspective and categories ... from an emic rather than an etic perspective" (Maxwell, 2002, p. 48) that is followed through. In addition, the risk of bias and researcher assumptions can be reduced by techniques such as the use of a research diary, respondent feedback on analysis (Dörnyei, 2007), and reflexivity about the researcher's relationship to the research that in the final thesis will show "congruency of the theoretical perspective, methodology, and method" (Jones, Torres & Arminio, 2006, p. 124).

3.3.2 Single participant case studies

Criticisms of case studies with single or small numbers of participants has often been connected to the perceived importance of generalisability (Flyvbjerg, 2011). However, while debates about what part generalisation plays in the general aim of qualitative research continues

(for example, Stake, 2005; Yin, 2009; also see Richards, 2011, p. 215-6) the aim of my study is not to produce theory or make grand claims about teacher cognition and learner autonomy. In keeping within the constructivist-interpretive paradigm that underpins this research, one that accepts a "tolerance for ambiguity" (Stake, 2005, p. 453) and acknowledges multiple realities and the construction of knowledge that refuses a single objective truth (Denzin & Lincoln, 2003; Duff, 2008; Richards, 2003), I recognise that the two cases presented here remain contextually specific and local to the Japanese tertiary environment.

However, this is not to say that the study cannot aid other researchers in the areas of teacher cognition and learner autonomy while building on the existing body of knowledge in each area. In particular, by choosing to investigate the learner autonomy cognitions of just two teachers, but over an extended period of time and including observations of their practice, I believe this pair of case studies also contributes to recent calls for more exhaustive investigations of teachers' lives (Kubanyiova & Feryok, 2015).

Though primarily viewed as instrumental case studies, both A and B are of intrinsic value with A in particular shedding light on unique and underrepresented groups through her identity as a female, bilingual "native speaker" teacher, who is also existing at the margins of the profession as a part-time teacher. B is much more representative of English teaching professionals at the tertiary level in Japan although the influence of his language learning experience later in life and the lack of influence he credits professional teacher education exerting on his teaching practice suggests ways in which Borg's (2006) model of teacher cognition could be redrawn.

Above all, the in-depth study of both participants in this research draws greater attention to and further highlights the importance of the personal, situated, and sheer variety of knowledge and experience that teachers accumulate throughout their professional lives in the construction of

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their cognition and the belief systems that inform their classroom practice. In this sense, my research follows on from Elbaz's (1983) seminal study on teacher thinking that also had just a single participant.

More generally, in the field of education and applied linguistics / language teaching single-sample case studies are common and accepted (Golombek, 1998; Tsui, 2003). As Duff (2008, p. 35) points out, in applied linguistics "the "case" ... has usually been the individual language learner, teacher, speaker, or writer" (see, for example, Schmidt, 1983). Furthermore, as Duff (2014) notes:

> Important early second language (L2) case studies (e.g., Hatch, 1978; Schmidt, 1983; Schmidt & Frota, 1986; Schumann, 1978) often examined linguistic and interactional aspects of L2 development (or lack of development) in a single case. Predominantly linguistic single- or multiple-case studies are still being conducted. (p. 234)

In sum, unlike large-scale quantitative studies whose goal is generalisation, in seeking out rich, thick description, out of necessity qualitative case study focuses on the study of small or even single populations. As Merriam (1998, p. 238) reminds us "The most important point about case studies to keep in mind is that they are richly descriptive in order to afford the reader the vicarious experience of having been there", something I hope to achieve in the chapters that follow.

Far more important than the number of participants is the choice of participant. Having shown in this section the type and aims of the case study, in the next section I will introduce my participants and show why I believed they had potential to offer insights on teacher cognition and learner autonomy that could answer my research questions.

3.4 Participants

In this section I will provide descriptions of the two participants who took part in the study, explain our relationships and address connected issues of power. I will also give details about why the participants were deemed suitable for the research and my previous interactions with them. Finally, the section will end by describing the students, courses and institution.

3.4.1 The teachers

Both teachers were working in the same institution and teaching the same courses as me illustrating the opportunistic, convenience sampling approach (Duff, 2008) that I took when choosing them. As colleagues and also friends, there was an existing bond of trust and mutual support for each other that made practical issues of access and ethics easier. As well as discussing our classes and teaching when we were together on campus, we also socialised off it as well. Moreover, both participants had each been interviewed by me for other research and the mutual enjoyment felt during the process gave me confidence that they would be willing and open informants about their teaching experiences if invited to join my doctoral research. In fact, A had suggested that she wanted to be involved in more research and so was an obvious choice as a participant.

The information in the descriptions that follow pertains to the situation in April 2011 when the main collection of data began.

3.4.1.1 Teacher A

I had first met A when I began teaching at the university four years before I began this doctoral research and we had developed a close friendship through discussions of school work

but also other non-work issues. We also met socially outside of the university. Though she was a part-time teacher and I was a contract teacher with arguably a higher status and more secure working conditions, this gap was not something I had any concerns about as I was not connected to decisions about A's future number of classes and so on. Plus, as mentioned above, she had told me of her willingness and desire to be involved in future research. While it was true that I was coordinating one of the courses she was teaching, this was an educational role that consisted of explaining the contents of the course and orienting teachers around the textbook at the start of the semester. Beyond that, the role had no real authority. As will be explained, however, issues of power relations could not be so simply dismissed, although I do not believe they significantly affected the outcome of the research (see section 3.4.2).

A was in her early 50s and had been teaching English at university for 24 years. She was born in Japan to a Japanese mother and Swiss father and so had grown up speaking German and Japanese before learning English at an International School where classes were taught in English. Though she was a balanced bilingual in terms of her spoken language, as she admitted, her ability to read and write Japanese was weaker than her English. And though she had spent almost all of her life in Japan, she was teaching courses that were designated as being for "native speaker" teachers, a label that she would reveal in interviews she was not entirely comfortable with.

Though I had not envisaged at the beginning that A's own language learning experience and her dual cultural identity would play such an important role in her cognitions and classroom practice, over the course of multiple interviews it became clear that it did. This indicates not simply the importance of these other, but often overlooked, aspects of teachers' lives, but also the importance of working with participants in depth and over extended lengths of time in order to

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uncover the fullest possible picture of their lives (Borg & Alshumaimeri, 2017; Kubanyiova & Feryok, 2015).

A worked at two universities over four days a week. She had two degrees, both from American universities and while her undergraduate degree was in childhood education, her Master's degree – generally the minimum qualification required to teach at Japanese universities – was in Performance Arts: Dance and Composition. Simultaneously while working as an English teacher, A had a career as a professional dancer teaching and performing internationally. This was one reason why she remained a part-time teacher because of the flexibility it allowed her to pursue her dance commitments.

While committed to teaching and her students, A had never been involved in any kind of professional development in terms of language teaching. She was not a member of any professional organisations and had never presented or published, though she had created her own classroom materials showing how she identified herself as a practitioner not a researcher (see Appendices 7-12). Though her other commitments to dance might have dictated why she chose to remain outside the research discourse community, it also reflects the nature of English teaching in Japan throughout the 1990s where being a native speaker with a master's degree was enough to get a job, and many teachers saw teaching as a means to earn money while living in Japan rather than as a vocation (see Hawley Nagatomo, 2012).

Given the existing personal bond that A and I had prior to the research and the extended period we spent talking together in interviews, it is hardly surprising that aspects of A's personal life also entered the dialogue. In particular, at the time of the research A's son was at university in Japan and she drew parallels between him and her students (see Chapter 5, Extract 5.29). Furthermore, her experience of being a mother in Japan meant that to an extent she could draw

on her knowledge of her students' prior learning experience. As will be shown, being able to empathise with her students seemed to give her confidence about her practice and on many occasions during interviews she showed how her cultural knowledge of Japanese students and their behaviour had been instrumental in developing her cognitions and teaching practice (see Chapter 5, Extract 5.42).

3.4.1.2 Teacher B

I had first met B while studying in the same Japanese language class about two years before I started teaching at university. Illustrating the importance of acquaintance networks in securing work in Japanese universities, we both got jobs at the same university at about the same time thanks to another person we studied with. We both worked part-time for one year before getting five-year limited-term contracts, so in terms of our work status we were equals.

B was in his early 40s and had been teaching English at university for 6 months. Prior to that he had been teaching English conversation in a private language school for five years. He was white British and had grown up in the UK where he had completed his undergraduate degree in Geography and had an MLitt in International Security Studies. After a short period of time working in the UK he had travelled around Australia and New Zealand before deciding to come to work in Japan. At the time of the research he was studying for an MA in Applied Linguistics and TESOL through a British University via distance learning. He was also a member of the Japan Association of Language Teaching (JALT) and had some experience of presenting and writing research. At the end of the academic year (March 2012) in which the research took place, B moved to a similar job at another private university in the area (hereafter New University) Though he still had one year remaining on his contract at Old University, he applied a year early because, as

he explained, there were many jobs being advertised and he believed he would have a good chance

of getting another limited term contract position. In spite of his new job, we remained in close

contact with each other, enabling the collection of additional data at his new job.

As I had also worked in the private language school industry prior to working at

university and, being of the same nationality, we had a lot in common. We had also previously

done some joint research and presented our results together at international conferences; moreover,

we were both interested in pursuing academic careers beyond the five-year contracts that we were

on, and so also had shared ambitions. One of B's strengths was materials development and he had

written a paragraph writing and presentation booklet that was part of the Communication and

Writing 1 (CW1) course which was observed in this research (to protect his anonymity, a copy

has not been included in this thesis; however other materials can be found in Appendices 13-20).

Unlike A, B was far less likely to talk about events outside of the classroom or institution

in relation to his teaching. Though clearly very dedicated to his classes and teaching his students,

he could appear detached and in one interview described it as "just a job". In other words, unlike

for A, for B there was a clear separation between his personal life and his job that, in interviews

at least, he was able to maintain. The only exception was his adult language learning experience

of Japanese that he often referred to when empathising with his students' position as learners.

3.4.2 Research relationships

Research undertaken in the researcher's place of work carries its own ethical concerns,

most notably that of power relations, and the researcher should attempt to separate any potentially

conflicting roles (Oliver, 2003), though how practical this is in reality is questionable (Garton &

Copland, 2010). It must also be remembered that power relations are complex and exist on many

planes such as gender, age and race (Charmaz, 2006). Every attempt was made to anticipate any issues before they arose but as my relationship with each participant changed over time I also had to react and respond in a sensitive way, as I outline below.

The most obvious power relations requiring sensitivity were our professional ones. As I explained above, while B and I both in terms of our experience and positions were equal, A was far more experienced than me and yet in a less secure and stable position as a part-timer, even though this was a choice she had made. However, they were both aware that I had no power or authority in terms of giving or taking away classes or sanctioning their teaching in any way and showed no reluctance to taking part when I first invited them. In fact, unlike some other colleagues who clearly were uncomfortable with the idea of me observing them, A and B were never less than enthusiastic participants.

In each of the two projects that I had previously worked on with A and B, and in the doctoral research as well, I had made it clear that I was interested in learning more about what they did from the point of view of a neutral observer. In other words, I made clear that my role was non-judgemental and I would not label their actions as being good or bad. I also outlined my own ideas about teaching, such as a belief in its on-going development and there being no one correct way. In addition, I was very clear about the aims and the subject which I was interested in, so both A and B were aware that I was interested in learner autonomy. Being up front in this way can be problematic if teachers under observation try to create the type of class that the researcher wants to see (Borg, 2006). This was something I considered before explaining my research aims. On balance, I decided that because my participants were also friends and I could explain very clearly that it was important I saw how they taught normally, and also because they had no reason to want to show me anything other than their usual way of teaching that being open

with them would not cause any significant problems. Furthermore, because I had come to understand that neither knew very much about the research literature on learner autonomy I judged that they would not actually be able to change their teaching style to show an 'autonomous' class.

Though I am confident neither A or B changed their classes in any significant way because I was observing them, it is impossible to say this with 100% certainty. However, the longitudinal nature of the study was probably advantageous as there is a difference between one-shot observation and observation over time (Dörnyei, 2007) with the former much more likely to generate an observer effect than the latter where familiarity is likely to result in more relaxed and "normal" classroom behaviour both on the part of the teacher and the students. By observing for a whole semester, I felt that the potential for my presence to affect my participants would be reduced. Another advantage of the classes that I had chosen to observe was that both teachers had taught them before, and so I imagined that they would already have patterns of activities and teaching plans and feel under less pressure being observed while teaching them.

By the time of writing up this research the professional relationships between myself and A and B had changed significantly. I had gained a tenured promotion which resulted in me not only being responsible for the courses that A taught but also scheduling her classes every year. B, after a few years at a different university, which offered an unexpected extra opportunity to study his practice, had returned to take a tenured role like mine, and although we were equals, the two more years that I had spent in the role gave me a degree of seniority. In spite of these changes, because they occurred at least two years after the semester during which most of the data was collected it seems fair to say that there was probably no significant effect on the final outcome. Certainly, our personal relationships have remained the same.

Power relations though are often hidden below or obscured by official signs and attempts to maintain order (Foucault, 1979). And while on the surface my relationship with A seemed stable and unproblematic, it became clear over time through the interviews that in fact A was only too aware of her weak position as a part-timer in the institutional hierarchy. In particular, she saw the full-time contract teachers – even though they were also limited term, they had a guaranteed salary and other benefits – and the tenured professors as being at a distance from her and of holding more power and privilege. This sense of distance and hierarchy was reinforced by the fact that there were separate offices for tenured professors, contract teachers and part-time teachers and A regularly complained that she did not see the people who ran the courses she taught and felt distant from them.

A also worried about the number of classes she received year to year because being paid per class this would directly affect her income and explained in Interview 3 how an encounter with a tenured professor had led her to want to quit working:

Extract 3.1 (A Interview 3)

A: Well I wanted to quit because erm my position there even though I'm part-time I've been there for so long so in some ways I know a lot of the full-time people and you know things are not that fair sometimes you know but maybe there is some kind of trust I've been there a long time never done something horribly bad and I think that I've been *isshokenmei* [serious; dedicated] teaching but I was very upset when my number of classes erm or the number of classes minused from my schedule which was only one

R: Right

A: Was compared to another part-timer or other part-timers whose classes were subtracted by maybe they had half of their classes taken away and I felt that erm the teacher actually she wasn't even aware that she was doing this but it was she was playing around with the the livelihood of those people because part-timers and full-timers they all have to make a living and some part-timers you know it's it's like they're they're the household bread winner and I I felt very sensitive

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about the position of the part-timer. I felt like because this teacher was a tenured teacher she didn't really understand that (you know) some people have to come to make their money I mean if you're tenured you work more you you have to be there more but you don't really have to worry about your monthly you know and so it wasn't that I was upset about myself but I was *nanka kabatteiru* you know *kabau* [feeling protective of part-timers] erm the position of the part-timer felt very low that she could feel like she could say to me oh you don't have to worry only one class was subtracted from your work you know other people lost half as though she was telling me she was lucky

R: Right

A: But I feel like there might you know *nakama* [relationship between colleagues] right and and then above that I didn't feel comfortable to fight her there

R: Right

A: because I was afraid that if I became too like aggressive there that it could make me lose some classes or something and so it's almost like power harassment

R: Right

A: Except she didn't know (laughs) and yeah I was very uncomfortable.

Of course, in my contract position I was a part of the group who did not have to worry about my monthly salary; I was also unable to address or solve any of A's issues and yet her willingness to share this amount of detail with me about her concerns perhaps illustrates how she trusted me and saw the research process as something insulated from work and thus a safe space in which to talk about her concerns. As my responses in Extract 3.1 show, I tried to remain neutral while being an active listener or interviewer (Holstein & Gubrium, 2004). On the other hand, there were many occasions where this neutrality was broken and sometimes A asked questions during interviews because I might be in a position to shed some light on something that she as a part-timer could not understand or felt she was not privy to information about. Or, vice versa, I might ask questions about something that was not strictly connected to the research, so each of us at different times chose to break the barrier between research and work.

At times like this it was very clear to me that within the interview our roles were

continually changing, but it was not exclusively under my control – though I had the interview

questions, I was not always the interviewer. In other words, the interviews were co-constructed

(Mann, 2011; Richards, 2003; Talmy & Richards, 2011) and while primarily we aimed to be

researcher and participant, at other times we became colleagues sharing trivial information or

gossip as our roles shifted (Garton & Copland, 2010) or A would cast me as an official authority

figure with access to knowledge she did not have migrating my role from interviewer to her

insider informant. As Extract 3.1 shows though, in interviews the interviewee is not necessarily a

powerless or objectified other. And in telling the story in Extract 3.1 there seems to have been a

cathartic effect which further illustrates the way in which interviews can be mutually beneficial.

My awareness of the flux of my relationship with A and B grew during the research and

this, along with the writing down of thoughts and processes in my research diary, allowed me to

negotiate the various challenges associated with the interviews so that they remained rigorous and

ethical. Certainly, while in different circumstances the various turns which the interviews took

might have been open to challenge and might have been inappropriate, in this case it would have

been wrong to ignore our existing relationships and so when interviews took a more casual turn I

was relaxed about this happening.

In terms of gaining access to the wider research site, as a member of the university where

the research took place, securing access was straightforward. There were no formal procedures

for getting approval to do the kind of research at the institution. However, I discussed what I

wanted to do with one of my immediate supervisor's – a tenured professor working in the same

faculty as me – and she saw no issues with what I proposed.

3.4.3 The context

The institution where the research took place was a large private university in the Kansai region of Japan. The students were not English majors, but were still required to take four English courses over their first two years at university. These courses were Listening, Reading, CALL and Communication and Writing (CW). Figure 3.1 shows how the CW course relates to the other classes with both A's and B's classes labelled "B CW1".

Figure 3.1 Overview of courses
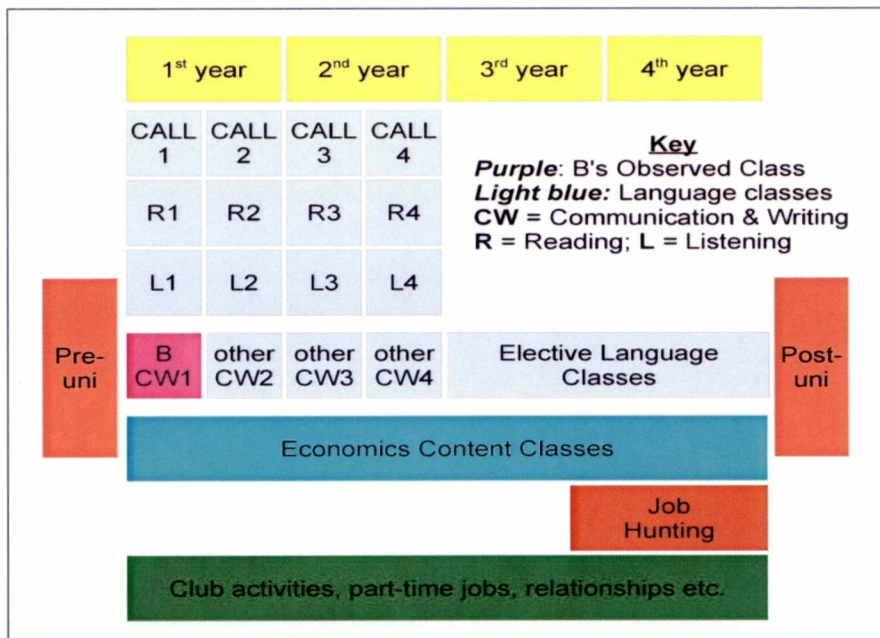
Communication and Writing was taught by native speaker English teachers, while the other three were taught by Japanese English teachers. Each class was 90 minutes long and met once a week for 15 weeks. Generally, class sizes were around 30 students per class with roughly two thirds male students.

A, B and myself had all taught the CW courses for several years and so were familiar with the materials and the textbook. A tenured professor wrote the syllabus (see Appendix 1) and chose the materials to be used in the course. These consisted of a discussion textbook *Impact Issues 2* (Longman) (see Appendix 2 for an example chapter) and the self-published writing and presentation booklet that B had written specifically for the course.

As suggested by the course name, the focus of the class was on communication and writing. It was intended that the communication part would be facilitated through use of *Impact Issues 2* and student presentations. The writing goals were for students to complete two academic paragraphs.

The textbook units, the two paragraphs and the student presentations were clearly stated requirements on the syllabus (see Appendix 1).

Though the teachers teaching the course were required to follow the syllabus, it was also understood that they had flexibility to arrange the required tasks into their own timetable of study for 15 weeks. They were also free to add their own materials. In common with the department as a whole there was very little oversight of what each teacher did and it was possible for a teacher to teach their class for 15 weeks without ever talking to another colleague or coordinator of the course.

The classes of A and B that I observed were of first-year students in the spring semester. In other words, the students had just begun their university lives. The classes were divided into three levels based on the TOEIC Bridge scores which the students had taken in the orientation week: Upper Intermediate (UI), Intermediate (IM) and Pre-intermediate (PI). Both classes that I observed were at the IM level.

For each teacher, I observed the same CW class every week for a semester, although it was not possible to observe B's final one of the fifteen classes. In addition, after B moved to New University (see section 3.4.1.2) four further observations took place of a first-year course called "English Oral Communication A" (see Appendix 21 for the syllabus) that also used a textbook but crucially with less fixed requirements gave B much greater freedom to decide how to teach the course.

3.5 Data collection methods

Typical of qualitative case study research, as outlined above, data collection methods were chosen because of their suitability to uncovering rich and useful data about the case (Bell, 1999). Given the focus of this study on teacher cognition, a largely hidden phenomenon, and the

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fostering of learner autonomy, an observable classroom phenomenon, the choice of semi-structured interviews and classroom observations as the main methods of data collection will hardly be surprising. To support triangulation and allow the participants a voice to comment freely on their classroom practice, participants also completed a diary after each observation. Finally, artefacts such as materials, handouts, official documents and so on were collected in order to provide as great an insight into the case as was possible.

In this section, each of the data collection methods will be outlined along with the reasons for choosing them.

3.5.1 Interviews

Teachers' cognitions being "invisible to outsiders and beyond the reach of researchers" (Burns & Freeman, 2015, p. 585) are typically investigated through interviews (semi-structured or stimulated recall) or surveys, this being seen as an effective way to tease out the complex network of beliefs, attitudes, assumptions, conceptions, principles, thinking and decision making (Borg, 2006).

Given the small number of participants and my focus on the particular of the case rather than generalisability, semi-structured qualitative interviews were chosen. These are widely favoured by researchers working within the qualitative paradigm of social science research (Berg, 2007; Robson, 2002), within case study (Duff, 2008; Yin, 2009) and specifically within language teaching research (Dörnyei, 2007; Nunan & Bailey, 2009; Richards, 2003). Moreover, their use in language teaching, in particular with research focusing on beliefs and experiences of participants, is growing (Mann, 2011; Robson, 2002; Talmy, 2010; Talmy & Richards, 2011). The main reason being that they can generate and capture detailed information that can lead to

volumes of rich data (Holstein & Gubrium, 2004). In addition, interviews are familiar occurrences (Dörnyei, 2007) and so can appear to be straightforward and approachable for interviewer and interviewee alike, although their simplicity can be deceptive.

Unlike surveys, the presence of the interviewer to guide the conversation and follow-up on aspects of the participant's responses as they occur reduces the risk of misunderstanding because clarifications can occur immediately, and more importantly the research is driven forward because hunches and new insights can be investigated at the time. While these are clear advantages, there are unintended consequences with interviews sometimes going beyond the pre-agreed time and simultaneously generating lots of data that needs to be transcribed and organised. This is possibly the biggest disadvantage of using interviews as a data collection method.

Less structured interviews also mean greater analytical challenges as the interpretation of the results becomes more complex the more open the interviews are (Dörnyei, 2007). Modern technology means that it is assumed interviews will be recorded and transcribed, something which was done, thereby preserving the descriptive validity and enhancing the interpretive validity of this research (Maxwell, 2002).

In educational research, interviews are often "acquaintance interviews", in which both parties "have a prior relationship" (Garton & Copland, 2010). In such cases where both parties appear to be comfortable it is easy to ignore power relations but the interviewer must be mindful of the possible effect these may have on the answers being given and avoid exploiting their participants (Oliver, 2003), something that I developed a much greater awareness of as the research took place (see Chapter 3, section 3.4.2).

Criticisms of interviews as lacking validity have been convincingly challenged as the idea of their active co-construction has gained greater recognition (Charmaz, 2006; Garton & Copland,

2010; Holstein & Gubrium, 2004; Mann, 2011; Rapley, 2006; Talmy, 2011). Issues remain, however, and while interviews are sometimes considered as "professional conversation" (Kvale, 1996, p. 5 in Richards, 2003, p. 50), they also require the development of a sensitive interviewing technique that is "focused on drawing from the speaker the richest and fullest account possible" (Richards, 2003, p. 50). Chamaz (2003) argues that interviewing over a period of time as opposed to "one-shot" is also important in the development of a "relationship with respondents in which they can cast their stories in their terms" (p. 275). I interviewed each of my participants at least four times over several years and so feel that on this count the data presented here have a particular strength. (See Table 4.1 for the full summary of the data collection.)

While a popular data collection tool, Talmy and Richards (2011) note how the interview process has suffered from being under theorised. One issue, for example, is that too often only the interviewee's part in the interaction is recorded in final documents (Mann 2011) and this can lead to decontextualised and potentially inaccurate interpretations. While issues of space mean that judicious excision of parts of interviews is inevitable, in the chapters which follow I have endeavoured to provide extracts from the interviews which recognise the part I played in them and not reduce the voice of my participants to disembodied quotations.

3.5.2 Observations

Today, classroom observation, which first emerged as a tool in teacher education (Allwright, 1988), is commonplace and seen as essential to researchers' attempts to understand language teaching and learning (see Borg, 2006; Dörnyei, 2007; Nunan & Bailey, 2009; Richards, 2003). Richards (2003) suggests that observation exists on a continuum from open (e.g. participant observation) to closed (e.g. using observation schedules like COLT), although Johnson

(2009) has identified a paradigm shift within teacher research "from observational studies of what teachers do to ethnographic descriptions based on observation, description, and interviews with teachers about why they do what they do" (p. 9), a movement that this research fits comfortably within. In making the connection between observations and interviews Johnson makes the point that an observer's understanding of what is happening in the classroom cannot be complete without supporting explanation from the teacher, something echoed by Duff (2008, p. 142) who lists the following points for case study researchers to consider when planning to undertake observation:

- What their focus will be in the observations, besides the case itself
- How best to record the observed behaviours manually and mechanically
- What kinds of information will be lost if audio- or videotaping [filming] is not permitted
- Over what period of time and what schedule the observations will take place
- How researchers will elucidate participants' perspectives of the observed actions at a later point
- How they will analyse and use the observational data in the study

On the first three points, the focus of the study was on the teacher and their classroom actions and so the observations were recorded on a small digital MP3 recorder that was placed for all to see on the teacher's desk at the front of the classroom. Luckily there were no issues with either audio recording or filming, the purpose of which was clearly explained to students before the first (or relevant class in the case of filming). The quality of the microphone was such that some conversations between the teacher and students when away from the desk was also audible.

For A's classes I was able to sit in the classroom and took field notes at the back or side depending on how she had set up the classroom. Unfortunately, because I was teaching at the same time as B's class, I could not observe B's classes in person. However, on two occasions I

was able to video record his classes to get a sense of how the classroom was set up and B's

behaviour when he taught. It was unfortunately not practical to film B's class every week.

Because I was familiar with the CW course and its three-part structure: discussions,

paragraphs and presentations, I felt that observing the whole semester of classes would present

the most accurate picture of each teachers' teaching and show me the most about the way they

fostered autonomy in their classrooms. Because of the small number of participants this seemed

feasible as well.

On the fifth point, ideally, after each observation I would have spoken to each teacher to

clarify points and get them to comment on the class. However, schedules meant that this was

impossible so instead it was decided that each participant would keep a weekly diary that was

based on some prompts I gave but allowed them to add their own comments (see Appendix 3).

Prior to the observations beginning, it had already been agreed that there would be a longer

follow-up interview at the end of the semester.

On the final of Duff's points, a decision was taken early on to try to construct a framework

of each teacher's cognitions about learner autonomy from the interviews before looking at the

classroom observations for evidence of them. Observations could also show unspoken cognitions

about autonomy and allow me to experience and document the classroom learning environment

which might have affected how it was fostered. Thus, the transcriptions of interviews took place

before that of the observations. However, by watching and reading about A's class and by listening

to the recording of B's class and his commentary on it every week while the data collection

process was occurring, in the tradition of qualitative research, I could refine and develop my

understanding of the case even while continuing to collect data (Coffey & Atkinson, 1996;

Merriam, 1998). Given the volume of data generated it was always envisaged that there would be

a much longer, more involved period of data analysis after the observations had been completed. However, the weekly contact with my data allowed me to make spontaneous decisions such as adding to the diary prompts which I did to capture different insights into the classroom process (see Appendix 3).

Observation is an important counterpart to interviews because while interviews can show the way a teacher constructs their cognition, we also know that teachers are sometimes unable to explain their beliefs or thinking or are unaware that how they actually teach is different to how they think they do (Freeman, 1996a). Borg (2006) who is a strong proponent of classroom observation in the study of cognition for the same reasons as Freeman notes how "it provides direct evidence of behaviour, is (in theory) non-interventionist and allows large amounts of descriptive data to be collected" (p. 227). Again, the potential for large amounts of data is also the major disadvantage of observation as it all needs to be transcribed and analysed. However, though undoubtedly time-consuming and tiring, computers today are so powerful as to allow for the storage and organisation of data in such a way as to lighten the burden for the qualitative researcher, even if the actual analysis remains the purview of the human analyst.

An obvious issue that can compromise the use of classroom observations as data collection tools is the presence of the observer (or their recorder), which might affect the behaviour of those being observed (Dörnyei, 2007; Duff, 2008; Nunan & Bailey, 2009). Because I knew both A and B I anticipated that observation would pose no problems for my participants. In the case of the students it was hoped that they would become used to my presence in the classroom, something that did appear to be the case as towards the end of the semester some would say hello to me when they came into the classroom.

3.5.3 Diaries

Reflective diaries are useful tools for researchers, teachers and learners and have formed the basis for many studies in language teaching research (Borg, 2006; also see Nunan & Bailey, 2009, p. 296 for a list of research based on teachers' diaries). A key advantage of diaries is that "they produce a wealth of interesting data and are relatively simple to administer" (Bell, 1999, p. 153). In my study, they were a form of self-report data that offered teachers a chance to reflect on, elucidate and explain their thought processes underlying events in the classroom. Importantly in the case of A, it gave her a voice which allowed her to seek reassurance or comment in particular when things went wrong or doubts began to surface.

To help teachers focus their diary entry on issues that I considered germane to my study, each week they were asked to respond to a series of prompts, in the form of questions (see Appendix 3). While Participant A wrote and emailed me her diary, Participant B preferred to record his orally after which I listened to it and transcribed it.

3.5.4 Artefacts

Case study draws on a variety of sources in order to construct an image of the case for the reader and a wealth of information is contained in written documents (Bogdan & Biklan, 2007; Yin, 2009). Those collected for this research can be divided into two groups: official documents and teacher-created documents.

The official documents collected for this research included the syllabuses from both observed courses, textbooks and self-published course booklet that was distributed to all students (see Appendices 1, 2 & 21). These documents were useful to understand the extent to which learner autonomy was seen by the institution as a goal of the course and neither in fact make any

mention of it, although they do include phrases which indicate some expectation that students will take responsibility for their learning.

The teacher-created documents were any handouts or additional materials that A and B provided to their students. While B created his on a computer and sent them to me by email, A's were written by hand and so I collected photocopies from her each week during the class (see Appendices 7-12). These were useful in showing how learner autonomy was seen as a goal by each teacher and how they tried to foster it in their classroom teaching.

3.5.5 Research diary

Reflecting both the length of time that this doctoral research has taken but also the unparalleled changes in technology over the past six years, my research diary that started as a handwritten written booklet has become the recording of notes on my I-phone. For the bulk of this research, however, my research diary has mainly consisted of a word document to which I add entries chronologically at the top (see Figure 3.2).

Silverman (2005, cited in Dörnyei, 2007 p. 161) notes that research diaries are places to record the following:

1.   observation notes about experiences
2.   methodological notes about how and what kind of data were collected
3.   theoretical notes describing hunches, hypotheses and ideas
4.   personal notes containing feeling statements (satisfaction, surprise, shock) and other subjective comments

Additionally, I also used my research diary to keep a record of secondary research that I had read, and record plans that helped me manage time and assess my progress, particularly

during the analysis stage. It was also cross-referenced by date with my annotated bibliography that I maintained simultaneously, and which offered another place where my thoughts about A and B's cognitions and observed practices could be recorded and confirmed (see Figure 3.3). The diary also proved an invaluable record of the process of data analysis that, having taken place over four years, was convoluted and irregular. At times when I returned to research after weeks or months away from it, the final diary entry was the only link I had to where I was and could sometimes return me to the point I had been interrupted, thus saving me time and effort.

Figure 3.2 Research diary extract

Figure 3.3 Annotated bibliography extract

Bygate, M. (2005). Oral second language abilities as expertise. In Johnson, K. (Ed.).
Expertise in second language learning and teaching, (pp. 104-127),
Basingstoke: Palgrave Macmillan. [2012/03/xx]

Calderhead, J. (1983). Research into teachers' and student teachers' cognitions:
Exploring the nature of classroom practice. Paper presented at the annual
meeting of the American Educational Research Association (Montreal, Canada,
April 11-14, 1983). [2014/09/15 Read. Good on different types of knowledge.
Supports findings with B that show his repeated experiences in the same
context have generated knowledge which helps him order his class before
entering it. Also explains how different research techniques can produce
understandings of different types of knowledge (p. 12) – also see Borg, 2006,
p. 98. For participant A more specific, focussed questions may help her explain
her knowledge. General questions e.g. what is autonomy have shown to be
difficult for her to articulate answers. Also uses the phrase "repertoire of
teaching routines" (p. 12).]

Calderhead, J. (1988). The development of knowledge structures in learning to teach. In
J. Calderhead (Ed.), *Teachers' professional learning* (pp. 51-64). London: The
Falmer Press.

Charmaz, K. (2006). *Constructing grounded theory: A practical guide through
qualitative analysis*. London: Sage. [2012/01/30 Returned but used in Aston
Task? Good descriptive chapters of coding and memo taking. Maybe one to
come back to?]

3.6 Ethics

"Qualitative researchers are guests in the private spaces of the world. Their manners

should be good and their code of ethics strict" (Stake, 2003, p. 154). As Stake makes clear,

researchers must put the needs and rights of their participants above all else throughout the

research process, something the growing power of Institutional Review Boards has emphasised

in the past decade (King & Mackey, 2015). While I hope to have achieved the highest standards

in doing this research, all activities were also approved by the Aston University LSS School

Research Ethics Committee. As pointed out in section 3.4.2 though a similar body did not exist

at the university in which this study took place, permission was sought from a tenured professor

who gave verbal approval for the research providing no students in the class objected.

Before data collection began in April 2011 both participants signed an informed consent

form, which drew on ideas from Oliver (2003). This form detailed the scope and purpose of the

research, explained about anonymity and data protection and clearly stated the right to withdraw from the research at any point. It also included a tentative observation schedule and detailed the other sources of data that I wished to collect such as diaries and class materials (see Appendix 4).

Before the observations began student permission for the observations to take place was received verbally and the purpose of the tape recorder was explained to them. It was also placed on the teachers' desk pointing towards the teacher and was visible throughout the whole class.

While every effort is being made to act ethically, issues will always remain. As Richards (2011) points out, in case study with small numbers it may be possible to identify participants in spite of the researcher's best efforts to protect them. However, on this point the issues were discussed with A and B during the process of participant checking.

3.6.1 Storage of data

Secure and effective storage of data is primarily an ethical issue connected to the rights of the participants to have their identity and the data that they provide to the researcher protected (Berg, 2007). As others point out as well though (for example, Dörnyei, 2007; Richards, 2011), effective storage of the data also contributes to the rigour of the research undertaking, especially when large and complex data sets are involved.

All interviews and classroom observations were recorded on a portable MP3 recorder and transferred as soon as possible to my computer, which was password protected. The MP3 player was then wiped clean. Similar procedures were followed for video when used. Backups of files were kept and secured in the locked desk drawer of my office that was at first communal and shared with other teachers, but later individual.

Documents such as classroom handouts etc. were organised into files and similarly stored in my office. In order to keep track of documents it was necessary to label them; however, rather than using the real names of my participants the letters A or B were used. Though giving the participants pseudonyms was considered during the writing up it was decided that A and B, which had been used consistently throughout the whole research was clear and probably protected the participants' identities better than a name. Further details about the organisation and storage of the data can be found in Chapter 4, section 4.4.1.

Chapter 4: Data Collection and Analysis

4.1 Introduction

The credibility of qualitative research relies to a great extent on the clear and open

recording of the way in which the research was carried out. In other words, it is not simply about

the findings, because without a rigorous approach to data collection and analysis these are

potentially devalued (Denzin & Lincoln, 2011; Duff, 2014). As explained in Chapter 3, proof of

credibility, transferability, dependability, and confirmability underpin the value of a qualitative

case study and can be achieved through procedures like triangulation, the effective organisation

of data within a database, and using a journal (Richards, 2011). In this chapter, it will be shown

how each of these was achieved.

The chapter will begin by documenting the different phases in data collection and

discussing any issues that occurred. It will then continue by documenting how the data were

analysed by showing examples of the processes involved that produced the final interpretation.

4.2 An overview of data collection

The data collection for this thesis can be roughly divided into four periods as shown in

Table 4.1.

Period 1: Discovering my research interests
Period 2: Main phase of data collection for this thesis
Period 3: Supplementary data collection
Period 4: Clarification and confirmation

In the following section, each phase will briefly be described with key decisions being

explained. It is hoped that, by providing a narrative for the way in which this research project evolved over time, clarity will be brought to the account that will help the reader understand why decisions were made and how challenges were overcome. Apart from showing the rigorous nature of the thesis, this account will also support its credibility, through documenting my prolonged engagement with both participants in a systematic and carefully designed form. It will also show the dependability of the research through the variety of sources that supported efforts to triangulate the data, which will be discussed in section 4.4.

Though the bulk of the classroom observation data, diaries and other artefacts were collected during one 15-week semester (April-July 2011), the interviews spanned a much longer period. There were also some observations that fell outside of the 15 weeks following the decision to observe B at New University after he moved there in April 2012 (see section 4.2.3). Observations there took place in May and June 2012. In the following table "remote observation" indicates an observation which was audio or video recorded but without the researcher being present; "classroom observation" indicates the researcher was present.

Table 4.1 Phases in data collection

Date	Teacher A	Teacher B	Notes
Period 1: Discovering my research interests			
Spring 2009	Interview 1	Interview 1	Initial interviews as part of a joint research project on teachers' beliefs and classroom management.
April 2010	2 remote observations	2 remote observations	Observations as part of an individual research project. Not included in this research.
June 2010	Interview 2		A asked about learner autonomy.
Period 2: Main phase of data collection for this thesis			
April 2011	Interview 3	Interview 2	B asked about learner autonomy.
April-July 2011	15 classroom observations; 15 participant diaries; classroom materials;	14 remote classroom observations; 15 participant diaries; classroom materials;	
July 2011	Interview 4	Interview 3	
Period 3: Supplementary data collection			
February 2012	Interview 5		
May 2012-June 2012		4 remote classroom observations; classroom materials; 4 participant diaries	
Summer 2012	Participant checking	Participant checking	Prior to the submission of the doctoral course Qualifying Report.
September 2012		Interview 4	
Period 4: Clarification and confirmation			
April 2013		Interview 5	
June 2013		Interview 6	
Autumn 2016	Participant checking	Participant checking	

4.2.1 Period 1: Discovering my research interests

The origins of this whole project can be found in my desire to do educational research

activity that began after I started work at university in Japan. As educational research was

completely new to me I teamed up with two colleagues and we began a study of teachers' beliefs about classroom management systems based on questionnaires and interviews. In retrospect, this could be described as a pilot project; although at that time I was not planning on following up that work. I had not done any research prior to this and so in terms of my development as a researcher this project was instructive because not only did I learn about different data collection methods and analysis but I also discovered the kind of research I wanted to do. It was for this project that I first interviewed A and B and began to develop an interviewing technique and coding practices.

Shortly after working with my two colleagues, I decided to try something on my own concerning learner autonomy. Similarly, it involved interviewing teachers, but rather than developing a questionnaire from the interviews I decided to undertake classroom observation, because I had been struck by the importance of doing so by Borg (2006) amongst others. Because of timetable clashes, in person observation was not possible, so remote observation was done. Several colleagues self-recorded their first class of a new academic year for me from which I made summaries of key episodes that provided the basis for a follow-up interview. These also provided a means for comparing the cognitions and practices of the participants.

During this time, my understanding of the concept of learner autonomy developed through engagement with teachers in their classrooms and the literature. It became clear to me how complex teachers' behaviours are and how their attempts to impart knowledge to their students are embedded in their practices; it is not simply what teachers say to their students but how they act, the systems they use, the activities they choose and their attitude in class. It also became clear how current classroom activities are filtered through past experiences.

A and B both took part in this first independent research project. This was helpful because it added to my growing understanding of their cognitions but also because it showed me that both

would make interesting cases from which much could be learned (Stake, 2005). Following discussions with my supervisor it was agreed that the interviews (A: Interviews 1, 2 and B Interview 1) I had obtained prior to officially beginning this doctoral research could form part of the dataset, providing my participants agreed, which they did.

4.2.2 Period 2: Main phase of data collection for this thesis

One of the great dangers for a novice researcher is to collect too much data that becomes overwhelming when it comes to the analysis (Dörnyei, 2007; Richards, 2003). Based on my prior research experiences and Simon Borg's (2006) comprehensive volume on teacher cognition research, I had made some key decisions about my research which, I hoped, would maximise its usefulness to answering my research questions (see section 1.2) while remaining a manageable undertaking. These were as follows:

1.   I would focus on a small group of teachers because I could manage the data more effectively and build closer and deeper relationships with my participants.

2.   I would work with teachers in my own institution to ease access and, because I was in a full-time teaching position, I needed to balance my time.

3.   I would work with teachers who I had already successfully worked with in my prior research because I already had background information about them and a significant amount of data.

4.   I would collect data intensively over one semester because this would allow for comparison of the teachers and their teaching.

Following the completion of the informed consent form in which I outlined my rough timetable for collecting data (see Appendix 4), I interviewed both A and B prior to the observations taking place. While there is a danger in revealing the purpose of a study because it can lead the participants to produce the class that they believe the researcher wants to see (Borg, 2006), there is also an ethical obligation to be honest and open to participants about the purpose of the research. In the event, issues of representation were taken out of my hands because I had already made my participants aware of my interest in learner autonomy in our previous interviews. However, given both participants' unfamiliarity with the area (see Chapter 5, section 5.2 and Chapter 7, section 7.2) and our successful previous collaborations and close relationship, I judged the possibility of them changing their classroom practice during the observations to be minimal. My relationship with both was also subject to continual reflexivity as described in Chapter 3.

All research is subject to compromises. One of the biggest I had to make was using remote observation as I was unable to observe B's class in person as I was teaching at the same time. This meant the loss of nonverbal aspects of the classroom interactions (Dörnyei, 2007). However, my previous experience of audio recordings of classes had shown me that it would be effective in capturing enough detail for the purposes of my research. In addition, to understand how B set the class up and his general demeanour, he was videoed twice. I was able to listen to each audio recording soon after it was recorded, and made a point of doing so in order to be able to compare A and B's classes. Doing this, as well as transcribing the data, led to insights while generating new questions and allowed for improvements to be made to the data collection process (see Extract 4.1).

In the case of A, I was able to observe her classes in person. These were also audio-recorded, while I took field notes on my laptop at the back of the room. This enabled me to makes

notes about the set up of the classroom, the weather, the number of students who were present etc., information that during the analysis proved helpful as A sometimes referred to these background elements in her diary. I collected A's materials at the end of the class. Because I shared an office with B we generally met at some point during the week when he would give me copies of any materials he had used. He also emailed me digital copies.

As Coffey and Atkinson (1996) point out "The process of analysis should not be seen as a distinct stage of research; rather, it is a reflective activity that should inform data collection, writing, further data collection, and so forth" (p. 6). In being continually exposed to the data during the semester I was already "sense making" (Schiellerup, 2008) by interrogating what it meant; for example, why A and B chose certain activities, how the activities they had chosen connected to their stated cognitions, what they said in the classroom, how they dealt with individual students and so on. These thoughts formed the basis for further data collection in the form of interviews that took place with both A and B shortly after the end of the semester while events were still fresh in their minds, demonstrating the circular, iterative nature of the research process.

4.2.3 Period 3: Supplementary data collection

By the end of the semester the planned data set had been successfully collected. However, as explained, in April 2012 B began a similar job at New University, something that allowed for a unique opportunity to study his classroom practice in a different setting. It also opened up the possibility of comparative analysis (as advocated by Basturkmen, 2012). As outlined in section 3.2, one of the strengths of qualitative research is its flexibility that allows the researcher to take advantage of opportunities like these. It was decided to limit the number of observations to just

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four – which again would have to be "remote" and self-recorded – and to supplement the data with the same diary prompts as before and carry out a follow-up interview as well.

4.2.4 Period 4: Clarification and confirmation

During this period, further clarification was achieved through interviews with A and B when necessary. These were not always formal interviews as I regularly encountered A and B and could thus talk to them whenever I needed to. Data from these interactions was recorded using post-it notes that were then stuck above my desk. However, when the analysis led to the generation of several more topics for clarification – as was the case with B who in moving to his new job seemed to approach the classroom and his learners' autonomy in quite a different way – I arranged a formal interview.

4.3 Practical issues

4.3.1 Time

Though being a teacher-researcher is an accepted practice especially at the university level in Japan, schedules make little allowance for it to take place. Balancing teaching commitments with undertaking research was challenging and there was not always time for as full a reflection on the data as might have been desired. On the other hand, in addition to observing A's classes in person, I was able to listen to B's classroom recording and his diary every week. Some of the ideas, notes, and striking comparisons between A and B were recorded in my research diary that also allowed for me to make refinements to the data collection procedures, as captured in the following extract from my research diary:

Extract 4.1 (Extract from researcher's research diary (12th June 2011))

All afternoon transcribing Aston B's participant diary. Interesting comments, though I feel the questions might have been hinting at the wrong thing. I added some more for both participants this week.

The "more" in this extract refers to the diary prompts. Originally there were four, but from week 10 I added five more in response to my feeling that they could be more effective (see Appendix 3).

4.4 Data analysis

"Our knowledge is the outcome, we believe, of transactions with the social world, shaped by our methods of inquiry, and of transactions with the data we produce, in turn shaped by our ideas and our analytic procedures" (Coffey & Atkinson, 1996, p. 15). This next section will aim to provide an audit trail (Anfara et al., 2002) for the analysis that took place that will show the gestation of the final representation of A and B's cognition and practice as documented in this thesis. Too often the processes of analysis in qualitative case study, though present in terms of named terminology, are absent in detail (Duff, 2014; Richards, 2011), something this thesis hopes to avoid.

The transferability of my findings has to an extent already been established by the purposive sampling adopted when choosing the participants (see Chapter 3, section 3.1) and the detailed account of the setting in which the research took place (see Chapter 3, section 3.4.3). Here it is hoped that the careful documentation of the analysis will confirm for the reader the dependability of the research through the coding practices employed and the triangulation of the various sources of data, and also give them confidence in the themes and categories applied to the organisation of A and B's cognitions and practices about learner autonomy. The confirmability of the findings will also be enhanced by the inclusion of many examples of documents that show

how while the analysis condensed the data, it preserved the thick description generated by the interviews and observations. As Denzin and Lincoln (2011) point out "No single method can grasp the subtle variations in ongoing human experience. Consequently, qualitative researchers deploy a wide range of interconnected interpretive methods, always seeking better ways to make more understandable the worlds of experience that have been studied" (p. 12). Multiple analytical procedures have been used in combination in this qualitative research and this section is organised thematically around the various techniques I employed to interpret the data. Data analysis is not neat and linear and the order in which techniques are reported does not reflect how the analysis took place.

For practical reasons, namely the sheer volume of data I had collected, I decided to focus on the analysis of B's case first. This explains to some extent the different section titles that were used for A and B in the findings sections of the case studies (see Chapters 5-8). However, the methods employed to make sense of both participants' cognitions and practice were broadly the same. Indeed, though each of my participants has been reported below as a separate case, both cases were continually being compared in order to test the robustness of my categories and labels and also so as to test alternative representations and metaphors (see Figure 4.1)

Figure 4.1 Comparison of A and B made during the analytical process

	Characterising A's version of Autonomy vs B's – Painting a picture		
		A	B
		Traditional or transitional	Modernising
		institutional expertise	eikaiwa expertise
		Satellite orbitting	Central planet with gravitational pull
		Scattergun	Aimed
		Spaced	Efficient
Effect of age and experience? Purpose of handouts		Non-computer; handouts for individuals to complete	Computer; handouts for training
Effect of own learning experiences		Mentioned by A	discounted by B
When students miss deadlines or fail tasks		Most likely to say nothing, might say "next week". Deadlines seem more fluid and flexible.	Likely to communicate disappointment to student directly and in diary. Tasks are often time critical.

4.4.1 Transcribing and storing

Successful case study relies on careful organisation of the data (Richards, 2011). Quick and easy access is crucially important, especially when during the analysis a researcher wants to confirm a hunch or compare an action from a different interview or classroom observation. Very early on I developed a system for storing all the data in a logical and easily accessible manner. Key facets of this system were including the date in the file name and the clear labelling of folders and sub-folders (see Figure 4.2).

Figure 4.2 Database organisation
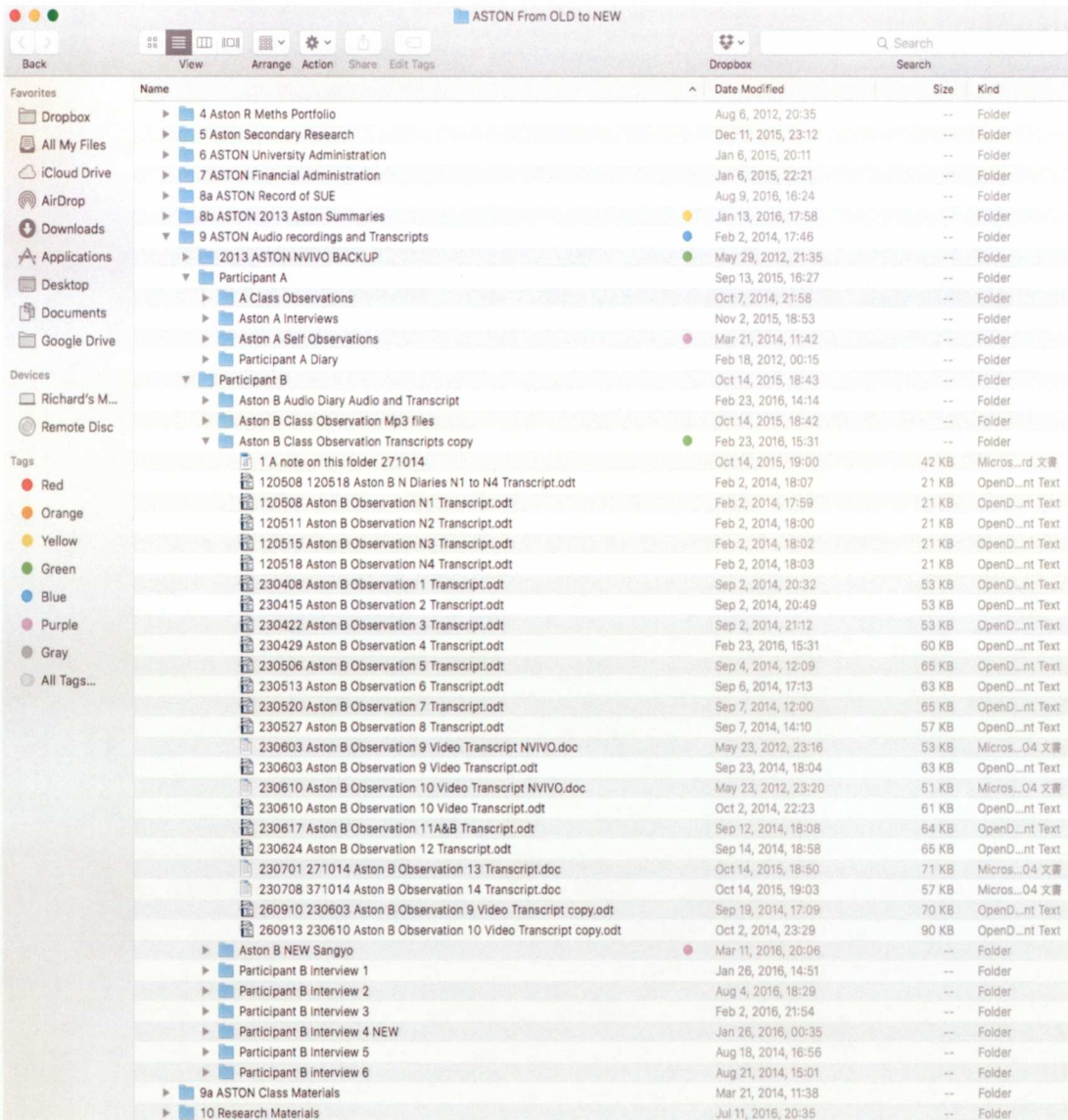
Interviews were transcribed *verbatim* (see Figure 4.5) and the transcription protocols can

be found in Appendix 5. Classroom observation data was generally transcribed in full; however,

practical decisions were also made. For example, when students made presentations the event was

summarised. Similarly, when group work took place, because individual groups could not always

be picked out, generally only notes about the atmosphere during the task were recorded. On the

other hand, everything spoken by either A or B, when not inaudible, for example when A or B

moved away from the recorder, was recorded *verbatim*.

Ideally, transcribing occurs soon after the interview or observation (Dörnyei, 2009); however, this was not possible because I made a decision to do all the transcribing myself as it is an opportunity to connect with the data. This meant that the transcriptions of A's observations were made some time after the event. Nevertheless, again this provided an opportunity to listen to the data again in an active, focused way that vividly brought back classroom events that I had also seen in person.

Early interview data was transcribed using Open Office or Microsoft Word software. B's classroom observations were initially transcribed using Nvivo qualitative analysis software, which has a function for integrating audio recordings into the programme. After stopping using Nvivo (see section 4.4.3) all transcriptions were done using Microsoft Word.

4.4.2. Mapping

To understand classroom events, the three data sources (classroom observations, participant diaries and the materials) needed to be understood in combination. Looking at one source individually made it difficult to capture the totality of what was occurring without continual cross-referencing between different sources, hence the creation of spreadsheets that mapped the classroom by collecting the key points from the data in one place, thereby offering a quick point of reference and aiding triangulation as shown in figures 4.3 and 4.4. Triangulation promotes depth of understanding (Denzin & Lincoln, 2011; Nunan & Bailey, 2009) while reducing the possibility of bias (Richards, 2003) and contributes to both the credibility and dependability of qualitative research.

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As shown in figure 4.3 which maps all 15 of A's classes on one page, first factual detail was recorded – date, whether the class was in lines or groups etc. – before short summaries about use of handouts, the overall class, individual student activities, group work, the diary entry were added. A final column provided a space for me to write comments on the difference between A and B's classroom practice.

Figure 4.3 Map of A's 15 classes, her diary and materials used

Figure 4.4 Map of A's 15 classes, her diary and materials used (detail)

	Date	Rows/ groups?	Field notes	Impact Isssues	CW Booklet	CW Booklet Usage	Handouts	Class
1	4月7日	Rows (1st 3)	X	X			1. Syllabus (online version) [2 x A3]; 2. "Hello! Nice to meet you" [1 x B4]; 3. For homework/prepare Self Introduction [1 x B4] *Also received completed samples of work	Introduction class. A explains English class; students should not worry about mistakes and try to speak in English. Explains variations of seating, group work, skills test, papers and presentations. Hands out and explains syllabus. Then gives "etiquette" guidance re cellphones, absences and attendance etc. Emphasises student responsibility for homework and for writing it down from the board where she will put it. Explains she uses both handwritten and typed handouts.
2	4月14日	Rows (1st 3)	O	O Unit 1 (Ranking exercise p. 12)	X	X	2nd part of 3. from Week 1 used in class	Students writing my survey for 1st 20–25 minutes. Class menu and homework already on board. Self-introductions from the front of the class. A style of individual attention and explanation while students work individually becomes apparent. Also some students difficulty understanding A's instructions.
3	4月21日	Groups (chosen by colour card) 5 groups of 4; 2 groups of 5	O	O Unit 1: First Impressions	X	X	1. Group Work First Impressions [1 x B4] *Also received completed samples of work	Open book test for 1st 15–20 minutes. Class menu on board. A returns introduction papers from last week with comments / evaluations on. Evaluation system is written on the board (as mentioned in interviews). After 25 mins A asks students how much more time they need to discuss the Qs in their groups. Discussions continue for another 20 minutes with the last 20 minutes for the speakers to present on behalf of their groups. No homework set but students are allowed to bring finished papers next week. Exactly as A describes in interviews.

Writing booklet. Topics for the 1st paragraph are from the textbook. |

4.4.3 Using NVivo

Miles and Huberman (1994) describe how qualitative data need to be condensed and for this purpose I started by using NVivo, which is a type of Computer-Assisted Qualitative Data Analysis Software (CAQDAS) which helps researchers store, organise, and analyse qualitative data (Duff, 2008). However, CAQDAS "are not theory neutral" (Duff, 2008, p. 169), they carry with them the danger of generating too many codes (Schiellerup, 2008), and should only be considered as aids to analysis (Jones, Torres & Arminio, 2006) or even just as tools for "storage and retrieval" of data (Coffey & Atkinson, 1996, p. 12).

NVivo was initially used to open code B's interviews in order to create a picture of his cognitions about learner autonomy. Some 79 codes with 11 sub-codes were generated, of which most were identified by me but some *in vivo* or *verbatim* codes (Saldana, 2009; Strauss & Corbin, 1998) were also used like "peripheral things", which referred to classroom management issues that B did not want to be dealing with, or "have a go at them", which was a phrase B used when describing his frustration at students underperforming (see Appendix 6).

What is clear from the number and types of codes being generated is that at this stage it was difficult to clearly conceptualise learner autonomy and thus how to identify it in the data. As a result, perhaps for fear of missing something crucial or key, a number of codes were generated, like "handouts" and "materials", that later were of little relevance to the analysis.

These initial attempts at coding reflect a necessary process of becoming familiar with the data. Through conducting the interviews, transcribing them and reading them multiple times I became familiar with what B had said, but I struggled to grasp its significance in terms of developing learner autonomy. As Coffey and Atkinson (1996, p. 5) point out, "qualitative data analysis deals with meaningful talk and action" but at the beginning identifying what was

meaningful was a challenge. Undoubtedly, though, these tentative first steps using NVivo played

a role in developing the analysis and some codes created in this initial survey of the data appeared

in the final analysis (e.g. "professionalism" see Chapter 5, section 5.3.2).

Though a useful tool, I eventually abandoned using NVivo partly because the version I

was using was no longer supported on my computer.

4.4.4 Coding

After I stopped using NVivo I decided to open code on paper using highlighters. In

making the transcriptions I had followed Richards' (2003) advice to number lines and leave a

space on the right-hand side for codes, comments and thoughts. As can be seen in figure 4.5, this

proved to be a very useful technique and allowed me to attach to codes and themes a line reference

to the raw data that would later help with writing up.

Figure 4.5 Coded transcript example

```
847   aware that I was pushed for time at that point
848   erm but hopefully I explained enough and if they
849   bothered to sit down and read carefully I think
850   really anyone should understand that handout so
851   we shall see next week anyway. That's it for
852   today I think.
853
854   110527 02
855   May 27th audio diary erm goals of today's class
856   er um oh presentations oh yeah practice
857   presentations just the one minute exercise from
858   Speaking of Speech er which I'd given them for
859   homework last week they had a choice of nine
860   simple topics er your family your hometown your
861   pet erm your best friend your first week at
862               stuff like that they'd had to
863   prepare one at home erm the purpose of this
864   obviously practicing eye contact body language
865   but also just to get them used to speaking to a
866   slightly larger group of people rather than just
867   the little groups of four erm trying to give
868   them a bit more confidence speaking in front of
869   people before they do the big presentation erm
870   as expected despite my imprecations is that the
871   right word? I think imprecations to the contrary
872   what they'd all done almost all I mean I didn't
873   check everyone was to write out an entire
874   paragraph about them on a particular topic try
875   and memorise it and then try and sneak it up to
876   the front and read it erm obviously I was fully
877   anticipating that particularly because even my
878   UI class tried to do that earlier in the week or
879   last maybe I can't remember erm so I was ready
880   for that and that's why I did the little
881   Japanese one off the top of my head just to show
882   them that if I could do it with zero preparation
883   and make a shitload of mistakes then they
884   needn't worry about it. Erm and they all did
885   really really well once I got their papers away
886   so hopefully that has that was successful in
887   terms of achieving the goals of that particular
888   exercise but maybe that might have fed into the
889   whole class because definitely as you may have
890   already heard I don't know if you listen to this
891   or the class first but at the end of the class I
892   told them how happy I was at how today's class
893   had gone erm and contrary to the usual class
```

Week 8

Multi-purpose activities or activities with multiple outcomes.

Teacher Modelling as Learner

PRAISE

Figure 4.5 shows one page of B's transcribed audio diary. Not only does it illustrate the

procedures I used for coding but it also exhibits a qualitative advancement in the analysis from

the initial coding in NVivo and a clearer overall direction. It does not, however, represent final coding categories but shows a work in progress.

The first code "multi-purpose activities or activities with multiple outcomes" is an example of my growing knowledge of the literature on learner autonomy as this phrase is taken from Benson (2012). It also shows a much more incisive attempt to closely link the coding process to the concept in order to answer the research questions, though in fact the labelling arguably misinterprets the meaning of multiple outcomes because in the literature it seems to refer to the possibilities for negotiated language use.

The code "praise" gives an example of B being a motivator through encouraging students' efforts. Praise is considered important in the literature on autonomy (Littlewood, 1996; Voller, 1997) and though this example of praise was not specifically referred to in this final thesis, it formed part of the evidence for B's cognition about the roles he adopted to foster learner autonomy.

There is more that could be said about this extract and the above can never capture the totality of the thought processes nor reflect the time it took to complete. However, it is hoped that this short and brief analysis offers an insight into the interpretation and construction of this final thesis and confirms its credibility and dependability.

A variety of techniques for making sense of the data are included, showing the way in which the researcher is a "bricoleur" who constructs their interpretations by producing "a pieced-together set of representations that are fitted to the specifics of a complex situation" (Denzin & Lincoln, 2011, p. 4).

A code-recode strategy (Saldana, 2009), in which after a period of time a piece of data is coded afresh once again, was used to gain a fuller understanding of it. This helped me identify ideas relevant to learner autonomy and to discard those that were not.

Coding did not occur in isolation and at the same time I was writing summaries, which also promoted reflection on the data. These were attempts to order the codes into categories and themes and combine them into single documents that both included actual examples of participants' speech or practice and summary comments (see Figure 4.6).

In the example in Figure 4.6 the category (labelled "Higher level concept") is goal setting, a concept connected to learner autonomy because of its potential to motivate learners and increase their control over their learning. Within this category are themes (labelled "Strategy 1"), the first of which is "Encouraging students to reach targets", a theme that combines B's cognition about his role – that of a motivator – and also gives an example of his practice in that in his class he sets achievable targets. Below each strategy are examples of his practice (labelled "Sub-strategy 1a", "Sub-strategy 1b") that illustrate attempts to retain the data-driven quality of the analysis and not turn categories and themes into abstractions (Clandinin & Connelly, 1995). The use of terms like "higher level concept" and "strategies" also show the ways in which I attempted to impose order on the data and the personal, creative interpretation that drove the analysis.

Figure 4.6 Example of organisation of categories and themes

[...]

I. Goal setting

Higher Level Concept:	**Goal-setting**
Strategy 1	**Encouraging students to reach targets**
Sub-strategy 1a	**The 100% English target** *"B: Listen carefully to your partner ask questions. One hundred percent English five minutes. Okay, everybody ready? Go. Lots of conversation in English."* **B Obs 11b Ref 1**
Sub-strategy 1b	**Use of timer** [Old/New] B uses the timer as a way of regulating classroom practice and also giving students a target. B seems more likely in New to ask students how long they think they need to complete an exercise. In New there also seems to be a greater likelihood of B extending the time to allow more practice, more discussion of an answer, more attempts to complete a task etc.

Further ordering and condensing of the data occurred over time during the writing of summaries for my supervisor. In this process categories were re-thought and renamed while themes were grouped in different ways as my understanding of learner autonomy changed, in particular the identification of both participants' practice at the weak or narrow end of the autonomy spectrum (see Chapter 2, section 2.3).

As previously mentioned, B's data were analysed before A's. This meant that I had a strong framework for B's practice that could be used as a tool to analyse A's data, and I also had

experience with handling the large amount of data. Methods used for organising and displaying

data evolved during the analysis and spreadsheets became a favoured tool, as illustrated in Images

4.7 and 4.8, which show codes and quotes from Interview 4 with A divided by 'belief/position'

about learner autonomy ("Student Readiness / Desire / Ability"; "Class Organisation / Freedom";

"Teachers' Roles"; "Autonomy (general beliefs)" and "OLD vs OTHER").

Figure 4.7 Spreadsheet showing organisation of codes and quotes

Figure 4.8 Spreadsheet showing organisation of codes and quotes (detail)

Participant A | Interview 4 | Sorted into another file: 2015 October 26th

Belief / Position	Student Readiness / Desire / Ability		Class Organisation / Freedom		Teachers' Roles
Sub-themes	CODE	QUOTATION	CODE	QUOTATION	CODE
Student body / Teacher change		I didn't flunk anybody which is unbelievable it might be the first time and erm so within my English teaching it was like a patchwork of different colours and I feel the students are getting even more and more characteristic each year compared to when I first started you know but it might be a reflection of my character too because I I have more experience and and confidence in different things that I do.	Teaching style - multi-coloured; individual	Yeah so that they can look and see it you know but I'm not a erm regular teacher I have a regularity in kind of organisation erm but I change things around depending on who I'm teaching and also even if I'm teaching CW1 the the colour of each class is very different	Life influence on teaching	Sort of related to l- life itself was a
		Teacher development: experienced stage – finds the students "more characteristic"		A more intimate personalisation than B? Or, like B, A recognises the individuality of each group. To what extent they might adapt to the group might be the difference between A and B.		Conversation starts on the positiv process. Also in the conversation A's life is bound up with her teach
				1. "Not a regular teacher" (as in does the same thing each week) compared to e.g. B. Interesting A has the same cycle of trial, reflection and improvement going on.	Professional influence on reflection	I had the JALT thing that I I was s because of that I was following m photocopying and making a new f give my JALT presentation and er kind of a fresh outlook I have a lo years back [...] But I wanted to pre off the boat with material that I wa experience and and being researc confidence the first few weeks ma teachers
			Chaos (self-description	when I observed your class and then [B]'s class I felt there was a certain different kind of organisation that [breathes in?] I don't have I feel like sometimes I am m- more comfortable with chaos than chaos of you except I think that you're more comfortable with chaos than		This was a workshop on task-bas to do.

4.4.5 Memos and summaries

According to Saldana (2009) "The purpose of analytical memo writing is to document and reflect on your coding process and code choices; how the process of inquiry is taking shape; and the emergent patterns, categories and subcategories, themes, and concepts in your data" (p. 32). Figure 4.9 is an example of an analytic memo in which I reflect on B's beliefs about autonomous practice. It shows my attempts to triangulate different parts of the data as a cohesive picture began to develop through the coding process. These were personal accounts attempting sense-making that I often developed into clearer summaries that I then shared with my supervisor. Whenever I wrote, I tried to order the data using titles, sub-titles and various other ordering strategies. Memos, because they often included an extract from an interview or an observation, became embryonic chapters of the final writing-up process and were instrumental in attempts to build an understandable description of A and B's cognition systems and how they related to their classroom practice.

Discussions with my supervisor, who was obviously somebody outside of the context of my research, were invaluable for illuminating alternative possibilities and, more importantly, far-fetched or unconvincing explanations. This can be considered a form of stimulated reflexivity (Anfara et al., 2002; King & Mackey, 2016), which contributes to the confirmability of this thesis. The summaries also helped improve my writing skills as, unlike memos, I had to make myself clearly understood, as well as convincing.

Figure 4.9 Extract from an analytical memo

<div style="border:1px solid black; padding:10px;">

BUILDING UP A PICTURE OF B's BELIEFS

Aim: To develop a framework of B's beliefs that allows me to understand the reasons why practices which foster autonomy are present or not in the observations and what allows or restricts those practices.

General thoughts
  I. **B's orientation to autonomous practice**

During interviews and during the time that I have known him B has never explicitly aligned himself with the field of autonomy. However, from my own discussions with him about our teaching, our experiences studying Japanese together in which he often states how he best learns and subsequently the interviews, it is clear that he is a strong believer in the centrality of the learner to the learning process:

> *"there is no magic bullet [...] study hard and practice a lot or the other way round [...] I totally agree with that there is no magic way I mean you what you said is right the more different ways you try the more likely you find something that suits you but basically [...] it comes down to **natural ability definitely intelligence and specific language ability and motivation** which isn't intrinsically natural of course **opportunities time** all kinds of things but I think there will be ways that suit different people better than others but there's not going to be any one way even for an individual which suddenly alters there language learning experience overnight"* **(B Int 2 Ref 1)**

Based on these thoughts, it might be natural to assume that B would therefore create opportunities for individual students to develop their own ideas about practice that works best for them. However, in the observations at both B's OLD university and NEW university on the face of it the classes are strongly controlled by B, while displaying strong tendencies towards communicative language teaching in his use of group exercises and peer work. This could be because the individual nature of language learning actually work against the provision for autonomous practice in a university setting. In other words, students will/must? find their own ways of learning regardless of what B does, so B must The practice he has developed is a result of his previous teaching experiences, his own language learning experiences and his knowledge of students. There is also a strong sense of *professionalism* which means he is loyal to the

</div>

4.4.6 Participant checking

Participant checking, where emerging findings are given to the participants, helps to ensure credibility (Dörnyei, 2007). This occurred at two points during the study, in addition to informal opportunities that occurred through working together (see Table 4.1). Offering A and B the chance to read and comment on my interpretation and written account of their cognitions and practice created another opportunity for discussion and reflection between us. This helped correct

factual inaccuracies and also improved the account because A and B were able to point out parts that lacked clarity to them.

4.4.7 Diagramming

A final analytical technique I used was diagramming, which was a means to clarify my thinking when writing was difficult. Though used only sparingly, it was useful for testing my ideas against theories and frameworks. For example, in Figure 4.10 there is an elaboration of Borg's (2006) framework (see Figure 2.2, Chapter 2, section 2.2.5) that shows, in the top three boxes of the right-hand column, the aspects of B's cognitions that affect his decision making. Apart from trying to untangle the complexity of B's cognition system, it also shows how, through reflection on his classes, and in particular by making comparisons between them, B refined his practice. Figure 4.11 is an image taken from a slide I made during a presentation at TESOL Arabia's International Conference in 2014 (Silver, 2014). The image attempts to convey the range of competing influences on B from outside of the classroom as well as factors within it that affected how he promoted learner autonomy.

Figure 4.10 Diagram showing the relationship between B's cognition and practice
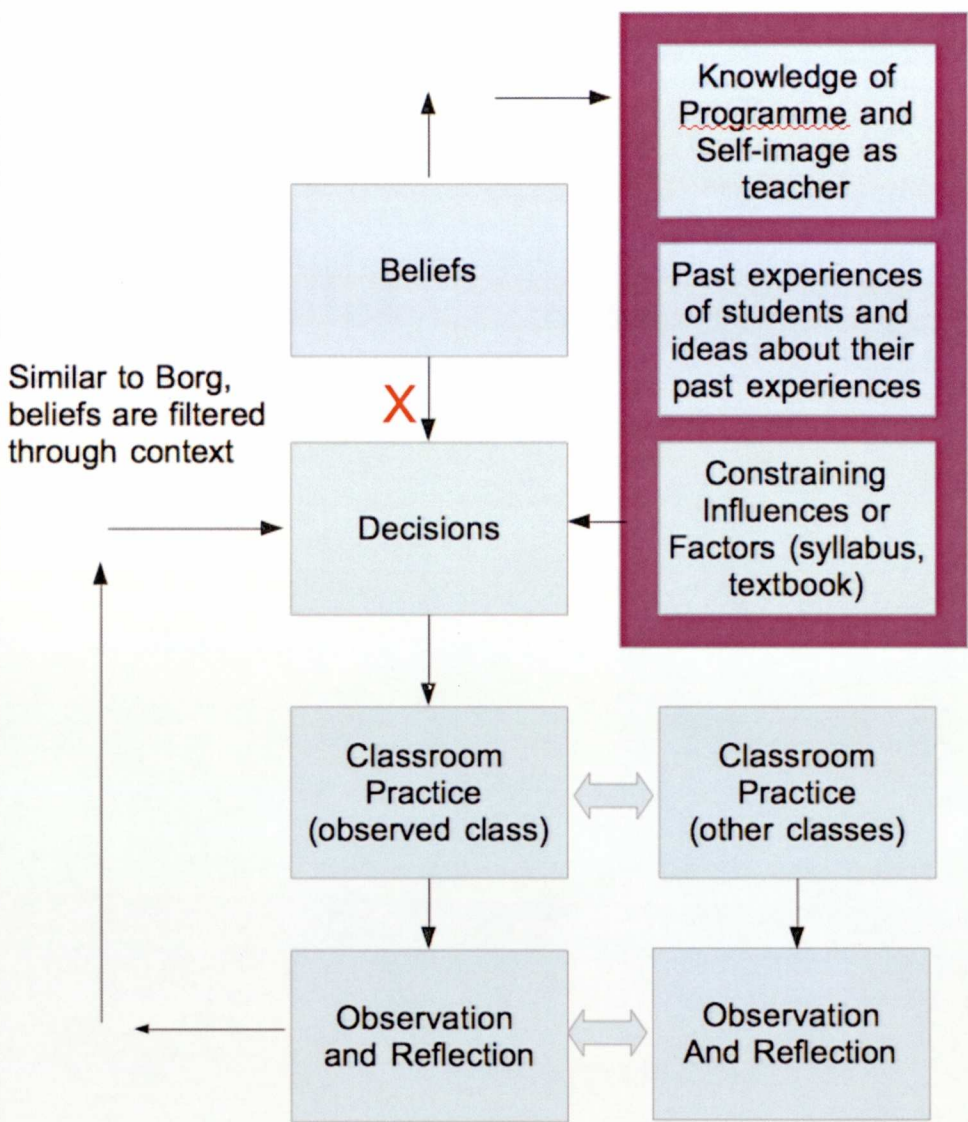
Decisions (as observed practice or as articulated in interviews/ diary entries) make visible the influence of contextual factors on beliefs.

Figure 4.11 Diagram showing internal and external influences on B's classroom practice
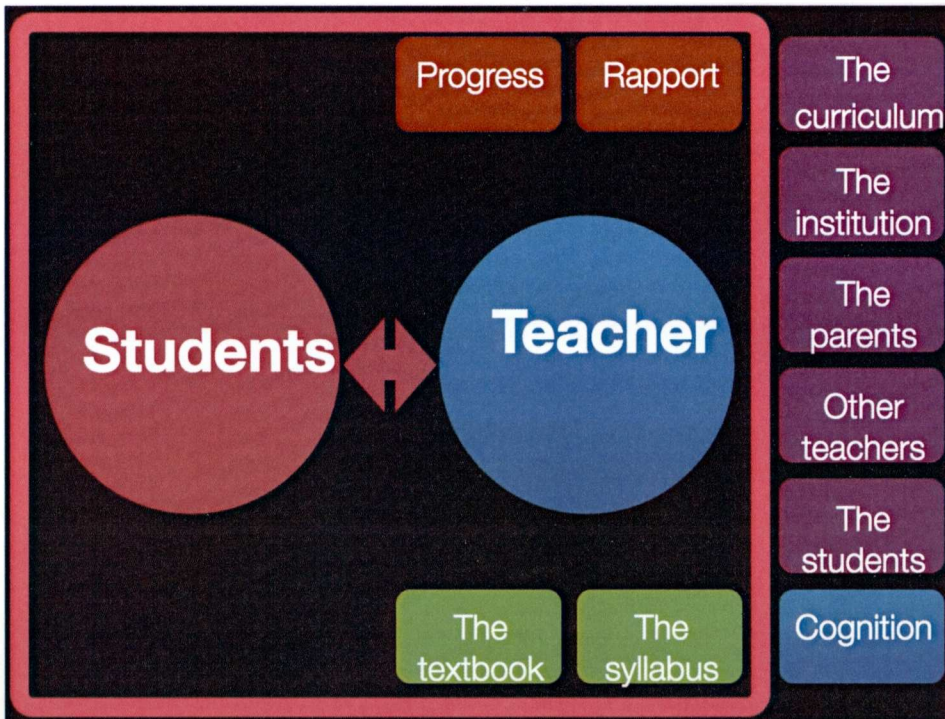
4.5 Chapter summary

In sum, these documents show the evolution of this thesis from messy beginnings through the gradual imposition of order to the final thesis. Inevitably, they do not show the whole convoluted journey with its false avenues and interesting, but time-consuming, detours that were ultimately outside the scope of this thesis. It is hoped that this detailed account has shown the transferability, confirmability, credibility and dependability of the thesis. In the following chapters detailed accounts of A and B's cognitions and practice will be given.

Chapter 5: Case A Part 1 (Cognitions)

5.1 Introduction

This chapter discusses A's cognitions about learner autonomy. It will start by showing

how a lack of awareness of the literature on learner autonomy did not prevent A from holding

strong cognitions about the concept. It will then introduce A's professional beliefs because these

help us to understand how A fostered her autonomy in practice. Following that, sections will be

devoted to A's cognitions about her students, her role in the classroom, and about L1 and L2 use

that further illustrate the ways in which A's cognition system strongly supported the promotion of

learner autonomy.

5.2 A's cognitions

Though there is now an extensive literature on learner autonomy in language teaching, A

did not use the term "learner autonomy" and was clearly unaware of the concept as disseminated

in the literature, as she showed in an early interview:

Extract 5.1 (A Interview 2)
R: I'm interested in student autonomy and how teachers create autonomy within students in
terms of language learning.
A: Uh-huh. Can you describe autonomy?
R: Well I was going to ask you if you could describe what autonomy is. Or something it
means to you.
A: I can't describe it.

Although an experienced teaching professional, A had only ever worked part-time, had never been

involved in professional development networks that might have exposed her to the discourse on

learner autonomy, and did not hold a higher degree in language education (see Chapter 3 section 3.4.1.1). It is therefore unsurprising that A could not discuss learner autonomy as a concept when asked directly about it. However, through extended discussions about her teaching and observations it became clear that she strongly believed in promoting learner autonomy even if she never used the term. This reflects the literature on teacher cognition which posits that beliefs are often hidden and tacit and need to be teased out by the researcher in "a climate conducive to teacher reflection and disclosure of details of their practical theories" (Mangubhai, Marland, Dashwood, & Son, 2005, p. 294, in Borg, 2006, p. 204), because "teachers are often unaware of their own beliefs, [and] they do not always possess language with which to describe and label their beliefs" (Kagan, 1992, p. 66, in Borg, 2006, p. 192). In this chapter and the next it will be shown how the piecing together of different aspects of A's cognitions using a bottom up approach led to the conclusion that she strongly supported learner autonomy.

Given the absence of explicit cognitions about learner autonomy, the challenge was to investigate positions that A might have held about learner autonomy through other aspects of her cognition system. What A reported during the semi-structured interviews revealed a clear set of cognitions that supported learner autonomy because they showed how she sought to give students greater control over their learning. This will be shown in detail in sections on A's cognitions about her students (see section 5.4), classroom role (see section 5.5) and language use (see section 5.6). A constant thread that ran through her cognitions was the belief that students' confidence was crucial to them enjoying the learning process, and that this was the most important thing for her because it could lead to students continuing to learn after the end of the course. In other words, they could, in what is an oft-cited pithy definition of learner autonomy, learn to learn (Benson, 2011; Harmer, 2007; Scharle & Szabó, 2000).

As mentioned in the literature review (see section 2.6.6), Little (2007) suggests teachers with an interest in promoting learner autonomy will exploit space in the curriculum or syllabus to include it in their teaching. Indeed, this research revealed how A did this but at the same time how the extent to which she included autonomous activities in her class seemed to be regulated by what I have termed her "professional cognitions". These included both her self-image as a professional educator who followed the syllabus and as an expert and experienced language teacher whose years embedded in the country and culture gave her insights that allowed her flexibility to teach in her own style and, when necessary, ignore the syllabus.

The two identities of professional educator and expert and experienced language teacher did not necessarily sit comfortably together and as a result the classroom became a space in which the tensions between them were resolved. Sometimes A followed the syllabus and sometimes she overrode it with her own agenda that, as will be shown, aligned with processes that supported learner confidence, enjoyment and greater overall control by students of their learning.

Having to manage the tension between what she wanted to do in the class to promote learner autonomy (her agenda) and what she was being asked to do in the class (the university's agenda) was sometimes a source of frustration for A. This is most clearly seen in her classroom practice and the reflections she has on her teaching and will be illustrated in Chapter 6. The effect of these conflicting agendas on her autonomous practice is so strong that before showing A's cognitions about autonomy, it is important to provide the context by describing her professional cognitions.

5.3 Professional cognitions and learner autonomy

5.3.1 The importance of professional cognitions

As will be illustrated later in the chapter and in the one which follows, A had strong cognitions about promoting learner autonomy but was prepared to accept limitations on promoting it in her classroom because of an obligation she felt to follow the syllabus and institution. The institutional demands for the course were laid out in the syllabus, which did not mention learner autonomy, and was focused on the final products students should produce in the form of paragraphs, presentations and the number of units from the textbook that should be covered.

In this section I will argue that what I have called A's 'professional cognitions' mediated the tension between her autonomy-oriented cognitions and the reality of her circumstances. It should be noted that A's 'pedagogical cognitions' about learner autonomy are different to her 'professional cognitions' that pertain more strongly to her sense of belonging to an equitable community of practice in which she played a valuable role (see Extract 5.2). In other words, if 'pedagogical cognitions' drove how A taught in the classroom, her 'professional cognitions" were connected to her wider expectations of how the institution should treat her and how she should behave as an educational professional. This set of cognitions which was built up over many years as a teacher, I argue, resulted in a sense of duty to accept the institutional demands of where she worked.

In this next section I will argue that A's 'professional cognitions' were like a set of guiding principles that kept in check her 'pedagogical cognitions' that she would ideally have used exclusively to guide her classroom practice. However, by having a highly developed system of "professional cognitions" her ideal-oriented cognitions were shaped into reality-oriented ones

(Borg, 2006). How these impacted A's classroom practice in terms of learner autonomy will be described in Chapter 6.

5.3.2 A's professional cognitions

A starting point for understanding A's professional beliefs is her perceptions of the relationship between her and the university department where she worked. Though she was a part-time teacher and was acutely aware of power differences between her work situation and others (see Chapter 3, section 3.4.2, Extract 3.1), she had worked at the same university for a long time and so she felt some acknowledgement by the institution of her dedication, trustworthiness and ability (see Extract 5.2). In turn she considered herself to have a responsibility and loyalty to the institution in carrying out the tasks she was asked to do. In other words, there was mutual respect and, as shown with her reaction to the actions of the tenured teacher, A generally felt a part of the wider community of practice of part-time teachers, including in terms of teaching (see Extract 5.3 below) (Lave & Wenger, 1991).

The importance of A's professional cognitions is well illustrated in the following long extract (also cited in Chapter 3, section 3.4.2, Extract 3.1) in which A described an incident that damaged the relationship with the institution and led to her wanting to leave the university. The incident concerned her discussion with a tenured professor about the following year's schedule in which she had lost a class, as she explained in Interview 3:

Extract 5.2 (A Interview 3)
R: you mentioned there was a time when you wanted to quit
A: (laughs)
R: (like) last semester
A: Well I wanted to quit because erm my position there, even though I'm part-time I've been

there for so long […] I know a lot of the full-time people and you know things are not that fair sometimes you know, but maybe there is some kind of trust. I've been there a long time, never done something horribly bad and I think that I've been *isshokenmei* [dedicated] teaching but I was very upset when my number of classes erm or the number of classes minused from my schedule, which was only one […], was compared to another part-timer or other part-timers whose classes were subtracted by, maybe they had half of their classes taken away. And I felt that erm the teacher actually she wasn't even aware that she was doing this but it was she was playing around with the the livelihood of those people, because part-timers and full-timers they all have to make a living. And some part-timers you know it's it's like they're they're the household bread winner and I I felt very sensitive about the position of the part-timer. I felt like because this teacher was a tenured teacher she didn't really understand that (you know) some people have to come to make their money. I mean if you're tenured you work more you you have to be there more but you don't really have to worry about your monthly you know […] the position of the part-timer felt very low that she could feel like she could say to me oh you don't have to worry only one class was subtracted from your work, you know, other people lost half, as though she was telling me I was lucky!

As A explained, there were several reasons why she felt upset by the above conversation. Clearly, the flippancy of the tenured teacher's response suggested a lack of appreciation for the economic realities of part-time teachers whose income fluctuated with the number of classes they received, and belittled her status, so as an individual A felt undervalued. But more damaging seemed to be the way in which her belonging to a teaching community with shared goals was shattered, and replaced with the stark hierarchy of her employment status. From being a valued and trusted colleague within the community of practice A had suddenly been expelled to its peripheries.

That this negative incident engendered thoughts of quitting underlines the strength of A's professional cognition that there should be mutual respect in the relationship between her and the institution. On the other hand, it also drew attention to the fragility of her 'professional cognitions' built as they were on the precariousness of her employment status and the potential loss of livelihood if she did something wrong. This incident highlights the underlying fear for A of losing

classes and is certainly one aspect of why A felt obliged to follow the institutional agenda in the form of the syllabus at the expense of her own pedagogical one that aimed to foster autonomy. For example, a recurring aspect of A's diary entries, especially towards the end of the semester as time became short, was how she was going to complete the syllabus while still following her pedagogical cognitions about learner autonomy:

Extract 5.3 (A Diary 8)

Week 8 [according to the syllabus] is supposed to be for practicing presentations [institutional agenda] but instead I took this time to finish skills test [A's agenda] and gave some assignments related to presentations. I will have to extend presentation practice time [A's agenda]. I am wondering how to get back into the textbook [institutional agenda]. I am running out of time and finding it difficult to fit everything in.

This diary extract reflects the concern that A alluded to in Extract 5.2: not doing what was required by the institution could impact the number of classes she received, and at the same time reveals how this tension between her agenda and the institutional one played out in her mind.

Extract 5.2 also hints at how A felt as though she belonged to a community of practice at the institution. A comments within that extract that:

even though I'm part-time I've been there for so long [...] I know a lot of the full-time people [...] maybe there is some kind of trust. I've been there a long time, never done something horribly bad and I think that I've been *isshokenmei* [dedicated].

This can be interpreted, I think, as a sign of how A belonged to a community of practice. By citing her good relationships with full-time teachers, the length of time she had been teaching there and her dedication while not doing anything "horribly bad" A revealed a professional pride that also formed part of her 'professional cognitions' and partly explains why she tried to follow the

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syllabus. Further evidence of how she belonged to the community of practice was through her relationships with colleagues. For example, A explained how she was an active participant in informal professional dialogue with her colleagues and tried to fit in with what others did:

Extract 5.4 (A Interview 1)
I talk to other teachers and compare to see, to to kind of check on what I'm doing. To emphasise what I'm doing. Sometimes to stop what I'm doing.

A also explained how she saw value in the syllabus as an organising tool that brought unity to a programme and served as a useful organising framework for the community as a whole. In comparing the current system of a coordinated curriculum to previous years when teachers had far more freedom and choice, she was clearly positive about the changes:

Extract 5.5 (A Interview 1)
When I first started we all had our choice of deciding on any curriculum, any books and so I felt like everyone is doing different things. And so the students only met you know once a week and they didn't have a continuum of the reading was not related to the writing and so erm they were all over the place and I think that there was not a unity. And so some kind of control or some kind of decision is important like reading er, using similar books.

A then accepted that some institutional control was beneficial overall, and could help bring continuity to students' learning, further adding to the picture of A's professional cognitions which resulted in her following the syllabus. On the other hand, as mentioned, mutual respect was important. A believed there were limits to how far the institution should control events in the classroom and strongly advocated a teacher's freedom to interpret the syllabus. Therefore, we can infer that A's professional cognitions envisioned the teacher as a fulcrum between the institution and the students, that is, as someone who in belonging to the community of practice was trusted

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to interpret the demands of the institution in the best interests of the students.

A explained the level of control that she found acceptable in the following extract in which she compared working in two different departments at the same university: Economics, in which she felt she had a space to interpret the syllabus, and which therefore respected her professional identity, and Science and Engineering, in which she felt she was overly controlled and not recognised as a teaching professional:

Extract 5.6 (A Interview 3)
You know erm I I like to make new things and but I'm also good at following rules so within the framework of rules because they [the Economics Faculty] give us space I mean to sort of have, you know you can spend a little bit more [time] they're not like like compared to *riko* [The Science and Engineering Faculty] I mean *riko* is like this week you do this and this time you do that. I have a problem with that. [...] to be told exactly what to do to that point er if you are real educated teacher I think it would be very frustrating. That's that's why you're educated for I mean you can have a syllabus but you need a little bit of leeway so that you can use your expertise it's really anti- development it's like at the university level the teacher should have their own ability to teach and following the syllabus is fine you know because it does bring some unity but to be told exactly what to do then you can hire people who actually mmm don't have to be so educated as educators.

This passage is crucial to understanding the way in which A's professional cognitions affected how she fostered learner autonomy in her classroom practice. It shows that A valued both the institutional framework and the freedom to interpret ("the leeway") and thus, when the institutional agenda interfered with her cognitions about learner autonomy, she did not simply ignore it, but saw accommodation as important. It does not, however, reveal how A balanced her agenda and the institution's in practice, something that will be shown in the final section of Chapter 6 (see section 6.4). It is no surprise, perhaps, that A had declined to teach classes in the Science and Engineering Department, even when it could have helped her financial position.

The passage also deepens our understanding of the importance of trust and mutual respect in the relationship, first mentioned at the start of this section, that A perceived should exist between her and the university department where she worked. In Extract 5.6 the level of control that the Science and Engineering Department exerted suggested to her a lack of trust in her ability to teach. In fact, the department was so controlling that A felt she could be replaced with somebody who had no teaching experience or qualifications. Aside from ignoring her expertise, worse still, the system was "anti-development", so once again A felt marginalised at the edges of the community of practice to which she wanted to belong. For A, having some degree of control was an important part of her identity as a teacher. In the following extract in which she was asked about the difference between universities when she first started teaching and at the present time, she made clear how being given "space" to teach was about more than a desire for teacher autonomy. Rather it was about an investment she could make in planning and preparing tasks for her students that "encourage the students to enjoy what they're learning", a comment which indicates A's personal and even emotional investment in helping her students become autonomous (also see Extract 5.29).

Extract 5.7 (A Interview 3)

A: We don't have as much freedom but you know I think that that if if you can really plan something and encourage the students to enjoy what they're learning it's really worthwhile to teach and it's very possible to you know to find ways and I generally am a teacher like that in anything I teach

[…]

it's a reflection you know if you're tired if you're burned out and I became very burned out actually that's another thing when this semester was over and I took care of the kids' [A's grandchildren] sickness and [A's sons]'s thing with his exam I just totally was burned out

R: Right

A: For a few weeks a month and erm I didn't really want to dance I didn't want to do anything.

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Except I mean I don't have the space and the the possibility to just not do anything because there I have my family and you know but I don't know I guess you know the earthquake [The 2011 Tohoku Earthquake and tsunami] just brought me back to reality again and now I mean for the next ten years I mean anything you complain about seems kind of stupid

R: Compared to what's been going on in the north of Japan

A: Yeah.

The second half of the extract reveals how, when talking about teaching, A's thoughts were never completely divorced from wider issues in her life and also national events. This illustrates the wider network of relationships her teaching existed in and draws attention to the importance of cognitions studies that take into account a teacher's position within wider ecological systems (see Chapter 2, section 2.3).

A's rejection of classes in the science and engineering department seemed also to be influenced by another emotional element. It was not simply that the way the department was run undermined her professional teaching identity. More crucial perhaps was simply the fact that she did not enjoy teaching in the department, enjoyment being a crucial element in teaching, and part of her teacher identity, and one that was more important than money. A explained this view of teaching in her response to the question of whether students were customers. In her response, she clearly felt uneasy with the analogy and the reduction of what she did to a business transaction:

Extract 5.8 (A Interview 1)

In some ways, yeah, students are customers erm…well, er…we wouldn't be paid if students were not paying to come to school um but there are people who are…it's a give and take, er, if they didn't have teachers they couldn't be customers but yeah this is our job so they are customers. And we are their providers, yeah? But customers…not only business, I don't come here just to make the money. I do enjoy teaching I think if I just…I, I er don't think you can teach. You can, you can teach just to get money but it, it would be a very sort of, if you don't enjoy it, the students are not getting their money's worth. The teachers have to enjoy teaching.

Enjoyment was therefore an important element in her professional cognitions and showed how her emotions were a factor in her professional cognitions that she felt affected students. A was thinking not only about her own feelings but connected enjoying teaching with being a good teacher. For A, if teachers did not enjoy teaching it would have a direct and detrimental impact on students.

A's comments on the two negative episodes introduced (Extracts 5.2 and 5.6) offer a window on her professional cognitions, both in terms of the relationship she wanted to have with the institution and her image of the teacher she wanted to be. She had clear ideas that her education, experience and individual expertise should be respected; and moreover that she should be recognised not only as an educational professional, but also a loyal employee who even as a part-time teacher should be respected as a human being trying to earn a living. A also mentioned several times that she needed to feel happy as a person to be a good teacher and, when she felt she received this respect and recognition by being given freedom to interpret the syllabus, she was happier. The relationship with the institution was reciprocal, however: in being trusted she acknowledged that she must also be trustworthy. This suggests why she followed the syllabus even though its goals did not necessarily match her own; and offers an insight into how A's professional cognitions shaped her practice that promoted learner autonomy in the classroom.

5.4 Students' levels of autonomy

This next section discusses A's cognitions about her students' levels of autonomy and will show how she recognised that her classes had learners with varying levels of autonomy, but within a context of students who were weakly autonomous overall.

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It will start by showing how A believed students generally lacked confidence and had low motivation indicating weak autonomy, but it will also give examples of how she perceived her more autonomous students who had goals and initiative, something she linked to higher English ability. Finally, it will draw attention to her cognitions about the importance of raising her students' confidence, the benefits of a soft approach to students, and her use of group work to make learning enjoyable and increase learner control.

5.4.1 Indicators of autonomy

As an experienced teacher, A had strong cognitions about first-year university students, particularly Japanese ones. She believed they had weak autonomy as a result of lacking confidence and being so scared of making mistakes that it prevented them from speaking:

Extract 5.9 (A Interview 3)
My first-year students I always I wrote in capitals don't be afraid of making mistakes. I think that Japanese students are generally very afraid compared to western students to make mistakes and that's why, even though they know all this grammar and actually they can speak as much as maybe some let's say American student can speak, they'll say, "I can't speak", right. It's because they're not confident erm they don't want to make mistakes and so as long as they think they're making mistakes they think they're not good.

In this extract, A identified how the combination of a lack of confidence and an unrealistic focus on speaking among students perfectly fed into a cycle of negative feelings about their own English ability that could hinder the development of their learner autonomy. A tried to combat this by making it clear to students that they could make mistakes (see Chapter 6, Extract 6.4). She also believed, based on her own experience of bringing up children in Japan, that students were

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negatively impacted by teacher correction in speaking, partly as a result of their high school experiences where "they needed to learn a lot of vocabulary words, grammar and so they spent a lot of time being corrected" (Extract 5.10, A Interview 2). As a result, she avoided correcting students' speaking mistakes because she felt it inhibited them:

Extract 5.11 (A Interview 3)
I don't correct their mistakes [...] because we're trying to first make them feel like they can express something and if you start correcting every grammatical mistake they make then they stop talking.

Clearly, A identified her students' biggest weakness being in the area of desire, rather than ability or management skills (Benson, 2012). In terms of ability, A saw all her students as being able to use English: "they all have potential, they just don't know or they don't have confidence and so how to pull that out" (Extract 5.12, A Interview 1). And it was also clear that she saw her role as being to help students fulfil their potential, as Extract 5.13 shows, something that will be developed further in the next section:

Extract 5.13 (A Diary 3)
In the next few weeks it is greatly my job to encourage the flow of ideas in a language which is their second language.

In extreme cases A felt that students' low levels of autonomy were compounded by low motivation and an inability to see the relevance of English classes:

Extract 5.14 (A Interview 4)
Once in a while I meet students that say English is not necessary why do we have to take this class yeah [...] Mmm usually by the end of the semester they understand that they need English

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[…] Especially with their major economics and business with business of course you need English even if you're working just in you know your small country city office English will help them.

As the extract shows, not only did A believe that her students would need English in the future, she saw her class as helping them come to "understand that they need English", something that suggested students' learner autonomy increased as a result of taking her class because they came to envision a goal for studying.

Although A generally identified her students as being low on confidence and some as also being low on motivation, she recognised that these levels varied within a class. For example, in Interview 5 when describing students who she would miss, she suggested those with traits that are often associated with learner autonomy:

Extract 5.15 (A Interview 5)
I had very good students and erm several students that I'll miss […] some of the students who I feel like erm they're working for themselves and they understand that erm it's up to them to enjoy something studying you know and also that will lead to I think life in general […] I think upper level classes have more students that way. They have more initiative to make it their own.

Here A noted that higher level classes seemed to have a greater proportion of students who appeared to be more autonomous overall, suggesting how she believed that level (which because of the streaming system also nominally at least indicated ability) was a factor in learner autonomy even if it was not the one that most concerned her in terms of her students.

Although, as shown in Extract 5.14, A identified students who did not recognise learning English as a legitimate goal, she also noted there were students who could envisage a future using English. As she explained, she linked students' desire to use English in the future to their exposure

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to discourses on globalisation that she believed had influenced students in terms of their goals for learning and studying:

Extract 5.16 (A Interview 4)
some of them [have] really pretty deep goals like, you know, they want to work for international firm or they some said that they want to go to a different country and have erm work [...] Yeah yeah erm a lot of them their goals are you know they want to speak to foreign people er they want to travel see the world erm develop them themselves as people and I think that this globalisation and in their education as a child I think to be able to speak English has been for most students I think pretty engrained yeah er lately.

In other words, A identified her students as possessing a range of autonomy with some being more intrinsically motivated to learn than others. However, she recognised that it was only "some" who wanted to "develop them themselves as people" and for most others she would need to support them to make them more confident using English. A's cognition that more confidence would lead to greater enjoyment of learning and therefore greater learner autonomy underpinned her use of group work which is the subject of the next section.

5.4.2 Effect of group work

During interviews A commented on how she generally found that students worked better in groups, and because students enjoyed working with each other they produced better work. Group work was also a means by which she could hand over some control of the classroom to students and help the whole class take more responsibility for their learning. However, as she explained, she believed that students "don't want to be completely free", implying their lack of

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confidence and a rejection of stronger forms of autonomous practice. In other words, to a degree

A saw her students as being reliant on her to organise their learning:

Extract 5.17 (A Interview 1)

I give them a lot of space to be with their groups and friends [...] Use that mentality and you give them freedom and then control their groups in that way, they will give you a lot more work because they enjoy doing things together and they enjoy the freedom but then they don't want to be completely free.

Another example of how A's students relied on her was revealed in the following extract about how students chose who they worked with in groups:

Extract 5.18 (A Interview 3)

A lot of students in Japan, out front they try to show like they're happy to make like groups with the same people all the time, except actually within themselves many are thinking differently. They would rather shift and meet new people but there's a pressure to do that.

A believed that Japanese people hid their true feelings about what they wanted in the face of cultural "pressure". Specifically, the need to conform to the group norm restricted their actions, something which reduced their individual autonomy so that they missed opportunities to meet and communicate with different people even though they wanted to. A's cognition that students wanted to meet new people through the class was supported by students' class feedback (see Appendix 7) and so sometimes she mixed students so that they worked in groups with new people in the hope of making a more enjoyable learning experience.

As shown by Extract 5.19, A's cognitions about her students were culturally specific to Japan. This was not simply the result of her years of teaching there but also drew upon her

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experience growing up and raising children there. A's cognitions about Japanese students informed her use of group work in a way that maximised the potential for increasing students' confidence. As she explained, she exploited students' group mentality to encourage them to use English during group activities.

Extract 5.19 (A Interview 3)

I give them a little time to sort of warm up and exchange and then erm during that time I kind of sit at my place so they have space and then after a while erm I even give them a certain *omakana* time *omaka* means not like in ten minutes I'm going to but you know in about 15 minutes and then and then I get up and I sort of walk around and if I hear English then I go to that table and I give them a star [...] I'm giving them a star when that person is talking except because that person spoke the entire group will receive that same star so you know sometimes people think you have to sort of pinpoint that person and give that person only a star but there's a psychology I think in Japan they're very group oriented. Even now and so if *nani* if you know Taro san speaks and gets a star but everybody else gets the star because of their group member then somehow it kind of encourages them to speak more the others who are shy try you know to help the group.

A had devised the star system, which she described in Extract 5.19, to encourage students to use English without forcing them to do so and without penalising them if they did not: "they never get points off if they speak Japanese. They only get points when they speak [English]" (Extract 5.20, A Interview 3). In keeping with her view that generally her students lacked confidence, she tried to make group work a positive experience in which even the shyest wanted to make a contribution "to help the group". In this way, individual autonomy was increased within a network of peer support and with only indirect teacher intervention, a perfect illustration of what A said in Extract 5.17: "you give them freedom and then control their groups".

Through the star system students did things for their classmates encouraged by, but not acting for, the teacher and it positively reinforced behaviours that A believed would benefit

students' autonomy. B used a points system in a similar way (see Chapter 8, section 8.8.3). A saw

evidence of students' growing autonomy in their groups because as they became more familiar

with her system they took greater control over it, leading to more enjoyment and better learning:

"once they have the they get the system erm they they can manipulate erm the system and use it

quite well you know prepare and actually have fun" (Extract 5.21, A Interview 3).

As shown, A considered group work as a means of encouraging individual contributions

at the same time as allowing her to pass responsibility to the class. She noted how students became

better at group work and took more control, suggesting greater learner autonomy and hinting at

the potential for stronger versions of autonomy to develop over time. In theory, this should also

have meant less teacher intervention and monitoring, However, A noted how group work also had

a drawback, as she explained:

Extract 5.22 (A Diary 9)
I encouraged the students to speak more English than Japanese when working in groups. I heard
English at times especially when I reminded them but they were slipping back into more Japanese.
The class has become used to each other and friends are developing […] a good point in that they
feel comfortable together and so when they work they push each other but they sometimes use
the group work situation as if they are at a café and talk about other things. Good and bad.

Group work could be detrimental to students' L2 use if they became so comfortable with each

other that they went off-topic in the L1, and so A felt it necessary to continue to monitor students

and encourage them to use English not Japanese. She was also prepared to intervene if necessary

(see Extract 5.36) but preferred not to prohibit or admonish students for using the L1, indicating

her positive cognitions about code-switching in general (see section 5.6), but at the same time the

difficulty of promoting it as an explicit strategy for students with low levels of autonomy (see

section 6.3).

A's reminders to use English exemplify her soft approach to encouraging learner autonomy which prioritised the preservation of students' confidence over their language use. She deliberately acted gently towards students and sought to protect the positive atmosphere of the classroom that was created through group work by encouraging and supporting English use. Softness and avoiding anger were strategies for encouraging students' autonomy because it strengthened their desire to do things:

Extract 5.23 (A Interview 4)
I think it's a waste of time and my energy to be giving so much angry energy towards students or anybody [...] I think all in all people respond better to softness [...] it's a softness that maybe I use [...] to control and make them good about following something.

A suggested that, through this type of teacher control, students could be led to discover the value of something for themselves, in other words they could become more autonomous. And though she recognised that offering a critical view of students' work was an integral part of her teaching role, again she framed her criticism in such a way to avoid damaging students' confidence:

Extract 5.24 (A Interview 1)
If somebody is not so good if it's horrible I have to point it out but I try to ignore that if it's not erm in the way of the class. I, I find it a better technique to bring out and show what is positive instead of the negative attitudes because eventually the whole class will understand that that's what is expected of them instead of what is not, you know.

In showing only "what is positive" A created positive behavioural change throughout the whole class. Students understood "what is expected of them" suggesting greater awareness of their

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learning environment and therefore the potential to exert greater control over it. A's attitude to her students' mistakes and general soft approach reflected her cognitions about her students' fragile confidence (see section 5.4.2) so that she avoided doing anything that might damage it. It also informs us of her cognitions about her role in the classroom, ones which were intertwined with and complemented those about her students. This is the subject of the next section.

5.5 Teacher role in developing learner autonomy

The previous section has described A's cognitions about her students' autonomy and showed the importance to her of building confidence, motivation and enjoyment in the classroom. Some references were made to the roles A adopted and her soft, supportive approach. This next section builds on this image of A and in more detail identifies the relationship that she wanted to construct between herself and her students, the roles that she said she adopted in the classroom and how those roles supported the development of autonomy.

5.5.1 Classroom roles

In Interview 2, A was directly asked how she saw her role as a teacher and gave the following extended answer in which she identified several roles that she believed were important in the classroom, notably connecting each to the positive effect on her students' learner autonomy:

Extract 5.25 (A Interview 2)
Erm one reason why I have them call me [A's name] is because I don't want to be the authority all the time and the one the teacher who has all the control. My role is to encourage them to study because they want to study not because they're doing a favour to the teacher or you know they're trying to, of course (they're) trying to get a credit helps them to study but my role is to make them enjoy what they're learning and sort of to help them go deeper and by going deeper you know it's

fun. Erm so to encourage them to feel like they want to study more they want to do this they want to be here erm a kind of a initiator or someone who inspires them to learn.

In the first part of the extract, A pointed out how she tried to support a key tenet of learner autonomy in trying to make students less dependent on the teacher and to take greater control over their learning by doing things for themselves (Farrell & Jacobs, 2010; Scharle & Szabó, 2003). Though A recognised students needed credit from the class, it was also clear how she saw the classroom interaction between teacher and learner as going beyond a transaction for a grade. This was underlined by her statement that she did not want to be the one "who has all the control" but tried to help students take more responsibility for their learning within a more equal student-teacher relationship.

A also described the importance of her role in helping students to enjoy learning, suggesting she was in part a motivator who could help strengthen and deepen students' interest in English. This was consistent with her response in Interview 3 where she explained that she aimed to "help the students like English" (Extract 5.26, A Interview 3). Importantly, though, A saw enjoyment as the end result of effort. In the above extract, A explained how she tried "to help them go deeper". She partly did this through setting regular homework that she believed would help students come to form stronger connections with their learning. Setting homework was an integral part of A's cognitions about how autonomy developed because, as she explained, "the more homework you do and the more work you put into something learning is going to be more fun for you" (Extract 5.27, A Interview 2). And each homework assignment was part of a wider cycle which supported deeper learning as a result of A's feedback on the homework. A's positive feedback guided and encouraged students to write longer sentences with more depth and in this

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she saw students improve, their ability increase and by extension they gained greater control over the language:

Extract 5.28 (A Interview 1)

If you give back papers and they, and you give comments, and if you give them these "good" or [...] they improve. They communicate more, they write more, you know the first time they come they might write, you know, short phrases. By like, next time, when you emphasise that, next time they're writing more sentences going deeper so this give and take of paper grading and writing comments to them has really, really, I think, increased their ability and their level.

The comments that she wrote seemed to act as a spark for students' self-development reflecting the label she gave herself as an "initiator or someone who inspires them to learn" (see Extract 5.25) drawing attention to how she saw herself in a central role in the development of her students' autonomy rather like a catalyst.

These two extracts are another reminder of A's classroom agenda with its focus on processes that would enhance her students' autonomy so that they wanted to continue learning. A saw her role then as seeking to empower students with a desire for learning that transcended the physical boundary of the classroom and the temporal boundaries of the semester. And in identifying herself as an initiator, A indicated the personal energy, investment and commitment she made to raising students' levels of autonomy. Evidence for how personally A took the responsibility for teaching, her pride in her role and her emotional attachment to her students, can be found in a frank and revealing diary entry in which she noted how, though over many years she had been successful in inspiring her students, she had been unable to "help my own son" who was in the process of dropping out of a different university.

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Extract 5.29 (A Diary 14)

This week, I have been feeling a bit down, a bit like a failure and a bit sad. Seeing the students in class and on campus reminds me of how I want my own son to get something out of a University experience that would benefit him in the future. I have encouraged and tried to inspire so many students in the past 30 years of teaching and have directed many to reach to the next point and I can't convince nor right now help my own son. I feel humbled at the same time a bit discouraged.

This extract suggests the benefits of greater attention to the ecology within teacher cognition research, which would help us understand more of teachers' lives outside of the classroom (Burns, Freeman & Edwards, 2015; Kubanyiova & Crookes, 2015); but also, and more importantly for this thesis, it reiterates A's sense of herself as a successful guide who had "directed many to reach to the next point". More specifically, A fulfilled her roles when she perceived positive gains in students' relationship to learning English that suggested they had become more autonomous:

Extract 5.30 (A Interview 4)

I know that the majority of my students mmm received something [...] A positive feeling about wanting to learn more English and so all in all I mean I (there) of course there's you know some and a handful of people that's never satisfied and not satisfied with the way I but I don't think that I made too many people dislike mmm learning English [...] And when that happens I feel like I've accomplished my job you know they're going to the second semester mmm with a positive attitude about learning more English [A's agenda] er I think that most of them got the layout the format [of the academic paragraphs] some never got it er I gave them pretty good presentation skills or understanding of what they should be developing [Institution's agenda] you know it's not perfect.

In the first part of this extract, which is from Interview 4 that took place after the observations, A noted that overall she felt as though she had "accomplished her job". Most students by the end had "a positive attitude about learning more English" suggesting greater learner autonomy in

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terms of stronger desire; as has already been explained, this was one of A's main concerns about

her students' autonomy (see section 5.4). Her final diary entry reported a similar sense of

fulfilment of her role as a teacher because students had a future desire to learn: "I think many of

the students were happy to study English in this CW1 class. Most important of all they wanted to

study more English" (Extract 5.31, A Diary 15). In telling contrast, in the second part of Extract

5.30, and almost as an afterthought, A commented on the product-goal aspects of the institutional

agenda. And while students had mostly understood how to write a paragraph and their

presentation skills were better, for A success was very firmly measured in terms of whether or not

students had improved their autonomy. Her role in delivering the institutional agenda was

expressed as less important, and this indicated the way in which the tension between A's agenda

and the institution's agenda was resolved in practice in favour of the former, as will be shown in

Chapter 6.

5.5.2 Autonomy through freedom and choice

According to the literature, a central role of the teacher in autonomous learning

environments is to guide students to taking greater control and responsibility for their learning,

often resulting in the adoption of roles that place the experience of learners at the centre of the

classroom. This results in the classroom becoming a collaboration between learner and teacher

(see, for example, Dam, 2011). As has already been noted in section 5.4.2, A saw group work as

a way of offering students freedom but within a controlled environment where responsibility was

shared. In this section, more will be said about how A used her role to offer students freedom and

choice, something she identified students liked:

Extract 5.32 (A Interview 1)

[I] try to give them the freedom and choice. Students are erm more comfortable making their choices now then they were ten years ago. They like their freedom.

However, with a mandated curriculum and fixed, measurable outcomes for the course, the extent of the freedom A could offer students was limited. Nonetheless, A used her role in interpreting the syllabus to give students choices about topics for academic paragraphs and presentations and to offer opportunities for personalisation during communicative activities (see Chapter 6). Though in stronger autonomous environments choice refers to content of learning or even how to learn (Benson, 2011), as has already been pointed out, A's classroom was only weakly autonomous (Kumaravadivelu, 2003; Smith, 2003) and her students were not necessarily ready for complete freedom (see Extract 5.17). In any case, it was clear that A saw even limited choices as producing a positive effect on students over time:

Extract 5.33 (A Diary 10)

At first it takes time for the students to work in the freedom I give but all in all they come to an understanding and find the enjoyment of learning.

A's role then involved not simply guiding students to "freedom" but also helping them maintain their involvement with it. She did this through responding flexibly and sensitively to her students' needs on an individual level. For example, students with higher autonomy who wanted more time to complete their work received it:

Extract 5.34 (A Interview 4)

I've pretty much plan[ned] but it's not so tight see and so like for example I write today handouts

should be handed in but a lot of students they want to write more and so they independently come to me and say I wasn't able to finish so I say it's okay bring it next week you know.

Slower students were supported as well by being given more class time, but not at the expense of the overall progress of the class. Hence, A described her role as offering both control and freedom, as illustrated in the following extract when she explained how she organised group work:

Extract 5.35 (A Interview 1)

Time, so, in ten minutes. Er I give them until two ten [14:10] to finish to this point and then I separate you know, and I write it on the board. Erm, okay so work on these questions. And then I have groups present them, er, sometimes, you know, some people can't do it in ten minutes, but usually I keep time at the end of class for those who were slower to finish up or if they just can't hand it in then I give them extra time to hand it in by next week but I don't just allow them to, you know, to spend the whole time doing something but I say, okay, at this time we're going to present this and so control the freedom and. Control and freedom.

As the extract shows, freedom was never unregulated or without a structure, reflecting the point A made in Extract 5.34 that she always had a plan. A maintained overarching control of the classroom while simultaneously offering groups freedom and autonomy to work together independently. In this way, A's role was both like a guide and a manager who acted as a regulatory, steadying influence that ensured students maximised opportunities to develop autonomy. This is in keeping with the literature (for example, Little, 2007) and A's own cognitions about how autonomy developed within her students. Students needed support to explore their freedom, but at other times they might need to cede their freedom, and the teacher might need to take greater control. In the following extract A reported how she needed to adopt both roles simultaneously in response to the mixed levels of autonomy within her class:

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Extract 5.36 (A Diary 4)

Some students were earnestly working to prepare and others had to be reminded to use the given time efficiently again, I felt a big split in the ability to concentrate among the students, I could help some to go deeper into their preparations. To some I kept reminding them to do their work.

This was especially the case with lower ability students who, A noted below, if left alone would become distracted leading to an "off-task melee" (King, 2013). Inevitably, use of L1 also became more prevalent at these moments, although this was not A's main concern (see section 5.6). Rather it was the overall degrading of the learning environment that meant less depth of learning and thus ultimately less autonomy that sometimes forced A to be "more tough" in her role and even "threaten":

Extract 5.37 (A Interview 4)

if you don't really control them more it's like a cafe they'll be you know talking about [other topics] in Japanese [...] I had to be er more tough in certain things and and kind of you know I don't want to threaten but sometimes I've had to.

In section 5.4 we learned that A believed that students responded to softness that increased their confidence. Here, though, a different side to A's classroom roles is shown as she takes on a more traditional authoritarian teacher role, reflecting the way she described herself in Interview 2 as being "velvet with thorns behind. [...] I think that people feel like maybe I'm quite soft and not strict but actually I am" (Extract 5.38, A Interview 2). This explanation by A shows her willingness to compromise her ideal-oriented beliefs in favour of more practical reality-oriented ones when necessary, in this case to enable learning to occur. This once again shows how the relationship between cognitions and practice is not a simple one that either shows convergence or

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divergence but out of practical necessity must remain flexible and dynamic (see Chapter 2, section 2.2.4).

Another part of A's cognition about her classroom role that fed into how she used freedom and control was a belief that her relationship with students should be equal and mutually supportive. She did not see the teacher as someone who "is greater than them":

Extract 5.39 (A Interview 1)
I don't control everything. If you control everything and they have to do exactly what the teacher says. I don't believe in that kind of teaching. I'm not their master. I ask them to call me [A's name]. I'm their, I am you know their teacher, but I'm not someone who is greater than them or someone who's out there controlling everything.

A's desire to reduce the distance between her and her students to create a more equal, mutually-collaborative relationship that engendered communication is reminiscent of other voices in the field (see Tudor, 1996). For example, van Lier notes that "treating the learners as persons in their own right is crucial" (2007, p. 47). A echoed these views, explaining that:

Extract 5.40 (A Interview 3)
in order to teach communication and have a comfortable feeling so that they can feel free about expressing their opinion I believe that you have to make them feel like they're mutual to some extent as people.

Again, there is evidence here of how A's role in the classroom reflected her cognitions about her students, and the importance of feelings of confidence and comfort in promoting communication and by extension greater autonomy. For A, building students' confidence was a prerequisite for other areas of learning; therefore, she made this process and raising students' interest in learning

a focal point of her role in the first few weeks of the new semester:

Extract 5.41 (A Interview 1)

I feel that it takes about two sometimes three weeks to improve the confidence of the students about communicating, and also being in a communication situation with other students that they're meeting for the first time, and from there then you have to motivate their interest erm, before you do this. I mean if you don't do this, I don't think you can do some of the other things.

As has been shown, the roles that A adopted in her classroom were closely linked to her cognitions about what students needed to improve their autonomy. Through these roles A offered students freedom and choice, while remaining a central supporting figure who did not simply manage processes within the classroom but actively created opportunities for students to develop and grow.

5.6 Cognitions about language use

While the focus of the preceding sections was on A's cognitions about her students and her classroom role, a general picture of A's cognitions about language use will also have become apparent, and a brief summary of these will be given here.

As a starting point, A had a strong cognition, shared with many of her students, that they would need English in the future partly because they would be working in a world affected by globalisation (see Extract 5.14). Developing students' autonomy in English was therefore important, but A recognised that students lacked confidence and were so worried about making mistakes that it compromised their ability to speak in English. Some also lacked motivation and disliked English. As a result, A adopted a soft approach to students that encouraged them to use English and did not penalise them for using Japanese. In short, she accepted that students would use the L1 and actually saw it in a positive light (see section 6.3.2, Extract 6.53). At the same

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time, she also recognised that on occasion they could use the L1 too much and in these cases she would intervene.

Section 5.6.1 brings greater clarity to A's cognitions about language use and introduces the benefits that A felt the L1 brought to students' learner autonomy. It will illustrate the type of tasks and activities that A felt belonged in a tertiary education setting because of the depth of learning that could be achieved, but also show A's concerns when students did not use English to any great extent. Finally, it will show how A's cognitions about students' L1/L2 use with herself were different to her cognitions about language use between students in the classroom.

5.6.1 Students' code-switching

Generally, the literature on the development of learner autonomy in the language classroom has advocated the use of the L2 as the medium for all tasks and activities (e.g. Dam, 1995). More recently, however, reflecting a wider interest in code-switching and translanguaging in a world increasingly being viewed through a multilingual lens (Kubanyiova & Crookes, 2015), monolingual classrooms have been questioned. Within learner autonomy Macaro (2008, pp. 58-9) suggests code-switching should be a part of a learner's "autonomy of choice" in an educational landscape where the hegemony of the inner circle of English has been eroded, and students have "personal and instrumental goals" that go beyond the longstanding assumption that learning a language is primarily about integration into another culture. In this view of autonomy, the L1 is seen as facilitating participation in the L2 community of the learner's choice rather than being an obstacle to L2 development.

A, like Macaro (2008), saw code-switching as a positive enhancement of learners' communicative ability. As can be seen in the following extract, this was both because of her own

experience of being bilingual and also because of "global changes" that had made it more important to be able to communicate effectively in both languages:

Extract 5.42 (A Interview 4)

think I feel a lot more comfortable, myself being bilingual, that they [students] use both languages and that's about communication and a CW [Communication and Writing course] especially with first-year students using a little bit of […] you know using Japanese a little bit of Japanese is erm always okay in my class. But I found that the idea that going back and forth in English and Japanese and treating those two languages as a communication tool in a free way really goes with what erm the global changes that the Japanese students are facing. Bilingualism is, I think, a new trend almost yeah.

In describing bilingualism as a trend, A exhibited awareness of changing views about language education and added a further layer of complexity to her cognitions about language use. As shown above (see Extract 5.14), A believed English was important for students' futures, but she also saw students' ability to switch between the L1 and the L2 when communicating with each other as a strength that added to their autonomy as language users. In other words, A believed that allowing students to use Japanese in the classroom would better prepare them for future challenges and make them more autonomous. At the same time, however, she qualified students' L1 use. In saying "a little bit of Japanese" is okay, she made clear that the classroom remained an English-focused environment even if it was not an English-only environment. This reflected her professional cognitions about her responsibilities for the course but also those cognitions about her students mentioned earlier that recognised the risk of too much L1 use descending into a "café" (see Extract 5.22). This might also have explained why she avoided explicitly promoting code-switching in her classroom (see section 6.3).

Another reason why A accepted L1 use was connected to the type of learning A wanted

students to achieve. For her, deeper learning resulted in greater enjoyment and enhanced learner

autonomy. However, she felt that only allowing L2 use during learning could actually hinder these

processes:

Extract 5.43 (A Interview 3)

Well the kind of discussion you know we are encouraging the students erm if you don't use

Japanese they won't go deeper erm I think by using their so I always say try as much as possible

to speak in English but you know if you have to go deeper it's okay to speak Japanese.

Extract 5.44 (A Interview 1)

It's challenging to have them speak in English. Erm, I don't believe that you know when it's

content based they should only speak in English because they're not at the level.

Within A's cognition system, then, there was a belief that the L1 was a resource that gave students

access to a level of discussion that they would not otherwise have had if they had been restricted

to the L2. It enhanced their ability to communicate and in offering students a choice about which

language to use during discussions, through making the decision about when code-switching was

necessary, she helped students to develop their autonomy.

For A, L1 use allowed students to be truly engaged in the class through meaningful

discussion that could fully represent their own ideas. This further underlined how she viewed the

classroom as a place of learning that could offer greater benefits for students than just increased

language ability and supported her view that deeper learning led to greater autonomy because of

students' enjoyment and increased interest. As she pointed out, too great a focus on language

forms alone at the expense of meaningful content reduced students' discourse to hollow and superficial language forms and restricted their ideas:

Extract 5.45 (A Interview 4)
I just don't want to just kind of do you know exercises and finish up like that because they they're you know if you give them time they have real unique ideas especially with simple concepts they can really think about well.

Just doing language exercises robbed learners of the opportunity to fully express themselves and their "real unique ideas". In other words, A had an innately positive view of her students' potential (see Extract 5.9) that would not be fulfilled through "English repetition", by which she meant pre-written dialogues and structured communication exercises contained in the textbook. These types of task were "not satisfying in terms of the level of content", reminding us once again that A viewed gains in the learning process in connection with deeper gains in what was being learned:

Extract 5.46 (A Interview 1)
sometimes these sort of conversation skill[s] you know, give and take simplified, erm, English repetition for university level is, is not satisfying in terms of the level of content. So, mmm, how to make them speak without feeling like they're always communicating in Japanese, yeah.

At the end of the extract though, A acknowledged the risk of allowing her students to use the L1, namely that in achieving depth of discussion they would actually use very little English. The observations (see section 6.3) provided moments when A was frustrated with students speaking Japanese, but conversely moments when she saw code-switching as creating greater rapport within groups and better learning. This revealed the internal contradiction that A struggled to resolve as two cognitions about how students could achieve greater autonomy seemed to compete

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in her classroom. Inevitably, this sometimes caused A to doubt herself and question her classroom practice:

Extract 5.47 (A Diary 9)

The gesture test gave them a chance to speak and practice phrases in English. It went well do they need more controlled speaking practice? They thought and wrote in English. I wish they could feel more comfortable speaking in English to each other they really spoke well during the interview skills test.

This passage underlines the complexity of A's cognitions about language use as she tried to accommodate and resolve different positions through her classroom practice. Greater learner autonomy overall seemed to come at the expense of L2 use, and while this did not shake her fundamental belief that using the L1 in the classroom was beneficial it spurred reflections on how to support more L2 use.

In the end though, the importance of students exploring deeper content that could enhance their autonomy through the enjoyment of learning meant that her classroom practice prioritised activities that supported that aim, even if it meant less English being used (see Chapter 6). Moreover, A's avoidance of "simplified English repetition" of the type contained in the university-prescribed textbook, is another reminder of how her own agenda, underpinned by her cognitions about learner autonomy, seemed to take precedence over the institutional one (see section 5.2).

5.6.2 L2 language use with A

Though A supported students combining the L1 and L2 when communicating, she insisted on them using the L2 with her because it was an opportunity for them to become more confident

using English and develop their autonomy. To aid this, A claimed to hide her Japanese ability from them because she knew that otherwise, students would only speak Japanese with her. As she explained, this was a long-held cognition:

Extract 5.48 (A Interview 1)
I'm bilingual, I can speak Japanese but erm, you know in the twenty years that I've been here I really try not to speak um Japanese unless it's emergency. [...] I encourage them to speak to me in English. I may use a few vocabulary words in Japanese but erm I try not to speak in sentences erm, because erm especially being bilingual, once I give away that I can speak Japanese pretty much like them they will continue to approach me in erm Japanese.

Though a long-standing cognition, it became clear that it was an ideal-oriented one and in practice she was not always successful in maintaining an English-only relationship with her students, nor hiding her Japanese from them, as she explained in Interview 4:

Extract 5.49 A (Interview 4)
This year for some reason they got the sense that I could speak more Japanese than than my usual years [...] I said, you know, when you do write me an email please write to me in English. A lot of people wrote in er Japanese and then, if it wasn't like extremely emergency, I would say please write me back in English [...] sometimes I think they went over the line and they didn't try to communicate [in English] because it was *mendoukusai* [troublesome]

This extract draws together several different threads that suffuse A's cognitions about developing learner autonomy. The first is that students had low levels of autonomy because they would use Japanese rather than English if they could, and that it was not a question of their English ability but rather their confidence and motivation. As A pointed out, there was a line concerning acceptable use of the L1 which her students did not always recognise and sometimes they gave

up too easily. Code-switching aided learner-learner or peer-to-peer communication; but, likely drawing again upon her professional cognitions, with A herself students must use English because as a 'native speaker' teacher this was part of her role.

When in her role of encouraging students to use English, A's response to students who used Japanese was typically soft. Even though she suspected they were simply being lazy, without being critical she just asked them to write to her again but in English. In this way the opportunity for them to become more confident using English was not lost and A could fulfil her role as an initiator of communicative opportunities that could further develop her students' autonomy.

A's cognitions about language use are a good example of how her cognitions were complex and interdependent with other cognitions about teaching and learning. In this case, the context of students' language use – whether it was with her or with other students – affected her expectations of how they should behave. And while the expectations in each case were quite different, both are grounded in A's cognitions that her approach would lead to greater learner autonomy overall.

5.7 Chapter summary

This chapter began with the idea that despite an absence of explicit cognitions about learner autonomy, A did hold implicit ones. It also drew attention to the importance of A's professional cognitions because they could affect how A tried to foster learner autonomy in her classroom. Finally, it explained and illustrated A's cognitions about learner autonomy through discussions of her cognitions about her students, her role and how language should be used in the classroom. Though some reference was made to A's actual classroom practice, it generally presented a model of her ideal-oriented cognitions. In the next chapter, it will be shown how A's classroom practice actually reflected her cognition system.

Chapter 6: Case A Part 2 (Classroom Practice)

6.1 A's practice

6.1.1 Introduction

As Borg (2006) points out, the ideal-oriented cognitions that teachers hold as uncovered in interviews cannot be assumed to be the same as reality-oriented ones that inform practice, hence the desirability in teacher cognition research to also observe the teacher in the classroom. This chapter illustrates A's classroom practice which promoted autonomy and shows how it reflected her cognitions as identified in the previous chapter. Inevitably, when teachers talk about their practice they emphasise some aspects without mentioning others, so this section will also draw attention to areas important to the development of autonomy that were underplayed in the interviews, for example on reflection. It will be argued that A's reported cognitions were clearly reflected in her classroom practice, suggesting a teacher who was strongly cognisant of her own practice, and evidence will be included that supports this contention.

The chapter is divided into three parts. The first part covers the general aspects of A's classroom practice, including tasks, activities and systems that could be linked to developing autonomy. In the second part it will be shown how A's language beliefs were manifested in her classroom, this being identified as a key area in her cognition system, while the third and final part discusses the constraints that potentially impacted A's ability to foster autonomy and explains how she overcame them.

6.2 The teacher's role in promoting autonomy

6.2.1 Introduction

Although A's cognitions about her students and those about her role were described separately in the previous chapter, it was also pointed how they were deeply interconnected. A adopted roles based on her understanding of her students' levels of autonomy, which varied but seemed to generally paint a picture of weakly autonomous students (see Chapter 5, section 5.4). In interviews A described how, whenever possible, she gave students freedom to work at a distance from her, thereby creating opportunities for them to take greater control over their learning. At the same time, her understanding of her students' generally weak level of autonomy meant that she monitored the freedom so that she could take back control when necessary. In the following sections, extracts from classroom observations will illustrate this cognition in practice, as well as showing the interconnectedness and interaction of A's cognitions about her students' needs and about her role building students' confidence, making learning fun, and raising their levels of responsibility. Separate sections will analyse the way in which tasks offering students choice and encouraging reflection served to support A's underlying belief about enhancing her students' levels of learner autonomy.

6.2.2 Encouraging students' personal responsibility

In interviews, while explaining her cognitions about students' autonomy, A had focused a lot on the psychological relationship between her Japanese students and the English language and how she tried to support them. She had spoken less about how she helped students develop their ability through greater control over their management of learning (Benson, 2012). However,

the classroom observations revealed several ways in which she tried to help students take more personal control and responsibility through strengthening this aspect of their autonomy.

From the very first class it was clear how A acted on her cognitions that university required students to develop a strong personal relationship to learning that would be deep and meaningful. She also believed that university learning required independence and personal responsibility that was a step up from high school learning; in short, that it was a different experience to what her students had previously experienced. A outlined these cognitions when she explained the menu on the blackboard that she wrote every week, giving details of what would happen in the class along with that week's homework. As she explained, this would help students prepare and organise themselves effectively and also placed the onus of responsibility for learning very firmly on the students not her:

Extract 6.1 (A Observation 1)
...if you see on the board here I wrote Homework and on this side Today every time I will write your homework here. […] okay so this is your responsibility if you are absent and you don't see this please ask a friend or if you know you have to be absent communicate to me. Ask me best if you can ask me in class okay [...] but I recommend that we speak to each other as best as possible and maybe erm you can you will begin to make friends and you can give each other information about the class. When you come to class and say "Oh [A's name] I was absent so I don't know the homework" this is not my responsibility but it is your responsibility to find out about the homework every week okay?

A's emphasis on students' responsibility set down a very clear marker for her minimum expectations of them: they would be organised and ready for the class. And while she also pointed out how she remained ready to support them, for example if they missed a class, it was up to them to be proactive and speak to her. A emphasised the importance of communication in taking

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responsibility and in doing so promoted the image of the type of autonomous learner that A hoped her students would be.

Also in the extract is the first indication of A's hopes for the future development of the class in terms of relationships between students. A's cognitions strongly supported the effectiveness of group work and here A pointed out how becoming friends with classmates could help and support them in the class. Later in the same class, while explaining the type of activities that would take place during the semester, A presented students with a much clearer image of how successful learning and enjoyment were the result of everybody's efforts and how the classroom space was a joint enterprise:

Extract 6.2 (A Observation 1)
You will be doing group work together so if we all bring your best energy er we will have a good class. Okay so help each other and I will help you to er study and er that will give you good results in studying and studying becomes fun when you bring energy okay?

There is a clear and striking consistency between the cognitions about how autonomy develops in class through cooperation and enjoyment that A expressed in interviews and diaries and the message that she imparted to her students in practice (see Chapter 5, Extract 5.31). Students taking personal responsibility means them being prepared and actively involved in group work because in doing so they would enjoy the learning process more, something which for A indicated greater autonomy.

At the same time as she positively promoted the traits of an autonomous learner to her students, she also made clear what was unacceptable behaviour:

Extract 6.3 (A Observation 1)

...if you come to class and if you sleep I must consider you absent okay erm this is this is your class. [...] so if you have to sleep if you're too sleepy er now it's nice weather er sleep on the bench outside don't sleep in class also *keitai* [mobile phones] er cell phones cellular phones maybe a lot of you have iPhones you may use your dictionary and sometimes you can find web internet in class please do not use your er cellphones to write mail to your friends and do not call your friends in class now erm I'm sure you know that kind of etiquette.

In keeping with the "soft" approach (see section 5.4.2, Extract 5.23) A explained rules without labelling them as such and treated her students as adults who would understand the need to respect common "etiquette" when making decisions about appropriate cell phone use. This invoked the level of trust that A wanted to invest in the relationship and labelling it "your class" was another indicator of how she was trying to internalise a sense of responsibility within students for their learning. Finally, the absence of strict, top-down teacher control was in keeping with her cognitions about developing an equal relationship between students and herself as far as possible (see section 5.5.3, Extract 5.39).

6.2.3 Encouraging students' confidence

As explained in the previous chapter, for A, what she identified as students' low levels of confidence and fear of making mistakes played a big part in inhibiting them from communicating and this was something which she addressed in the first class:

Extract 6.4 (A Observation 1)

Do you understand my English? I will speak slowly I will only speak English so er please try to speak English to me erm I always say don't be afraid to make mistakes so [A writing on board] don't be afraid to make mistakes. Okay make mistakes when you are communicating erm you don't have to be perfect use gesture, eye contact, all the words you know it's okay if you don't

have all the grammar correct, communication er is very difficult if you are afraid to make mistakes okay? So try.

A's commentary to students that they focus on communication not grammar was her first attempt to address what she perceived as a major obstacle to the development of her learners' autonomy and introduced strategies for being successful communicators that she repeated over the whole course.

Thus we can see how A's general encouragement, such as telling students not to worry about making mistakes, was augmented with specific examples of communicative strategies, such as using body language, that could help students overcome gaps in their linguistic knowledge. It can be seen how A empowered students to speak and make mistakes, subverting the image of the high school teacher who, she believed, drawing on her experience as a Japanese mother, (see Chapter 5, Extract 5.10) would do the opposite, with a resulting negative effect on students' autonomous development because their role was to help students succeed in tests to get into university and grammatical accuracy was therefore more important. By presenting the classroom as a space to use English freely A also encouraged students to be less reliant on her because they would no longer be speaking in order to get her approval for what they said. What A told students here reflected her stated cognitions about not correcting students when they spoke (see section 5.4.2, Extract 5.11) and showed how she created a safe classroom space where students could gain confidence using English and further expand their autonomy.

As shown above, A tried to make students feel confident speaking by recalibrating their image of their teacher and drawing a line between the norms and relationships that existed in high school and those in university. A powerful example of how she tried to signal to her students a symbolic transformation from high school to university was simply by giving them the

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opportunity to ask her questions. On one level this helped demystify the teacher: rather than an anonymous figure with a body of knowledge to impart, A hoped to show students a human figure who they could perhaps relate to, as she explained in her diary for the class:

Extract 6.5 (A Observation 1)
My goal today was to hand out course outlines and schedules. Explain the class to the students and answer questions. Introduce myself and encourage students to ask many creative questions to know the person who will be teaching them this semester. I achieved my goals. I finished all that I wanted to do for this introduction class.

ii. I followed the syllabus as an introduction class. I have my own introduction hand out which the students use to write out questions to ask me. They listen to the questions and answers and write a paragraph. For the first day the way the students get involved in this process and how I answer the questions develop the flow of the class.

At the same time the question and answer session also reduced the distance between teacher and learner, as students "get involved in the process", a move towards equality that A spoke passionately about in interviews (see section 5.5.3, Extract 5.40). For A, learner autonomy could only develop if students were aware of their new learning environment and only if students felt empowered to act in the space "so that they can feel free about expressing their opinion". Though very simple, A felt the activity of asking her questions was significant because in doing so students were already taking ownership of the space: "when they are when they have the courage to ask certain questions that's already a sense of communication power" (Extract 6.6, A Interview 2). The questions then were proof to the students themselves that they could communicate in English, but the exchange also showed the shared ownership of the space in which they were responsible and A as their partner in the classroom, all conditions that A believed helped develop autonomy.

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Though correction was not something A did with students' spoken language, she adopted a different approach with their assessed written work. When returning students' paragraphs she used correction symbols (see Appendix 8) to point out errors that could initiate the development of deeper connections with the learning process as students identified and corrected their own mistakes:

Extract 6.7 (A Observation 9)
I have corrected the first paragraph please look at what was good what mistakes you made erm if you want to write it again to raise your grade you can. [...] I will also give you a correction sheet or correction key erm sometimes I write you messages. Sometimes I say SM small letters, Cap capital, I circle words, please change the word. [...] and I have written some notes if you can't read my writing please ask me please communicate to me and ask me [A' name] what do you mean by that? Okay?

It was also an opportunity for dialogue with the teacher, and students' first class experience of asking A questions might have helped give them the confidence to ask her about their work. While no students were observed asking questions about their writing, in her diary she commented that "I see that the students are getting more comfortable with each other and me. For group presentation this atmosphere gives a better foundation for teamwork" (Extract 6.8, A Diary 9). Again, A made a link between students being comfortable in the classroom and better group and teamwork, showing how her perception of the classroom supported her cognitions. However, though no questions were seen being asked while students checked their writing, A also spent time later in the class going to each group of students as my field notes showed, so it is possible questions were asked at this point:

Extract 6.9 (Researcher field notes observation 9)

FIELD NOTES: 1420 Students let loose as groups and in a couple of groups there is near spontaneous action but in others just the awkward shuffling of paper. A goes around though and asks each group if they have any questions. At this point each group should have a leader responsible for the sheet and there seems to be one person reading in each group.

Students also had the option of re-writing and resubmitting their work with the incentive of getting a higher grade, but the onus was on them to take responsibility for their learning by seeing the writing task as part of a process by which they could improve. In keeping with A's cognitions, students were encouraged, not forced, to engage and how they responded to this opportunity indicated to A their level of autonomy and showed how her practice adapted to different levels by offering choice (see Chapter 5, Extract 5.20).

In interviews, A had stated her cognitions that students' desire for learning could be enhanced if students went deeper and the advice that she gave students showed how she felt they could do this. For example, after an open book test A drew attention to how students could improve their performance by preparing beforehand outside of the class.

Extract 6.10 (A Observation 3)

...we will have some short quizzes like this er during the semester, now you know how important it is to listen or to read the conversation for homework erm if you read and you prepare you will be able to answer your questions er more quickly even though it's open book test if you know the content er it's easier to write your impressions and so on.

Again, there is a notable focus on students taking responsibility for their performance by managing their learning effectively and preparing specifically for tasks and doing homework, strategies that would also help students become more confident because they would be quicker

answering questions and find it easier to do. As A explained in her diary for week 3, she hoped that by doing the activities students would develop an awareness of the positive traits associated with learner autonomy that would give them greater control over their learning through enjoying what they were doing:

Extract 6.11 (A Diary 3)

Hopefully the introduction of group work today will help the students become aware of many things such as you must prepare to have adequate discussions with others, sharing ideas broadens one's mind, you can learn many things from each other, studying English can be fun, etc. As an ultimate goal it is my role to make this exchange a pleasant experience so they will feel comfortable to use English to express their opinions and to be able to compare viewpoints with other classmates.

Here, in commenting on the powerful effect of group work, A reiterates points made in interviews about how she can support students in taking greater responsibility by making the activities 'a pleasant experience' that would raise their confidence when communicating.

Though much of what A did in her classroom centred on encouraging students to take personal responsibility in a positive way, her cognitions held that at times she might have to take back control (see section 5.5.3, Extract 5.35), a point also taken up in the literature (see Chapter 2, section 2.6.4). An example of this occurred in week 10 when, during group work on their presentations, A overheard a girl speaking in Japanese on something unrelated.

Extract 6.12 (A Observation 10)

A: Are you finished Hazuki? English conversation, no outside. This is not café English café fine. Okay? Are you speaking about your English presentation?

S: English xxx

A: I know I can't give you time to speak about (xxx) this is time for you to work on English. This is why I give you time but not then I have to stop you because this is English time to make up a presentation. (xxx) okay?

S: Okay.

Though A in this instance was re-asserting her teacher authority, it was also evidence of how her soft approach aimed to gain students' understanding of why she was intervening. Initially A established the exact circumstances of the student's use of Japanese with an initial question to the student that seemed aimed at re-engaging her in the task rather than prohibiting her from speaking. In encouraging the student, perhaps playfully, to talk about whatever it was in English, A acted on her beliefs that negative interventions were unhelpful and could damage developing autonomy. However, after establishing that the topic of conversation was unconnected to the class, she reminded the student of her responsibility to use the time given to her for English and checked she understood, which the student said that she did.

This episode illustrated A's softness in practice but also how she was a constant background presence even as she allowed students to develop control of their learning. She was aware and ready to deal with the potential risk of losing classroom control, something that Macaro (2008) notes can occur when promoting spaces for students to develop learner autonomy. The incident also reflects the more generally understood belief in the literature that giving learners greater responsibility in the classroom does not, and indeed should not, reduce teacher's authority or responsibility for classroom learning (for example, Dam, 2011).

6.2.4 Supporting group autonomy

As identified in the preceding chapter, A held strong cognitions about the positive contribution of group work to her students' learner autonomy (see Chapter 5, section 5.4.2). A

believed that students enjoyed working in groups and gained more confidence, resulting in the production of better work, with shier students in particular being drawn into making contributions. It also allowed A to devolve power to the students and allow them to take over the classroom space so that they experienced freedom but within a structure that meant A retained overall control.

This section illustrates how group work took place and how it seemed to produce the positive effects on her students' autonomy that A described. While this serves to confirm the convergence between her cognitions and her practice, more importantly, it sheds light on the gradual familiarising strategy and learner training that she employed to develop students' autonomy and the central role that she played in maintaining students' commitment to learning.

From the very first class A highlighted to her students the benefits of group work and, as seen in Extract 6.2, she made the point that they needed to bring energy to their groups and that this would make it fun. Certainly, A's diary in week 12 suggested that three months later her hopes for group work had been realised: students were working together as autonomous units and the whole class atmosphere was positive, with students getting on well with each other:

Extract 6.13 (A Diary 12)
Listening to English was the main skill to practice today but spontaneous English speaking happened in groups when I came around. The mood is good! […] **Even though I am not sure 100% what the students think I get the sense that there is a good repoire [sic: rapport] in this class.**

This outcome was not automatic though and observations of A's classes revealed how she developed students' familiarity with group work over time. At the start of the semester she offered greater guidance and training. For example, when she did group work for the first time discussions were largely organised by A: she chose the topic for discussion, specified that each person in the

group would have a named role and defined what each person would do:

Extract 6.14 (A Observation 3)

Okay so everybody erm now I am going to give you group paper okay? Today you will try to work together try to communicate as best as possible in English. [...] I would like you to choose one speaker, one writer, two or three advisors, okay? And next to the name please write the names of all your group members and their part *yakuwari* [role] yes? This is your *han* [group], your group, you're the red group, you're the blue group so you can *janken* [paper, scissors, stone] or you can volunteer er speaker, writer and advisors so please decide on who will do what, okay so please, the speaker will present the speaker will present the outcome of your group answers on the right side the two top and middle question er I will give you some time and the speakers will present your group outcome today okay?

In that the groups got to choose who would take on which role there was an aspect of group autonomy. However, A's expectation was that students would not have used group work at high school which explained why she retained control. As she explained, it was "a trial period when you introduce a new way of working to first time students" (Extract 6.15, A Diary 3).

By week 6 A was giving students much more freedom and she was less prescriptive in her instructions, for example, during a group activity in which students exchanged ideas on their homework writing. While she still guided students with a handout and set them a minimum target of people to talk to, she no longer labelled specific roles and students could go at their own pace. Furthermore, students were not restricted to within their groups and she encouraged them to physically get up and mix with other groups:

Extract 6.16 (A Observation 6)

If you need to you can stand up and visit the people that you were erm you want to ask questions to, now at the bottom it says please exchange your paragraphs now please exchange your paragraphs with at least three classmates you have 35 minutes. If you don't have enough members

in your er groups you can approach another group but I would like you to exchange at least three paragraphs er please read them, what were they about and what did you learn from them? There's space to write three sentences each for each paragraph that you read okay? Now erm please use the time to do that.

As students moved around, the image of a traditional Japanese teacher-fronted classroom with its strict network of power relations dividing the teacher from their learners seemed to dissolve. While this kind of in class scene is not untypical of a CLT activity (similar events took place in B's classes, see Chapter 8), it would probably have been very different from the other courses students were taking at the same time with Japanese teachers (see Chapter 3, Figure 3.1). In this way, students were encouraged to explore their individual autonomy within the classroom space and took personal responsibility for their actions; having given the broad outline for the task, A did not tell them what to do. By week 12, A felt that the positive outcomes for learners' autonomy that she had described in interviews had become visible as students started to take control over the space. Students were behaving autonomously, but also interdependently, by supporting each other, and A described her satisfaction in her diary:

Extract 6.17 (A Diary 12)
I feel like the students are beginning to take over and control the space which is a satisfying place to be in teaching this class. They know the system and how the process works. I see and feel that the students are generally working together to accomplish a goal together.

When talking about group work in interviews A had not mentioned these various stages she employed to make it a success. The observations filled in the details of the process by which autonomy was fostered and revealed how it could be applied practically. The stages which she employed support the idea of a gradual, progressive development and seem to confirm the

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suggestion in the literature that autonomy has stages (see Chapter 2, section 2.6.3).

In the same vein, previous research notes how autonomy must be nurtured over a period

of time in order to achieve substantial/lasting development (Benson, 2011). The star system,

which A had explained to her students in the third class (see Extract 6.19 and Figure 6.1)

facilitated successful participation in group work (see Chapter 5, section 5.4.2) and was a way of

nurturing students' developing autonomy. Simply, while students worked on a group task together

A would circulate around the room monitoring the groups and on hearing English being used

wrote a star on the group's worksheet. The system was also explained on the board:

Figure 6.1 A's blackboard explaining the star system
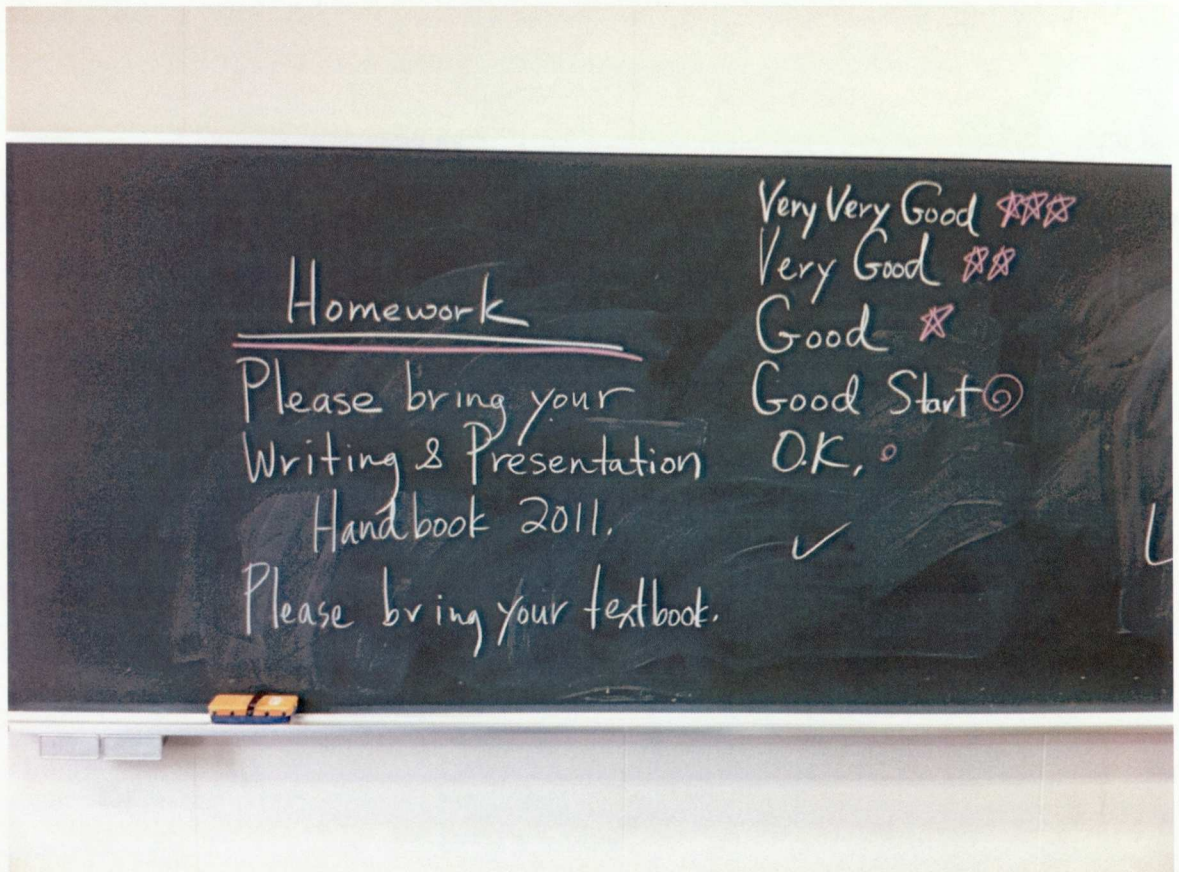
While monitoring, A also gave verbal encouragement for students to try to use English:

Extract 6.18 (A Observation 3)

A: Remember try your English I'm hearing a lot of Japanese which is okay a little bit but put in some English there, okay?

A's week 3 diary revealed how group work was a part of a gradual process by which she encouraged students to speak more English. Moreover, again evoking the soft approach, she explained that she took care to avoid putting too much pressure on students and thus damaging their confidence and the learning environment:

Extract 6.19 (A Diary 3)

Once the groups settled a little I went around to give star marks when I heard a relatively long phrase or sentence in English. I hope that eventually this process will encourage more English exchange. I measure the amount of pushing this speaking in English according to the group dynamics. I am careful not to force it. I positively encourage the speaking but do not discourage speaking in Japanese sometimes.

While encouraging use of English may have been the main goal of the system, as shown by her instructions in class, it was also an opportunity for students to become more confident generally when communicating with each other and build relationships with classmates, something that A believed students wanted (see Chapter 5, Extract 5.17). She reiterated key messages from the first class about using non-verbal communication and not being afraid of making mistakes. She also reminded them that some Japanese was okay, in a clear sign of how she implemented her cognitions on code-switching in the classroom (see Chapter 5, section 5.6.1; also see section 6.3):

Extract 6.20 (A Observation 3)

Okay so everybody erm now I am going to give you group paper okay? Today you will try to work together try to communicate as best as possible in English erm when I will go around the

tables when I hear English I will give you some points. Now if you get three stars sometimes er students' groups have received seven stars in one class time er one star equals some English communication, now sometimes you might have to communicate in Japanese some difficult words but try try erm you will be able to speak to each other. Don't be afraid to make mistakes use all the vocabulary, gesture, eye contact and communicate to each other to find the answers. Okay? And then I will come around to give you points, now each group will get one paper each group will receive a final group grade for today.

A believed that students were not simply working towards stars or points but also for the success of the whole group with whom they would feel a growing bond. At the same time they could enjoy communicating and become more confident and better equipped to deal with future speaking opportunities. Writing stars on the group's paper was a stimulus for students to immediately reflect on their performance in class and the process excited them, as my field notes suggested:

Extract 6.21 (A Field Notes 3)
FIELD NOTES:
13:41 The group closest to me are speaking very loudly in English. "Very charming. Very very charming. Very very very charming." A appears and draws a star on their group paper. They seem a little bit unsure of why this happened: A explains, "I heard a little bit of English". A comes again and writes a star. Again they seem excited by this.

The star system was directed at students' autonomy in several ways. On a linguistic level it was meant to produce more English communication in class. It was also to boost students' confidence and rapport with each other as well as strengthen the relationship between A and them by removing the image of her as a teacher. It was clear that not all aspects developed at the same time. For example, in week 3 the effect of the system had been uneven in terms of encouraging

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use of English as A explained in her diary:

Extract 6.22 (A Diary 3)

Today 3 out of the 7 groups received some stars for communicating in English. It was so so. There was an imbalance of English speaking opportunities today. Some students were able to speak more than others

On the other hand, A had noted that students were involved in the group work and making an effort generally, suggesting how the basic conditions for developing their autonomy were positive:

Extract 6.23 (A Diary 3)

The students were earnestly working together. Within their groups they seemed to be trying their best, coming up with ideas to answer the given questions. Each group had their own level. Each time I went around they asked me questions. It felt good that the students are already quite used to me. I felt quite comfortable moving in and out of the space each group occupied.

There was also a sense of the teacher-student relationship developing in the humanistic, equal way that A believed helped students develop autonomously. In another incident in week 4, though, it was clear how the English aspect of the star system was one of the weakest and students were not taking responsibility as A wanted them, leading to a need to intervene:

Extract 6.24 (A Diary 4)

30min. left, I assigned prep. for the next class group work presentation emphasising the need to communicate in English for speaking points. [...] In the last 30min. working time, seeing that some students were not using the time given well, I decided to give out the small papers to find out what they decided to talk about for the next time.

A's spontaneous decision to "give out small papers" was an example of how she took back control in the absence of visible signs of autonomous learning behaviour. It also showed how A's classroom decision-making was flexible so she could respond to unexpected classroom events (see Chapter 5, Extract 5.34) and further supported A's professional cognitions about the importance of the teacher retaining decision-making control. It also reminds us how processes used by teachers that can be accounted for by neat explanations in interviews are subject to the uncertainty and unpredictability of actual students in actual classrooms.

In response to "observing minimal English exchange in the last group work" (Extract 6.25, A Diary 5) A tried a new timed speaking activity in which she took complete control. It was a departure from her usual practice, but one she felt was necessary to help students understand the responsibility that they must take on within their groups that would benefit their autonomy. Students still had some choice in terms of their theme and what they said but A controlled the classroom space:

Extract 6.26 (A Observation 5)

Shssss so please listen carefully erm this is a timed speaking exercise [...] okay I will say "go number one" then the number one person will speak to the group. Please state your theme: "I am going on a nature trip", give all the information that you have to your group, group members please listen and take notes. [...] I will give you erm about one minute for each person to speak. Okay? and so we will try it once and then maybe two times and if we want to hear it more we might do it three times so when I say number one go number one person please speak about your perfect trip. We'll try it, ready? Number one go.

In reflecting on the task in her diary A took away several positive points. First, the students' L2 use went up: "A lot of only English time was happening" (Extract 6.27, A Diary 5). In addition, a lot of students had prepared, suggesting that they understood the importance of out-of-class

preparation in making the most of the speaking opportunities she was providing them with:

Extract 6.28 (A Diary 5)

Today the timed speaking activity worked. In the one minute all the students tried their best to speak what they prepared as their perfect trip. More students prepared thoroughly than I assumed from what I was seeing two weeks ago in class prep time. This new timed activity I came up with due to observing minimal English exchange in the last group work turned out to be good for this class.

And similarly, she was able to learn more about the different existing levels of autonomy within the class and realised that some students were less academically able:

Extract 6.29 (A Diary 5)

I became aware of the speed of working and understanding the work among the students. This group of CW1 students are very mixed in levels especially when it comes to academic understanding. When they were presenting their introductions they seemed similar in their speaking level. It is a challenging class in those ways.

Though A had clear cognitions about her students and the types of support that she would need to offer them in order to develop their autonomy, this episode illustrated the way that changing circumstances and classroom realities forced A to adapt her classroom practice. A responded to students' negative behaviour that challenged the way in which she tried to foster autonomy. This showed her retaking control and authority of the groups in the classroom in order to train learners in how to take future opportunities to develop their autonomy. Though disappointed at having to do it, it remained a step in the process for the development of students' autonomy that was A's priority. According to my field notes, in subsequent classes students were both working effectively together and using English even without A giving out stars. For example, here in week

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9's class:

Extract 6.30 (A Field Notes 9)

14:28 Having gone around to the groups A is back at the front desk monitoring from there. There is an undercurrent of speaking in the room with a few standout people using English. Some groups are clearly working quite effectively filling in the worksheet and in English. I haven't seen [A] giving stars today, but maybe she had less time for this than she had planned.

This could be suggestive of the internalisation of the values that A had been trying to instil in her students and their developing autonomy. Certainly, the successful group work offers evidence for the strength of A's cognitions about how best to support learner autonomy and why it was such an integral part of her classroom practice.

6.2.5 Supporting autonomy through tasks

Though group work was a significant mode of A's classroom practice, more can be understood about how A supported autonomy in the classroom by looking at the types of tasks she employed. Autonomy can be developed by activities involving student preparation and giving students choice about what they say and how they say it (see Chapter 2, section 2.6.5). For A, enhanced autonomy was embodied in students' greater confidence when speaking (see Chapter 5, section 5.5.2) and over the fifteen-week semester I identified five distinct ways of organising speaking tasks. All were preceded by some kind of preparation work, either individual or in groups, and all gave learners freedom to explore either the topic or the language they used when speaking. In other words, these tasks all had qualities which it is suggested can enhance learner autonomy (see Figure 6.2).

Figure 6.2 Descriptions of A's speaking tasks for students

a. As an individual from the front desk talking to the whole class *(self-introductions, week 2; first paragraphs on one of four topics, week 6)*.

b. As a selected representative of their group to the whole class *(group work on first impressions, week 3)*.

c. As an individual to their group of three others for one minute *(timed by A: perfect trip, week 5)*.

d. As an individual to their teacher and another student *(skills/interview speaking test, weeks 7-8)*.

e. As part of a group (of four) to the whole class *(presentation practice, week 11; final presentation, weeks 13-15)*.

In the variety of task organisation A offered students there was a potentially beneficial effect on their autonomy simply by exposing them to different challenges that required different strategies for success. But it was also apparent how the tasks were steps in a longer series of tasks that collectively would build students' confidence and skills. For example, the week 6 speaking activity was connected to the final presentations that would take place at the end of the semester. By pointing out these connections A encouraged students to invest greater effort in the activities but also made them more relevant by showing they had an ultimate purpose.

Extract 6.31 (A Observation 6)

…this is kind of the first erm one of the first presentation practices […] and so the person who is presenting five sentences make sure you speak loud and clear er you can glance [at the paper] but maybe try some eye contact.

These "practice" activities also broke down learning into more manageable steps, making speaking less stressful. In this case, A emphasised certain physical elements of speaking that they could focus on without overburdening students with too many things to think about. She allowed

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students to refer to a paper while encouraging them to try to look up. In contrast, by the final presentation A was strict about not allowing paper:

Extract 6.32 (A Observation 13)

Presentations erm make sure no reading, no glancing *chirami* so when you come up please do not bring any paper if you do have papers I am going to take it from you, yesterday a group said "oh we can't, we can't! *Dame, dame*!" and they did a wonderful job. Okay so if you have pa- a paper then you are going to depend on the paper. Simplify the information, use some of the key points you have on your PowerPoint and speak from your memory and if you forget ad lib.

While A still gave practical suggestions about how students could achieve in the task, it was also clear how the task was pitched at a higher level and represented an opportunity for students to draw together all the elements which they had practiced in the class up to this point. The presentation was a final vehicle for students to show to themselves and A that they were more confident and able speakers and thus more autonomous. Just as the tasks had developed and progressed so had A's expectations of her students' ability, so that her instructions evoked the final motivational pep talk of a coach to her players before they took part in an important game or contest compared to the lighter touch encouragement of Week 6.

In the above example a smaller speaking task fed into a larger one, but each task was also stand alone and self-contained with a clear endpoint. This endpoint involved students sharing their work with each other, something which offered listening and learning opportunities as A explained:

Extract 6.33 (A Observation 6)

You are a good presenter if you know how to listen you have to be able to speak but you also have to be able to listen and so today when your classmate is presenting five sentences no whispering whispering no *sasayaki* no sounds. please give all your attention to that person.

And to further enhance the learning opportunities and to encourage students to listen actively to their peers A got students to write down interesting ideas or their comments in English on worksheets (see Appendix 9), which she then collected, read and returned as part of the ongoing feedback cycle between A and her students that she felt enhanced their autonomous development (see section 5.5.2, Extract 5.28).

One significant task for A, because it drew together many of her core cognitions about fostering autonomy, was the "interview skills test" which took place in the middle of the semester. Though "skills test" was written on the syllabus, no test and no further guidance on what should be tested was provided, leaving each teacher free to interpret the meaning – a freedom that clearly chimed positively with A's professional cognitions (see Chapter 5, section 5.3.2) and gave her the chance to exploit the freedom of the syllabus while remaining true to what she felt would best enhance her learners' autonomy.

A chose a longer interview format that spanned just over two weeks (Weeks 7, 8, 9) rather than a more conventional way to "test" the learned material. A explained the format to students as follows while reminding them of strategies for being more confident and communicating successfully:

Extract 6.34 (A Observation 6)
We also have a skills test and in this class the skills test will be an interview, two students versus [A's name] meaning we will make a team of three [...] so you can choose from page twenty-five [family values, the perfect family, family problems] or from page twenty-nine [My life 10, 20, X years from now] a one-minute English dialogue I will call two members from the class and I will ask you to tell us no *chirami,* no glancing. So please prepare it and understand it and be able to speak it okay don't be afraid to make mistakes, use eye contact, gestures, er have an outline in your mind and er we will have a conversation now erm I will ask you questions er be ready to ask

me a question er about maybe the subject that you talk about erm and we will have a small conversation kind of interview with two students and [A's name].

Though students had some choice about their test, the range of topics was narrowed by being taken from the textbook. The most important feature of the task from an autonomy point of view was that A interpreted it as an authentic communication opportunity for students with a native speaker teacher and A saw that students valued it in the effort they made to prepare. For A too the tests were valuable opportunities to develop the relationship between her and her students:

Extract 6.35 (A Diary 7)
I like these two students vs. teacher interviews because the students, most of them really get into preparing their speaking parts. I can closely spend quality time with each student while they use their English. I feel we are communicating.

From students' careful preparation and their effort during the task A inferred their interest and commitment more widely to the class. Notably, students' efforts over the whole task were more important for A than their success as speakers. As A noted, all 'seemed to try their best':

Extract 6.36 (A Diary 7)
Most students were prepared to speak for 1min or more. By asking each other questions we were able to go deeper into the topics. Even though the conversations needed some guidance it felt like a satisfying three way give and take exchange most of the time. Some students were better communicators and question initiators but all in all everyone seemed to try their best to communicate! Also through this interview it is very clear to see who did their preparation.

A's comments here showed that for her the interview skills test supported students' autonomous development through encouraging preparation and effort. Rather than a high stakes test in which all the pressure was on students to perform, A used a more interactive experience or 'exchange'

that would not undermine their confidence. This task allowed A to support the development of students' autonomy while remaining loyal to the institutional need for evaluation and seemed to encapsulate A's philosophy of the classroom as a joint venture (see Extract 5.39) that had mutual benefits for both teacher and learner:

Extract 6.37 (A Diary 7)
The students became very interested in the exchange, I felt. I could see their eyes change as we communicated [...] this interview process at [University name] may be one of the successful lessons with the students. The way it is done is the same for many years but there are so many possibilities in the outcome of the answers. Such teaching ways, I feel are ideal because it can continue to inspire both the students and the teacher.

The positive effects of the task included its potential to inspire and therefore engage students because of the genuine, unscripted answers. Moreover, as captured in an impromptu conversation caught on voice recorder after the tests in week 8, A saw that learning about each other strengthened the bonds between students and possibly led to better group work:

Extract 6.38 (A Observation 8, private conversation after the end of the class)
I feel like (this) they take it seriously so you know they're louder erm (xxx) you can see the volume goes down I'm finding you know more understanding of the students. I love this session it just you get a lot of (actual) communication they actually yeah I I I I wish we could have more of these. […] Two-to-one […] them talking to each other and finding out (things) and then I think that kind of evolves into the group work.

As this section has shown, A's choice and implementation of tasks were strongly connected to her cognitions about how students could become more autonomous communicators in English. Tasks were part of a developmental progression that raised students' levels of confidence, enjoyment

and connection with learning and they also offered students opportunities to take greater control

and responsibility for their learning with the support and encouragement of the teacher. A further

element that supported the potential for these tasks to enhance autonomy was through reflection,

something that will be explained in the next section.

6.2.6 Supporting autonomy through reflection

Reflection is considered an important aspect in the development of learner autonomy

because of the effect it can have on raising learners' awareness of their learning generally, and

because this can lead to them taking personal responsibility for planning, monitoring and setting

their own learning goals (Benson, 2011). While an ability to reflect and self-evaluate is considered

a strong indicator of learner autonomy, it is not assumed to be a skill all learners have or can

immediately make use of, and learners often need to be explicitly exposed to it in classrooms

before they can internalise its mechanisms and use it as an independent strategy.

Though student reflection was rarely explicitly mentioned during the interviews with A,

analysis of her cognitions about learner autonomy had revealed the importance of stimulating a

long-lasting desire to continue to learn after the course (see Extract 5.31). During the classroom

observations it became clear how the handouts that A created were designed to do this by helping

students gain critical insights into their performance and learning styles. Reflective opportunities

were regularly offered, with A creating 16 handouts over the course of the semester (not including

parts photocopied from textbooks). Each was unique in that it related directly to a particular task,

with some focused on helping students prepare for an activity (A), some focusing students'

attention during a task and encouraging peer-evaluation or peer-learning opportunities (B) and

others promoting self-evaluation after a task (C). (See Appendices 7-12)

(A) Helping students prepare for an activity

Handouts which students completed as homework prior to a task helped make them aware of the goals and potential outcomes of an activity. This could have helped them to plan and prepare effectively, improving the learning management aspects of their autonomy. There were also prompts that explicitly asked students to set goals:

Extract 6.39 (A Handout Week 12)
Finally, what are your goals for the final presentation? What do you want the audience members to do for you? What will you wear? Any other extra comments.

Extract 6.40 (A Handout Weeks 13-15)
Please write your goals today as an audience member and or presenter (Weeks 13-15).

Helping students set goals for their learning is seen as crucial to developing learner autonomy because it harnesses students' self-evaluation skills and raises their awareness of the time and resources necessary to learn effectively (Little, 2007). In other words, an ability to set realistic, personally relevant goals for learning indicates a learner's strong control over the circumstances in which they learn and a strong understanding of their abilities and weaknesses. Goal setting though requires a point of reference – students need to be able to judge where they are in order to assess where it is realistic to get to. The regularity of the reflective tasks that A introduced benefitted the outcomes of goal-setting as students could think about their next goal by reading their previous reflections on their performance. In this way, the handouts complemented the organisation of the tasks. As explained in section 6.2.3, A developed students' skills with simpler tasks that built up to more challenging work. At the same time, this helped improve students'

confidence. Similarly, reflection on simpler tasks gave students experience of reflective practices that became stronger and deeper as the semester passed and led, A felt, to better work:

Extract 6.41 (A Diary 12)
Handouts have been written out very well compared to the beginning of the semester. The content has become deeper too.

(B) Focusing students' attention during a task and encouraging peer-evaluation or peer-learning opportunities

The handouts which students normally completed while watching their classmates exploited the opportunities for peer learning that have already been identified as a strong aspect of A's cognition system. When combined with other prompts that focused on self-evaluation, students had opportunities to look at their own performance compared to their classmates. It also strengthened the bonds and relationships within the class, as what other students did became an integral part of the work each student did (also see Extract 6.14).

Extract 6.42 (A Handout Week 3)
After listening to the other groups what did you learn?

Extract 6.43 (A Handout Week 6)
What did you learn from them?

Again, A's diary showed how she felt that this approach was successful. During the three weeks of presentations the later students in week 15 had learned from watching and reflecting on the performance of the earlier students the weeks before.

Extract 6.44 (A Diary 15)

By this week most students knew not to read but to try to have eye contact with the audience members, use some gestures and speak loudly. [...] Compared to the first week of presentations the groups had more of an understanding about what was expected. The students watched each other to develop their skills.

(C) Promoting self-evaluation after a task

Those handouts which stimulated self-evaluation were more obviously aimed at helping students understand their learning styles, strengths and weaknesses so they could take greater control of their learning, a central tenet of autonomous practice. Prompts aimed to help students become more aware of how they learned and to notice gaps between what they were trying to do and what they were able to do. Sometimes the prompts were broad (see Extract 6.45 / Appendix 10) but they could also be directed at distinct aspects of a student's performance, as in Extract 6.46 (also see Appendix 11), which has a self-evaluative element, a reflective element and an affective element. Stronger self-evaluation skills also potentially increased confidence by getting students to identify positive things that had made the tasks successful without relying on the judgement of their teacher, thereby addressing issues that A had identified as hindering the development of learner autonomy among her students.

Extract 6.45 (A Handout Weeks 13-15)
How did you do today? (at least 3 sentences)

Extract 6.46 (A Handout Weeks 7-8)
How was your interview? What did you learn? What did you feel? (5 sentences)

Elements were also seen in the mid-semester review survey which all teachers were asked to do (see Appendix 7). Benson (2011) points out that for self-evaluation to be effective it needs to be part of a cycle that allows learners to re-evaluate their progress and goals. It has already been suggested how the regularity of A's reflective handouts created a reflective cycle and the reflection prompt for the final classroom task – the group presentations – further supported this as she drew fully the connections between self-evaluation and future goal setting (also see Appendix 12):

Extract 6.47 (A Handout Week 11)
How did you all do for the practice / presentation? Describe some good
points.
[...]
How did you do today? How were you good? How can you improve?

By the end of the class A's hope, as embodied in the prompt, was that reflection had become a tool which students could comfortably use to impact their future learning and performance. The observations confirmed the importance of the teacher's role generally in training students' reflectivity so as to enhance their autonomy. In A's case reading and commenting on students' reflections also helped her fulfil her role as catalyst for students' ongoing development (see Chapter 5, Extract 5.28). As she explained, by reading their reflections she deepened her understanding of students, which in turn meant she was in a stronger position to give individually directed support to each student's autonomous development:

Extract 6.48 (A Diary 6)
It was busy but I could be more relaxed and help the students proceed to the next steps. It was generally a good class. I was reinforced by the work they handed in that they understood me more

than I thought they did. It is good to have the written works. By reading them I can check and communicate further with each student.

While A clearly felt that students' faculties for reflection had been developed as a result of doing it over and over regularly (see Extract 5.28), whether or not students had sufficiently internalised the reflective processes and strengthened their autonomy is an open question. Though reflection is designed to enable students to evaluate their work without the teacher, A's commentary to students seemed to enhance its effectiveness as it encouraged students to involve themselves more deeply in the reflective processes. This, once again, suggests the importance of the teacher in the development of learner autonomy, especially when students are being introduced to new strategies or techniques. The point is supported by a comment A made after giving students her assessment of their presentations: "The students seemed earnest and interested in hearing what they did well and how they could improve" (Extract 6.49, A Diary 14). Clearly, for A's students the teacher's judgement remained important to them, reiterating points made in the literature (see, for example, Dam, 2011; Farrell & Jacobs, 2010; Nunan, 1988) that autonomous development is a long-term process, and one in which students remain reliant on the teacher even while they develop the skills and strategies to become independent of them.

6.2.7 Supporting autonomy through choice

In more strongly autonomous classrooms students take control of their learning to the extent of choosing both the material they learn and the activities they do. While in weaker set-ups students' choices are more limited, even limited choices are seen as potentially valuable in the development of learner autonomy (see Chapter 2, section 2.6.3).

A's classroom was weakly autonomous in that she chose the activities and retained control

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of the overarching structure of learning, as in the way she used group work. Materials were prescribed by the institutional syllabus, as were the course goals. In spite of these restrictions though, A explained that she gave students choices about content and chances to personalise their responses:

Extract 6.50 (A Interview 4)
They can choose what they write about in their essay they can, in their speaking test they have a choice of questions […] yeah, so I give them certain pools of choices […]

The classroom observations supported what A had said. Normally the tasks that she set led to a specific goal of some form of written or spoken production in English. Sometimes the goal was an official product stated on the syllabus (e.g. the final group presentation) but more often it was decided by A. Consistent with what she said above, the students were generally responsible for choosing the topic and/or content of the final production, thus A created opportunities for using English in personally meaningful ways which can strengthen learner autonomy.

Choice came on a spectrum, with A sometimes offering students complete freedom, but more often limiting them to "pools of choices" as she described. For example, in week 5 when students spoke about their perfect trip, the topic had been narrowed to a particular area; however, within the idea of a "perfect trip" students were free to respond however they wanted. A created a clearly demarcated but nonetheless free space in which students would not be overwhelmed by too many choices. Over time A gradually expanded students' options and for the final presentations groups could choose any topic they wanted. In other words, even if formal and structural elements remained fixed, A tried to shift the locus of control within the classroom so that students took more responsibility, as shown in the way A interacted with her student groups

during the preparation class for final presentations:

Extract 6.51 (A Observation 10)

What is your topic? Did you choose? Did you choose your topic? Still thinking? You have (xxx) ideas (xxx) you have lots of ideas? You have a choice? What did you choose? Azuma San that's your topic? (xxx) My daughter's husband is also Azuma san my family yeah, my daughter married Mr Azuma not this Azuma a different Azuma san yes, do you have a decision? How are you going to compare? How? How will you compare? (xxx)

Here A positioned herself as a friendly interlocutor who showed interest while having a casual conversation about other things. In attending to the classroom environment she was also checking students' progress and helping them share ideas in order to make choices; in other words, true to her cognitions she remained an organising force even when passing responsibility to students. As a result, A felt able to support students in an increasingly deeper process of research and preparation:

Extract 6.52 (A Diary 10)

I was satisfied. I felt like I was there to help the students come up with topic choices that they liked. When one is interested hopefully research and preparation will become a deeper process for good results.

And so A confirmed the connections in her cognition systems between her role supporting learner autonomy within the learning environment she had created, and the involvement of students more deeply in their work with resulting higher achievement.

Section 6.2 has shown how A used a variety of activities, tasks and strategies in her classroom practice which together combined to form a cohesive and coherently identifiable

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approach to developing her students' learner autonomy that was in-line with her stated cognitions. The next section considers A's approach to autonomy through code-switching.

6.3 Supporting autonomy through code-switching

6.3.1 Introduction

As outlined in the previous chapter, A held positive cognitions about students using the L1 in the classroom believing that code-switching enhanced the depth of discussion and potentially gave students a tool that would benefit them in their futures (see Chapter 5, section 5.6). A had linked this to her own bilingual ability. On the other hand, though she was bilingual, she explained how she tried to hide her Japanese ability because she thought students would only use the L1 with her if they could, and therefore lose an opportunity to become more confident using English and enhancing their autonomy (see Chapter 5, section 5.6.2). Classroom observations supported these different cognitions although also revealed how they were subject to the tensions of real classroom situations with students of varying degrees of autonomy.

6.3.2 Code-switching

In her week 10 diary, following a successful class in which students worked together in groups preparing for their presentations, A reiterated her cognitions about code-switching and their foundations in her own personal language learning experience. She explained that when students used Japanese the communication became smoother because students had greater confidence in what they were saying, just as A could speak 'true inner thoughts' when having access to both languages simultaneously. In noting this A alluded to the risk of being misunderstood when speaking an L2, something that Macaro (2008) notes is an affective bar to

learners developing autonomy in the classroom.

Extract 6.53 (A Diary 10)

A very free time to promote questions and team organisation. [...] The free time I think allowed the teams to come together. There seemed to be some other unrelated talk but basicly [sic] the students took time to prepare their presentation plan. [...] The students had the opportunity to listen to a lot of explanation in English. They also had the opportunity to ask questions to clarify the directions to plan and prepare their final presentations. Some students were communicating to each other using some English. A relaxed situation to speak English or Japanese I believe promotes teamwork and the in flow of languages. It makes communication smooth. Being bilingual I can understand this notion. When I am allowed to speak both at the same time it promotes freedom of thought and a comfortable feeling about speaking out the true inner thoughts. I believe this freedom at times develops higher language skills instead of forcing students to only speak one language. Language becomes global and it feels borderless [...] the brain takes in new sounds and ways of communication. Raised in this kind of environment, raising children and a grandchild in this kind of environment I know that one can begin to speak two or more languages comfortably. [...] I was satisfied.

A's overall classroom orientation towards enhancing students' autonomy was clearly illustrated in this passage. Though A mentioned that some students were using English with each other and that they listened and communicated to her in English, the real focus of her satisfaction was the overall learning environment in which students were code-switching effectively while largely remaining on-topic. The "relaxed situation" created by L1-L2 use led to better teamwork and the freedom she gave them in their groups suggested to her that learning was taking place which, based on her cognitions, would produce "higher language skills" and better prepare students for global challenges (see Chapter 5, Extract 5.16). In short, students using the L2 together was only one of several elements that made the class successful for A because it suggested to her how her teaching was developing students' autonomy. Again, A's central concern, and how she judged her

own success, was the overall development of students as learners rather than a narrow focus on improved language skills or use.

If this extract shows A's ideal-oriented cognitions being easily played out in the classroom, there were times when A was disappointed by students, such as the incident when she had to intervene to stop a student speaking off topic in Japanese (see Extract 6.12) or when students wasted time (see Extract 6.24). Throughout the semester A remained aware of the precarious nature of students' commitment to using the L1. As she noted in interviews, sometimes students avoided using English for tasks that they were capable of doing (see Extract 5.49) and her instructions to students seemed to reflect this awareness. For example, here she encouraged students to try to use English first while not prohibiting Japanese:

Extract 6.54 (A Observation 9)
So please work a little bit if you have any questions er please ask me. Try to s- communicate in English as best as possible and a little Japanese okay.

In other words, the classroom environment that A presented to students was one in which the L2 should be the default language, and code-switching was never explicitly presented to learners as a strategy they could use even if A was clearly pleased when they did. The reason for this appeared to be the risk that students would misunderstand or be unable to self-regulate their L1 use and only use the L1. Instead, code-switching was promoted as a natural outcome of A's use of group work, her soft approach, her star system which encouraged English while not penalising Japanese, and her monitoring of off topic L1 use. The success of the week 10 class illustrated how the different aspects of A's classroom practice combined to successfully support students' autonomous development.

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6.3.3 Use of the L2

The other strong language cognition that A held was that students should only use the L2 with her. Though in interviews A had explained that she hid her Japanese ability, the observations directly contradicted this. For example, during her explanations A often translated English words into Japanese (for example, see Extract 6.14) and in the first week of the observed class when a student asked her if she could speak Japanese she admitted she could:

Extract 6.55 (A Interview 1)

S: Do you speak other languages?

A: Yes, I would say I speak two and a half languages my first language because my mother was Japanese the first language I spoke was Japanese [...] but please speak to me in English because I will not speak I hardly ever speak Japanese at [University Name] because I have to encourage you to speak English and if I speak Japanese most probably you will speak to me in Japanese okay yes.

So though A may have in principle "hid" her Japanese ability, in reality this was not the case. Contrary to the lack of explanation to students for allowing code-switching, here A explains why she will only speak to them in English, citing her role and responsibility and also their tendency to rely on Japanese when speaking with her. Though in this case she did not hide her Japanese ability, she remained true to her cognitions in that she was strict about making the students use English with her, as in the following example:

Extract 6.56 (A Observation 2)

A: Do you have any questions about the homework? Yes.

S: Japanese okay?

A: No in English please [classmates laugh] try, you can all speak English very well I found

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out today from your introductions.

This extract supported the point A made in interviews about students only using the L1 with her if they knew she spoke Japanese and suggested that her cognitions about her students were accurate. The extract supports my contention that A's practice was one that was finely adjusted to her students' needs in terms of developing their autonomy because her cognitions accurately predicted her students' behaviour and it offers further evidence of the convergence between her cognitions and practice. A's response, polite but firm encouragement that the student try to use English, also supported the "softness" that she had described (see Chapter 5, Extract 5.23). While generally encouraging the individual students, she praised the whole class in an attempt to raise their awareness of their ability and to give them confidence, because as she had made clear, this for her was the foundation for autonomous growth (see Chapter 5, Extract 5.41).

6.4 Institutional constraints

6.4.1 Introduction

The sections up to now have shown how A's cognitions about learner autonomy played out in the reality of the classroom environment. Evidence has been presented from observations and diaries that confirms how A taught in line with her cognitions about learner autonomy and why she felt her approach was successful. By and large, the framework of A's cognitions about learner autonomy seemed to find a fair and true reflection in her practice. Moreover, to an outsider, how A taught would have appeared to be unconstrained because she was able to work with her students in her chosen mode, involving them in tasks that she believed would enhance their autonomy by giving them greater confidence, deeper understanding and more enjoyment.

However, as Benson points out, "the teacher's role in planning and assessment is invariably constrained by external tests and curriculum guidelines" (Benson, 2011, p. 172), and, as was argued in Chapter 5, section 5.2, A was no less subject to these constraints. Thus, the above largely harmonious picture of A teaching in accordance with her stated cognitions would be incomplete without the next section which will create an understanding of how her agenda for autonomy was continually being pulled and challenged by the institutional agenda which had no such focus on autonomy. It will also show the effect of her personal obligations to the institution borne of her professional beliefs (see Chapter 5, section 5.3.2), and finally how her cognition about teachers' freedom to interpret (see Chapter 5, Extract 5.6) meant she prioritised her own agenda over the institutional one.

6.4.2 Interpreting the syllabus and textbook

The syllabus contained a brief description of the course, the course goals, the assessment weighting for each goal, a fifteen-week timetable and also listed the materials to be used in the course (see Appendix 1). As described earlier, A's professional cognitions created for her an obligation to follow the syllabus. However, A's diary revealed how she diverged from what it stated should be done. As early as week 3 A was "behind":

Extract 6.57 (A Diary 3)
I am one week behind. I should be on "Traffic Jams" according to the syllabus but I took more time for self-introductions last week so today I will go further into the first unit "First Impressions" and related materials. Going into the text is written on the syllabus but my pace is slightly different.

A explained that she was behind where the syllabus stated she should be because of a decision

she had made to extend the time for the self-introduction activity, one that gave each student the opportunity to speak in front of the whole class, something that she felt would give them power, confidence and increase their autonomy. She also noted how her pace was different, reminding us of the professional cognition that she held about teachers being professionals who should be given responsibility and trusted to teach by their institution. There was no sense of concern with what she was doing at this point. Later though, it became clear how the lost time at the beginning of the course was going to make it hard to catch up with the textbook. As a result, the syllabus changed from being a guide (see Chapter 5, Extract 5.6) to a constraint that, compounded by time, resulted in a struggle between fulfilling the institutional goals and maintaining the classroom practice of her own agenda for autonomy that reflected her cognitions, as shown here:

Extract 6.58 (A Diary 8)
Week 8 is supposed to be for practicing presentations [institutional agenda] but instead I took this time to finish skills test [A's agenda (also see section 6.2.4)] and gave some assignments related to presentations. I will have to extend presentation practice time [A's agenda]. I am wondering how to get back into the textbook [institutional agenda]. I am running out of time and finding it difficult to fit everything in.

This is one example of several occasions when A showed her concern with being out of sync with the syllabus in an illustration of the active, and difficult, decision making that teachers are involved in when their cognitions and the demands of the institution do not align. In the absence of strong administrative oversight (see Chapter 3 for a description of the university faculty), A would have been highly unlikely to get into trouble for not "fitting everything in"; on the other hand, that the concern remained an active, nagging influence underlines the importance of her professional cognitions on her decisions about fostering autonomy that was argued in the previous

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chapter.

While A readily acknowledged that she was not following the fifteen-week timetable, she made efforts to catch up so that the last three weeks at least would be as was stated on the syllabus:

Extract 6.59 (A Diary 12)
I am still not following the syllabus […] but in a way I worked from the book so I feel like I am not completely off. From next week we will enter presentations like the syllabus states for 3 last weeks.

The tone of the diary revealed the slight sense of unease at not being in sync with the timetable but this was mitigated by her working from the textbook. In other words, both the prescribed material and the syllabus were symbolic of the institution and in acting in accordance with at least one of them she felt that she remained loyal to the community of practice to which she belonged.

The textbook though presented its own problems in terms of A's cognitions about learner autonomy. As part of the syllabus, its use represented an obligation, one that A's professional beliefs made her beholden to. On the other hand, it represented a vision of learning that did not accord with her cognitions about developing students' autonomy because the types of exercises it presented for communication were unsatisfying and did not promote opportunities for students to act autonomously by voicing their own language and ideas (see Extract 5.45).

Yet, as argued in Chapter 5, A found a way to accommodate both her own agenda that favoured freer, more personal interaction that she felt led to deeper learning and enjoyment while completing the syllabus requirements. The way that she did this was through an interpretation of the textbook that meant she could fit it into her activities, although perhaps a little unwillingly as can be seen when A explained how she took some of the topics from it for writing tasks:

Extract 6.60 (A Interview 4)

I give them a choice from themes that kind of come from their textbook *because we have the textbook* [...][my italics]

Following on from this she then made the point that her preferred classroom practice would be to let students choose their topic, something that it could be suggested would be more likely to promote autonomy:

[...] but if I if we didn't have the textbook I would have them write about what they're interested in.

Whether giving students a completely free choice or a more limited one, both had the potential to impact students' autonomy in some way. But the difference is not trivial because it shows how the institutional agenda had affected A's practice in a constraining way and possibly limited her ability to promote autonomy to the extent or in the way she wanted to because, as A implied, students might not have been interested in the textbook topics.

In this way, the textbook was repurposed from its intended use within the institutional agenda of promoting discussion (see Chapter 3, section 3.4.3 and Appendix 11), to supporting learner autonomy within A's agenda. Another example came in weeks seven, eight and part of nine when four units from the textbook were used as material for written work that A set students to do while the interview skills tests took place. A commented in her diary about the relationship between her and her students that the skills tests were when she felt "we are communicating" (see Extract 6.35). This seems to be another clear example of the manner in which A's agenda took precedence over the institutional one. By organising tasks in this way A could devote two and half

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classes to an activity that encouraged both student preparation and deeper and more genuine communication, while simultaneously covering parts of the textbook, even though these parts were not being used in the intended "communicative" way. In this way, A's support for student autonomy was preserved while she still felt she acted according to her professional cognitions.

Over the semester the textbook became increasingly relegated to the peripheries of A's practice as time was taken up by other activities, particularly group work. However, as can be found in the following extract, A remained concerned by her divergence from the syllabus, and wanted to complete it even if she was not confident she could:

Extract 6.61 (A Diary 9)
I am not doing text book work like the syllabus states. I just use the text as a reference at this point. I feel I have to go back into the text a little bit more but when? There are so many things we have to accomplish. Maybe I take too much time on certain things? I feel when time is given to certain activities even though it seems we are going too slow I see that the students are getting more comfortable with each other and me. For group presentation this atmosphere gives a better foundation for teamwork. I may plan another listening quiz using the dialogue listening from the text. Lets (sic) see.

In the classes before this diary entry the "certain activities" A had been doing were the skills tests which combined the different strands of her cognitions about raising students' autonomy. As she pointed out, by doing them there were tangible effects on the students that included better relationships within the classroom and a better atmosphere, both conditions that formed key pillars in A's cognition about how to improve learner autonomy. It was no surprise therefore that she was reluctant to go back to the textbook, although in a nod to her professional obligations she did at least consider the possibility of using it for a "listening quiz", which, in itself, was another example of how it was repurposed to fit into her agenda.

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By the end of the course A had covered elements of seven of the eight units stated on the syllabus but not to promote speaking and communication. Instead, A used it for listening tests, paragraph / presentation topics and for her self-made worksheets that promoted autonomy as she wanted to do it. So while A had exhibited broadly positive cognitions about some central coordination of textbooks and syllabuses (see Chapter 5, Extract 5.5), in reality her authority as a teacher to interpret classes so that they followed her agenda for learner autonomy was stronger, especially when faced with evidence that suggested to her that her approach was working.

This illustrates the complex interaction of A's cognitions and the institutional agenda, which were competing for limited class time, and how the resulting accommodation of both affected her students. Though A's interpretation of the syllabus could be termed a form of resistance to the institution, there is no suggestion that A considered it in this way. She was, after all, aware of her obligation to fulfil the syllabus as shown by her numerous diary entries and she often suggested in her diaries that she would have preferred to be more in line with it. Professionally, the reinterpretation of the textbook through her own handouts to support the development of learner autonomy through group work, reflection, evaluation and goal-setting was part of her teacher's authority according to her professional cognitions and did not set her outside of the community of practice to which she belonged.

Nevertheless, events over the 15-week course indicate a clear prioritisation of A's own agenda based on her cognitions about how best to support learner autonomy that meant students would continue to study after the course. The institutional agenda was secondary, although it was never rejected.

What this points to is how the trust that A demanded and received from her institution as a professional instilled in her the belief that she had an authority to interpret the syllabus in a way

that was best for her students (see Chapter 5, section 5.3.2). A's case as a whole exemplifies two opposite takes on the same point made in the literature on autonomy: Benson's (2011) suggestion that institutions will naturally restrict how much teachers can incorporate learner autonomy in their classrooms and Little's (2007) argument that how much syllabuses restrict autonomy is up to the teacher.

6.5 Chapter summary

Chapter 6 has attempted to show the ways in which reality shaped and interacted with the cognition system that A had revealed in interviews. It has made the argument that A's classroom practice strongly reflected her cognitions about autonomy but also revealed how there were underlying tensions that affected the way in which she could promote it in the observed class. The main findings from A's case will be put forward in Chapter 9 after Chapters 7 and 8 which will focus on B's cognitions and practice.

Chapter 7: Case B Part 1 (Cognitions)

7.1 Introduction

The primary aim of this chapter is to show the key components of B's cognitive system that underpinned his classroom practice identified as fostering learner autonomy, the details of which will be illustrated in the chapter that follows this one. These include B's beliefs about his classroom role and approach, those about his students and his understanding of Japanese culture based on his experiences. These beliefs all shaped how he tried to help his students develop autonomy. The chapter will also include a section discussing his professional beliefs and their importance.

Though the data on A and B were collected contemporaneously, as explained earlier the analysis was done at different times (see Chapter 4, section 4.4). This allowed for a deeper, more concentrated focus on each data set but resulted in different ways of organising the findings for each case. As a result, though mostly the same topics as A are covered in the two chapters focusing on B, the sub-titles within each chapter are slightly different, while the positioning of B's professional cognitions is later in the chapter for reasons which will be given in the section.

The chapter starts by showing how, like A, despite being disconnected from the literature on learner autonomy in language teaching, B held strong cognitions about language learning that were consistent with an approach that sought to improve his students' control of their learning. There follow separate discussions of the roles he adopted in class, how his classroom represented a weakly autonomous classroom and finally how he tried to help raise students' learner autonomy through raising their desire and motivation to study.

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As noted in Chapter 2, cognition systems are complex, dynamic and often tacit, thereby requiring careful unpicking by any researcher who seeks to uncover their structure and influence on practice. It seems useful to point out how in descriptions of his cognition system, B referred a lot to his experience teaching Japanese students in Japan with the conclusion that his adapted ideal-oriented cognitions about language learning generally were adapted into reality-oriented ones that were more relevant and effective to teaching in Japan at the tertiary level. Furthermore, the chapter notes that important factors in enabling this moulding of cognitions included B's empathy for his learners and his own experience learning Japanese as an adult. In a direct contradiction of the literature which commonly cites Lortie's (1975) apprenticeship of observation as being a key influence on a teacher's practice, in interviews B strongly disavowed this influence, claiming not to remember anything about his language learning experience at secondary school.

7.2 B's hidden cognitions

Though learner autonomy has for thirty years increasingly become an area of interest among language education researchers, a point made in the literature is that it is neither new nor unfamiliar to teachers as a practice (Benson, 2011) or more cynically that it is adopted by teachers because of a feeling of powerlessness in challenging classrooms (Dörnyei, 1995). Indeed, some of those writing for practitioners (for example, Harmer, 2007) argue that learner autonomy is a natural goal of every teacher, and by implication is therefore difficult for practitioners to be completely divorced from or unaware of.

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As a concept though it is hard to pin down (as noted in Chapter 2, section 2.6), and can appear remote to teachers who might do things in class that align their practice with the development of learner autonomy even though they do not identify it as such. Both A and B had similar positions with regard to their understanding of learner autonomy. Unlike A though, B was able to guess the qualities that might be expected of autonomy in education, as shown in an early interview:

Extract 7.1 (B Interview 2)
I don't know anything about theories of autonomy it's not something I've read much on or researched anything on erm so basically to me the meaning of autonomy in education just arrives from my general understanding the word which is I suppose you'd say semi-independence [...] I suspect in educational terms it's used interchangeably with independent learning.

B's contention that autonomy in education is synonymous with independent learning is one that was pervasive in the early days of research into learner autonomy (for example, Dickinson, 1987) but was debunked early on (for example, Benson & Voller, 1997; also see Chapter 2, section 2.6.1). However, in spite of the more nuanced understanding of learner autonomy as being a collaboration which gives learners greater control of their learning (for example, Little, 1995), this still implies that independence as a learner remains a strong goal of learner autonomy and so B's understanding of learner autonomy as being "semi-independence" as stated above retains a strong association with current thinking. Other comments B made support the argument that his cognitions about language learning were strongly consistent with learner autonomy; for example, he made the following comment on the positive role that

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institutional learning could have on creating conditions that would enhance a learner's motivation, which he identified as "key" to a learner becoming autonomous.

Extract 7.2 (B Interview 2)

I think that I think the key to be auton- autonomous as a learner is motivation basically I think erm if you have sufficient mo- motivation to study by yourself then you will become autonomous or if you're or if sufficient motivation is imparted to you by somebody else [...] probably a teacher but not necessarily I mean it could be a classmate or purely an acquaintance or I mean it might just be your experience rather than by rather than a third party I suppose but if somehow you gain the motivation to study outside of a class then I guess that's autonomy.

This extract emphasises B's close attention to the psychological elements of a learner's experience that formed a key part of his cognition system and his classroom practice and which is a major focus of this thesis because it connects B's cognitions to the psychological (Benson, 2011) or desire (Benson, 2012) element of Benson's three-part definition of learner autonomy, in which a learner's own willingness to learn is the natural starting point for the development of learner autonomy (see Chapter 2, section 2.6.1). Though B agreed with Benson that autonomy had to start from the learners themselves, he also acknowledged Little (1995) and others' argument that autonomy equally resides in collaboration that itself alludes to Vygotskian theories of peer learning, most notably the Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD). This can be seen when he noted how motivation could be fostered as a result of a learner's involvement with other people who would "probably [be] a teacher" but who could also be a classmate or even an experience, with the final goal of gaining "the motivation to study outside of a class". Further explicit support for this cognition came in the following extract in which B notes the importance of student relationships for effective group work. Group work is strongly

and regularly linked to promoting learner autonomy (see Chapter 2, section 2.6.4) and, like A, B used it and pair work a lot as will be shown in the following chapter (see Chapter 8, section 8.2.2).

Extract 7.3 (B Interview 2)
my classes are based largely on group work erm so the relationship between the students becomes much more important.

In short, these extracts show how B could clearly conceptualise autonomy despite not knowing about the mainstream literature, and at the same time how closely his understanding aligned with it.

So far, several things have been suggested regarding B's cognitions about autonomy: it was closely linked to motivation and a learner's psychological connection to their learning, and classroom learning involving a motivational other or experience could lead to independent, out-of-class learning. However, it is the following extract in which B made clear how the enhancement of learners' autonomy was a key part of his teaching practice that confirmed the link between his cognitions about learner autonomy and the goals of his classroom practice. B's commentary, in response to the researcher's question "So what do you think the point of the lessons that we have with our students say CW1... or CW3 ... when you go in what do you think?...What are we trying to do here?" was strong and explicit:

Extract 7.4 (B Interview 2)
the most important thing with the classes I teach is when the students finish that class they want to continue studying English [...] So for me more important than any language study they learn within our classes is the fact that they might leave and hope to continue English of their own volition.

B's comments on the learner outcomes he hoped for accord with Benson's (2012, p. 18) identification of "desire" that is "the learner's intention, or 'wish' to learn a language or carry out a particular learning task and it is assumed to be informed by particular purposes". Though Benson is careful to distinguish desire from motivation on account of it being a "more complex construct", nonetheless, B's stated hope that students "might leave and […] continue English of their own volition" seems synonymous with Benson's notion of "desire" even while B used the word motivation.

In the above extract, B confirms the positive effect he believed his organisation of classroom learning could have on students' psychological relationship to their own learning that would lead to greater autonomy, a link commonly made in the literature when discussing a teacher's classroom roles (see Chapter 2, section 2.6.4). However, he also made a crucial statement about the goal of his classes that made clear improved language learning was less important for him (though it remained a teaching goal) than his students gaining a stronger psychological connection to the language, something that is one way of developing students' "capacity to take control over learning" (Benson, 2011, p. 61). This seemed to be evidence of an intention to give learners greater control over their learning.

As this section has made clear, without being fully aware of the close relationship or making the link between how he styled his classes and the literature on learner autonomy, the way in which B described the aims of his teaching and his beliefs about the purposes was strongly indicative of the promotion of learner autonomy, especially in the way he prioritised students' connection to the language and increased desire to learn (much like A did) more than increased ability through "language study".

7.3 B's roles

The following section explains the roles that B suggested or implied in interviews that he adopted in the classroom. Unlike A, who often cited specific roles she felt she played in the classroom, B tended to display knowledge and recount experiences that meant it was necessary for the researcher to uncover and label the roles he played. The foundations for B's cognitions about the importance of developing learner autonomy in his classroom, rather than language ability, were revealed in the following extract from Interview 2 in which he explained how it was rooted in his experiences teaching in Japan:

Extract 7.5 (B Interview 2)
I've met so many people in Japan who said they hated their university English classes. [...] Erm and who once they finish university their ard- ardent desire was never to have to study English again [...] Erm whatever they've learned in those two years, even if they've learned a hell of a lot, it's meaningless if they suddenly, if they've disliked the experience so much that they basically never want to do English again.

B's belief that any gains in English ability were "meaningless" if students did not continue with learning English after the course again reinforced the strong affinity his cognition system has with the literature on learner autonomy, which argues about the importance of developing students' autonomy in class in order for them to take control of their future language learning outside and beyond. It also provides a context for the overlapping roles of motivator, organiser or classroom manager, and guide, which were identified through analysis of B's interviews, particularly of his view of his students' abilities, levels of motivation or desire, and their needs.

The literature identifies a variety of roles which a teacher commonly adopts in order to foster learner autonomy in the classroom (see Chapter 2, section 2.6.4). As explained, B did

not generally label the roles he adopted in the classroom. This meant that their identification and categorisation was more challenging than in A's data. However, it was clear through how he described his practice that he acted to different degrees as motivator, organiser or classroom manager, and guide (see Chapter 8). B had other important traits such as being empathetic, sensitive and culturally aware of the kinds of challenges Japanese university students would experience that contributed to his playing of the roles, more of which will be illustrated below.

For example, in the following extract, B sets himself up as an organiser or classroom manager with his clear ideas about the best use of class time. In the extract, he notes how outside of class students did not get much time to communicate in English and therefore he believes the class should be organised to allow for "opportunities for direct personal face to face communication which can't be done [...] as effectively outside the classroom":

Extract 7.6 (B Interview 2)
I think that they [students] have a limited amount of class time and that should be used for things that can't be done outside of class [...] to me the best use of class time is to make use of the immediate personal op- opportunities for direct personal face to face communication which can't be done effectively out- as effectively outside the classroom

In the above extract, at the same time as identifying the limited class time which students had and the importance of using it for aspects of language learning which students would not have opportunities for outside of the classroom, B expanded on the primary goal of his teaching practice as being to motivate learners by suggesting this is best done through "direct personal face to face communication", a contention he supported with a cognition in Interview 2 when he stated:

Extract 7.7 (B Interview 2)

I think most people enjoy communicating per se, don't they?

While identifying face to face communication as containing an intrinsically enjoyable quality that would therefore benefit B's primary goal of raising students' motivation or desire, he also identified some obstructive qualities amongst most his students that meant they "avoid speaking as much as possible":

Extract 7.8 (B Interview 3)

I've often found a majority well certainly their first inclination is to just to sit back and avoid speaking as much as possible. Now of course that doesn't necessarily mean they don't want to talk, maybe they're just shy and lack confidence and when they get a bit more confidence then perhaps they do want to erm so maybe one of our biggest roles is how to bring that out of them I suppose.

While not exactly knowing why students might not be willing to talk, B could identify several factors such as shyness or lack of confidence, motivation or desire and, by implication, laziness. In recognising the obstacles to many of his students' development of their learner autonomy because of their lack of willingness to contribute, B implies how this made his teacher role, particularly as an organiser of learning, much more important. And in suggesting that "one of our biggest roles is how to bring that out of them" it seems B was alluding to a motivational role that would help them overcome whatever barriers they might have to talking and getting them to communicate.

As already discussed in Chapter 5 as an aspect of A's cognitions, using group and pair work is often cited in the literature as a simple way to encourage learner autonomy in the

classroom (also see Chapter 2, section 2.6.5), though it also has strong associations with a communicative classroom (something that could also be said of learner autonomy itself) because it "provides a basis for language acquisition" (Hedge, 2000, p. 62). B explicitly recognised the positive effects of group work on communication and language acquisition in the following extract from interview 2 when explaining his approach to the portion of the CW course which was devoted to writing:

Extract 7.9 (B Interview 2)

[...] I very rarely do any actual writing in class and when I do writing I try to make it in some way an activity in which oral communication can be incorporated so for example [...] rather than getting everyone to write their own topic sentence for the paragraph where it's missing I get I make I make them do it as a group and make them negotiate and agree on the best topic sentence and write it together and obviously, they're supposed to be doing that in English.

It is indisputable that group work was for B a means to increase communicative opportunities in class; however, as has already been shown, learner autonomy, not increased communicative competence, was his primary classroom goal. Oral communication, something B believed was intrinsically enjoyable (see Chapter 7, Extract 7.7), aided that goal. Group work fitted into his overall goal for the classroom, which was for students to enjoy learning to the point that they would continue to do so on their own after the end of the class (see Chapter 7, Extract 7.4).

Hedge (2000, p. 62) makes the point about group work that:

Building cohesiveness within the group is clearly an important managerial role for the teacher. It can be at least partially achieved through attention to seating arrangements, through a progressive introduction of interaction activities from simple pair work on a short task to more complex role-play activities, through training learners in peer feedback and introducing unfamiliar activities gradually.

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As will be shown in Chapter 8, section 8.2, Hedge's suggested managerial roles were almost all taken up by B during the observed classes reflecting the importance of group work to him.

Another role that B adopted was that of disciplinarian, one that might naturally be assumed to be part of a managerial or organisational role anyway, but one that B seemed to adopt in response to the needs of his students. For example, as shown in Extracts 7.10 and 7.11, B recognised that his students in his Japanese context were unready to plan, carry out and evaluate their own learning. His comment at the end of Extract 7.8 suggests how he believed it was his and other teachers' roles to help students develop strategies to gain greater control over their learning (see Chapter 8, section 8.4). This is a further example of how B's cognitions had developed through a Japanese filter and how his experiences teaching in Japan had not simply led to a secondary layer of reality-oriented cognitions being added to or reshaping his ideal-oriented ones, but also, as will be shown later (see Chapter 8, section 8.4.2; Appendices 13-14) how they had been codified into a set of rules and guiding principles for learning which, in the first class of every course, B tried to instil in his students. In this regard, B, as an organiser or classroom manager, seemed to be taking up Dam's (2011, p. 41) challenge to teachers to support students to make them "willing to take over the responsibility for planning their own learning, for carrying out the plans and for evaluating the outcome".

When asked about the thinking which underpinned the class rules that he set and explained in the first class he responded that for him the rules created an effective and efficient classroom environment in which all students could benefit whether they were strongly motivated to learn a language or not:

Extract 7.10 (B Interview 2)

I think the practical things that seem like rules I think those things may overall they make the class more enjoyable for everybody definitely, because the things that I focus on getting out of the classroom like mobile phones going off and students wandering la- in late all the time are disruptive for the students who do want to study and I think a lot of the students want to study and they want to learn but they don't want to give the impression that they do because it's not cool. So if you kind of take that out of the equation they don't have the choice in whether or not they can look cool or not because they're going to fail if they wan- if they feel like wandering in late or not speaking English then ultimately they'll actually appreciate it and enjoy it more even though they might want to give the impressions that this is a stupid rule.

Notably in this extract, B recognises and confirms the presence of motivated students who did want to learn something, which will be further discussed in the next section. Moreover, because his students may not have felt comfortable explicitly showing their desire for learning, it was even more important that B took control of the classroom environment and organised it so that learning would be efficient and effective.

7.4 B's classroom approach

As has been shown, enjoyable communication opportunities were B's favoured mode of raising students' autonomy. However, with time being limited and students often unwilling to talk, B would need to organise his students so as to maximise and facilitate communicative opportunities that he believed would lead to greater learner autonomy, something that suggests that B considered the classroom as one suitable only for weak or narrow versions of learner autonomy (see Chapter 2, section 2.6.3), something B confirmed himself in the first interview when he explained the deliberate teacher-led position that he adopted in class:

Extract 7.11 (B Interview 1)

At the level that I'm teaching at it's generally going to be teacher-led anyway.

Quite what was meant by "level" was, unfortunately, not further explored at the time, an oversight on the part of the researcher; however, aside from the obvious meaning which might be taken to indicate linguistic ability, in the next interview, B painted a picture of a new university student with very little control or understanding of the direction their language learning was taking and without any notion of why they were learning. In other words, a clear indication of students without goals, who had very little control over their language learning and could be therefore defined as having low levels of autonomy (also see section 7.5). This identification of students again suggested how B would be likely to adopt a more controlling, managerial role in a weakly autonomous classroom:

Extract 7.12 (B Interview 2)

I think a lot of students when they come into university they actually they just don't know [...] what to expect from university English class [...] the impression I get is that a lot of them expect it to be a continuation of high school style English classes. A lot more reading, a lot more grammar and using Japanese in class is a norm [...] erm sometimes I ask I have I think in the past got them to maybe brainstorm what they think they might be doing in the class I think I've done that sometimes but I don't do it regularly usually I just tell them what we're going to do [laughs].

From B's comments it can be inferred that he generally considered his students to have low levels of autonomy that necessitated strong teacher control and guidance in the classroom, and regular teacher intervention to regulate use of the L1 and L2. Though this seems contradictory to the tenet of giving students greater control over their learning, this would only be true in a

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strongly autonomous classroom setting. As has been explained, teacher control is desirable in weakly autonomous classrooms, and B's above comment that, "usually I just tell them what we're going to do" seemed to confirm that this was how he considered his teaching domain. Thus, B identified his classes as being only weakly autonomous with greater control of their learning offered to students in a teacher-controlled way that promoted positive classroom experiences that would enhance motivation and the desire to continue to learn outside of class thereby improving learner autonomy overall.

Interestingly, B's view in Extract 7.12 that students' lacked learning goals is in contrast to A who felt some of her students had "really pretty deep goals" (see Chapter 5, Extract 5.13). In a much later interview, B further added to the image he held of students with low levels of learner autonomy when he explained why he never considered asking students about their learning goals, a key aspect of developing learner autonomy that B explicitly rejected. Again, his rejection of what is orthodox thinking in terms of learner autonomy was a rejection specific to his Japanese teaching context rather than a rejection *per se* of the idea of getting students to set their own goals:

Extract 7.13 (B Interview 4)
I'd be very surprised if first-year university students had sufficiently specific goals that it would make that I it would give me any opportunity to change how I er conducted the class

That incoming first-year university students would automatically consider that "using Japanese in class is a norm" (see Extract 7.12) was clearly a direct challenge to B's previously-mentioned focus on creating English communicative opportunities for his students during class time. This

gave a clear rationale for not only B's retention of strong teacher control in the classroom but also his attempts to help students acclimatise to his classroom expectations through clear rules and guidelines (see Extract 7.10), which as Dam (1995, 2011) amongst others makes clear is a starting point for the successful implementation of autonomous practice in classroom settings.

Another reason for implementing rules and retaining strict control was to discourage negative behaviours that B had observed amongst his students. For instance, he noted that for

Extract 7.14 (B Interview 2)
many students their immediate motivation is to make their immediate task easier […] I mean not all of them particularly care about the long-term language acquisition.

Here, once again, B identified a pattern of thinking across some parts of the student body that implied to B their low autonomy in terms of desire, and more importantly an attitude that would work to undermine the goal of tasks undertaken in class, not to mention potentially damage the classroom environment in which learning for B was "a cooperative venture between all the members" (Extract 7.15 B Interview 2).

As B noted above, the rules he dictated were to help those of his students who did want to study and he set them primarily to control and minimise any negative impact of behaviour by students who did not want to.

If the prevailing cognition that B held about his students' autonomy was that it was low, this was certainly not universal. In fact, B identified what he described as 'class leaders', who not only reflected what B considered to be the ideal university student, but also played an important role in fostering learner autonomy throughout the classroom because of their capacity to influence and even galvanise other students by being "willing to answer" questions

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and not be "sitting in silence". In the following extract, B described the type of student he wanted to have in his class, which created an image of a student who had a higher level of autonomy because they already displayed the qualities that B believed would aid communication and learning. In short, these students contributed to B's vision of an interactive and enjoyable classroom environment and learning as a "cooperative venture" as he explained:

Extract 7.16 (B Interview 3)

Mmm I think the most important thing for me is the attitude of the students erm if I have a class where people are is it's about willingness to speak I think for me erm and I mean we- other things more peripheral things like coming on time and doing the homework on time (sort of things) so I don't have to think about trivia that I think I shouldn't have to think about at university level erm but that's not so important. Really the most important thing for me is it's not a real struggle to get students talking they want to speak English and when I ask a question there are people willing to answer, not everyone sitting in silence although they know the answer full well. Those are the sort of things I don't like in a class and things that make me think, oh god I've got to go and teach these useless losers today.

As shown in the two preceding sections above, careful analysis of B's interviews suggested how he adopted multiple overlapping roles in order to promote learner autonomy using a weakly autonomous approach in the classroom. These were based on a combination of his beliefs about language learning at universities, his experiences teaching his own students and talking to ex-university students and behavioural traits that meant B identified his students as generally having low existing autonomy, which meant that he would have to regulate and organise the classroom, in what the observations of his practice confirmed was probably his major role (see Chapter 8, section 8.2).

Students' unwillingness to speak, as noted above, was for B a common trait amongst his students that he had identified as being an obstacle to learning and for which he adopted a

motivational role. This shows B's empathetic character and hinted at the type of classroom environment that he would try to cultivate in practice. Other traits were identified in interviews that illustrated his empathy and cultural sensitivity that influenced his ideal-oriented cognitions about learning a language and helped him adapt his teaching to make it culturally appropriate for the Japanese context. One clear example is his avoidance of 'spotlighting' students by singling out an individual to answer a question in front of the whole class:

Extract 7.17 (B Interview 4)
I think you should be able to ask somebody something and if they (say) well sorry I don't know well big deal who cares erm but y- obviously it is a big deal to some people partic- well I don't know about particularly in Japan so people say particularly in Japan […] I do kind of think it's a shame that I can't just say okay right A what what's your answer for this and if A doesn't know then it's it's not a problem [...] in some of the other classes there's er there's a few people who I think y- oh yeah if I you know if I ask him something and he doesn't know and he sits there for two minutes saying nothing, which he will, then he's going to feel stupid.

As suggested by the extract, B had strong views on how learners should approach learning in the classroom, but in spite of the strength of his belief that learners should be willing to volunteer answers and make mistakes without fear of embarrassment, B also recognised a Japanese trait that he had to be adaptable to. Clearly B did not change his belief but rather adapted his practice to make it pragmatic in his particular circumstances. This extract is a clear example of B's ideal-oriented and reality-oriented cognitions in co-existence. That he was willing to adapt his teaching style to accommodate particular traits that would avoid damaging students' confidence or enjoyment in the class suggests a layering of experiential knowledge to his ideal-oriented beliefs, almost like the addition of a Japan-specific caveat.

This picture of B's cognition system as being moulded by his experiences specifically teaching in Japan and the resulting change in his classroom behaviour is relevant to both the focusses of this thesis: first, because it offers support for the long-standing view in the literature that beliefs are resistant to change but also dynamically interact with contextual factors; and second, evidence for the importance of local interpretations of learner autonomy which make it appropriate for the needs of local populations.

By adopting a practice (for example, avoiding spotlighting in class, see Chapter 7, Extract 7.17) that went against his beliefs about learners, B recognised the benefits of changing his practice for a Japanese context. In other words, he applied a pragmatic and sensitive approach to the classroom and accordingly adopted an appropriate teacher role for maximising the efficient use of class time that accorded with other aspects of his beliefs about how best to enhance students' learner autonomy. It also suggested how his cognition system retained a flexibility that meant it could be adapted to different cultural contexts or situations. (For another example of how classroom experiences changed B's practice without altering his ideal-oriented cognitions see Chapter 8, section 8.2.1.)

More broadly, B showed empathy for the position of his students. For example, he recognised that not all students wanted to learn:

Extract 7.18 (B Interview 2)
there's no reason why we should suppose everybody has the either the need or the desire to become a proficient English speaker so if they don't want to then, you know, they're adults I don't necessarily see we should be forcing them to. I'm (give them) giving everybody what I perceive to be the best opportunity to come to enjoy English and come and learn, improve their English in my classes and if it's not for them it's not for them.

This extract suggests how one of the classroom roles that B adopted was as a sympathiser or empathiser, qualities that are in keeping with the psycho-social support that Voller (1997) identified a teacher could offer learners (see Figure 2.6). Apart from showing how B had a strong empathy for students whom he recognised might not feel that there was any advantage to learning English, the extract also reveals his pragmatic detachment from them and recognition that there are limits to which he can help students. As B said, "I'm (give them) giving everybody [...] what I perceive to be the best opportunity [...] and if it's not for them it's not for them". This is in contrast to A, whose view of students as being changeable and herself as an agent of change came across much more strongly (see Chapter 5, Extract 5.14).

7.5 Contextual adaptations

The preceding sections have already outlined how within B's cognition system, he had identified his Japanese university students as holding particular traits that resulted in him developing reality-oriented cognitions that would allow him to achieve his core cognition of making an enjoyable classroom that would encourage learning and result in greater learner autonomy. Traits B mentioned included them being nervous or shy, lacking in confidence or simply being lazy.

There have also been some illustrations of how B tried to be sympathetic to learners' traits, for example, he recognised students had a problem with answering questions in front of the whole class and adapted his classroom practice accordingly by being sympathetic, giving them time to check answers with a partner and thus avoid 'spotlighting' (see Chapter 8, Extract 9).

He also explained how he was proactive in trying to help students develop traits that he

judged useful for English. Specifically, B tried to help students to be active participants in the class by volunteering. Those who did so would be likely to have higher participation points in the system he used to help him calculate his students' final grade (see Chapter 8, section, 8.3.2). When challenged by the researcher on whether or not volunteering was culturally appropriate, B explained how he saw it as an integral part of "using English" and something B believed "they have to get used to if they actually want to be using English in the future rather than just having it as something ... they're taking tests in". Here B simultaneously revealed a cognition about how a successful language user needed to be familiar with what he judged to be cultural norms of the language being learned and also how his students were weak in this skill:

Extract 7.19 (B Interview 3)

B: it [volunteering] is a culturally different thing but but I think it's a culturally different thing that they have to get used to if they actually want to be using English in the future rather than just having it as something [...] they're taking tests in

R: So I mean it's the classroom changes into a culturally different environment

B: Yeah right

R: They have to change their behaviour

B: Yeah I think they should do.

These attempts to familiarise students with culturally different practices that they might encounter when using English suggested how B tried to enhance his students' learner autonomy. At the same time, it also added to a picture of an interventionist teacher, with the confidence to act on his cognitions because he believed it was best for his students, a position reflective of learner autonomy orthodoxy in which the teacher helps reduce students' cognitive load and makes key decisions about classroom learning, particularly at early stages of learning or with weakly-autonomous students (Dam, 2011; Littlewood, 1997; Nunan, 1988).

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7.6 B's professional cognitions

Benson (2011) contends that the extent to which a teacher can promote autonomy in the classroom will depend on the limitations dictated by the institution where they work. Equally important though is how the teacher interprets those limitations as filtered through the official curriculum or syllabus. This research argues that underpinning a teacher's interpretation of the limitations are their professional cognitions, which comprise the attitudes and beliefs that they hold about their job (also see Teacher A, Chapter 5, section 5.3.2). It is therefore important to understand B's professional cognitions when explaining his autonomous practice, and the next section outlines what they were. It starts by outlining the values that B held as important and the responsibilities he felt working at a university. Further evidence for why B held these cognitions is also given. Later in the chapter, the importance of these cognitions to learner autonomy will be explained.

While in A's case a description of her professional cognitions preceded other descriptions of her cognitions for the reasons given there (see Chapter 5, section 5.3), in B's case, while his professional cognitions were an important influence, their influence was most clearly seen after B had moved to New University. While the previous sections have mainly only used data from interviews that took place while B was still at Old University (Interviews 1, 2, 3) this section contains data from Interviews 4 and 5 in which B was able to compare the two institutional cultures which subsequently revealed the importance of his professional beliefs.

As mentioned before, A showed a lot more emotional attachment to her students and the institution at which she had worked for over twenty years. On the other hand, B seemed less

emotionally attached to either the institution or his students. This was based, as the following extract shows, on the fact that B held a very pragmatic view of his job, mainly as a result of his own attitude to work, the fact he enjoyed it and because of how it compared to his other past working experiences:

Extract 7.20 (Interview 3)
I mean I think I'll always be very very happy that I got the job at [Old University] in the first place and very grateful that I did because I think I was pretty lucky to get it in lots of ways so I don't think I'll ever have that negativity towards the institution that those people [colleagues whose contracts had recently reached their term limits] did erm [...] it's partly just character I suppose I guess I don't know I mean I don't know about those specific people but I think it depends a lot on what other jobs you've done in the past as well [...] I think for the vast majority of people starting at [Old University] it's probably in most ways the best job they've ever had and for a lot of them the best job they ever will have [laughter] so why anyone would be bitter about it I just cannot understand.

B's comment was in response to a question that asked him about his attitude to the institution compared to those of colleagues who were scheduled to leave at the end of their contract and who were showing some unhappiness about having to leave. Unlike them perhaps, B considered himself lucky to have got his job at the time, probably because he had no university work experience and was recommended by a friend (see Chapter 3, section 3.4.1.2). Moreover, he was "grateful" to the institution, a comment that gives a clear reason for him to feel loyal to his employer that meant, like A, he felt the institution and its aims should be respected and adhered to.

B's attitude and largely emotionless pragmatism are important framing features for certain aspects of his classroom practice and are significant in highlighting the roles which B adopted in

the classroom to enhance learner autonomy. Though the roles were identified above, they will be illustrated in the following chapter (see Chapter 8, section 8.2).

The most important aspect of B's professional cognitions was revealed in his comments in Interview 2 when asked whether students should be considered as customers. In this extract B revealed his strong sense of duty to provide a quality education for his students and their parents, who he identified as being the ones who paid the university fees and therefore his salary.

Extract 7.21 (B Interview 2)
Yes, they [students] definitely are customers I think that's not a matter of opinion I think that's just a fact erm, what does it mean is a different question erm I don't believe that because students are customers, students should determine what takes place in the classroom erm what I do think is because they are customers they are entitled to a quality service commensurate with what they're paying for their fees which, as we know, are substantial erm I think you can compare it to something like what's a good analogy or an adequate analogy erm if you, if you pay a fitness trainer you're the customer obviously. But if your fitness trainer then says "Yeah, okay we've done enough today, you know let's go and have a pizza, well he's not really doing his job and you're not getting your money's worth erm, I think that's a similar case, and we also have to remember that the true customer is the person who is paying the bill and in that case it's not the student per se, ninety-nine times out of a hundred it's the student's parents so we also have a responsibility to them as well as the student themselves.

As has been illustrated, B adopted a pragmatic approach in the classroom and had developed reality-oriented cognitions that helped him adapt his behaviour to his students' traits even when it contradicted his stronger ideal-oriented cognitions. This was seemingly based on a strong empathy for the position of many of his students who had low levels of desire to learn English and might not need it in the future (see Extract 7.18). Nonetheless, in spite of what might be considered an obstacle to his attempts to help enhance students' learner autonomy, B explained how he still provided students with he perceived to be:

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Extract 7.22 (B Interview 2)

the best opportunity to come to enjoy English and come and learn, improve their English in my classes and if it's not for them it's not for them.

Though B recognised students as adults who should not be forced to learn English, at the same time he retained a cognition that underlying their relationship was a financial contract that meant students were "entitled to a quality service commensurate with what they're paying for their fees". This insight into B's cognition about the relationship between him and his students was the first strong indication of what underpinned B's "professional cognitions" which it became clear were a strong influence on his classroom practice and his attitude to work. Unlike A who seemed more emotionally involved in the lives and progress of her students (see Chapter 5, Extract 5.12), B was much more professionally detached and pragmatic in his view of learners and the extent to which he could help them. This extract both reminded and reinforced the main concerns of B's teaching agenda which was to provide all students with an enjoyable learning experience that would improve their positive feelings for learning English and lead to greater individual autonomy. At the same time, it shows how B's sense of professionalism helped him do this even in the face of students who did not appreciate his efforts, suggesting for B that a lack of autonomy was not a barrier to attempts to promote it and contradicting some findings (for example, Borg & Al-Busaidi, 2012a, 2012b).

In the preceding part of this section, it has already been shown how B's attitude to his employer affected his classroom practice. Extract 7.23 gives a clear illustration of how B's behaviour was regulated by both where he worked and how he felt about working there; in other

words, by his professional cognitions. He starts by discussing his ideal-oriented belief that students would discuss topics or do tasks exclusively in English:

Extract 7.23 (B Interview 6)
what I would like ideally is what we would be doing in our Japanese class we'd be sitting talking about it in Japanese going through the reading discussing it together in Japanese and then we'd be doing the speaking aspect of it that's what I think is ideal. Having beaten my head against a brick wall for years at [Old University] trying to get people to do that and fail- failing, at [New University] I kind of [...] felt less pressure to be making people do stuff in English all the time.

In this extract, it can be seen how moving universities liberated or revealed more clearly a reality-oriented cognition about L1 language use that B more fully (and almost immediately) incorporated into his practice at New University. In the remainder of this section, it will be shown how other aspects of B's professional cognitions meant he was particular about following the syllabus at Old University resulting in his classroom practice not promoting autonomy as fully as he did at New University where the syllabus gave him more freedom and the language programme was structured differently (see Chapter 8, section 8.6.1).

As a professional educator, B recognised the authority of the institution in which he worked and the network of relationships that he was a part of. A strong cognition he held was that of acting professionally, by which he meant a teacher should do what the institution asked them, as he explained:

Extract 7.24 (B Interview 4)
You have to work within the parameters of the institution you're working in so I would say [...] people [...] who do not follow what they're supposed to be doing at all [...] think they're exemplary professionals [but] I would disagree totally because they're being paid to do a job and

they're doing a different job and you're working for an institution whether you like the way things are done or not [...] you should basically follow what you're supposed to be doing in that institution.

At Old University B also felt connected to his colleagues through the syllabus and the structure of the language programme it being a centrally coordinated course that all students took meant he felt:

Extract 7.25 (B Interview 2)
it's important that every teacher is working towards the same goals and all students across the board theoretically should have been taught the same skills if not in the same way during the course.

In other words, for B the syllabus was a document central to his classroom practice because it set out what the institution wanted him to do and it helped him support the efforts of his colleagues and vice versa. This professional cognition can be seen in opposition to a personal cognition in the extract below in which B was critical of syllabus goals, arguing that they were too specific and reflected the importance of image for his employer rather than useful educational goals for the teacher. Moreover, reflecting his ideal beliefs about learning a language and the development of autonomy, he believed that students simply being more motivated to study English was "a sufficient goal":

Extract 7.26 (B Interview 4)
As far as I'm concerned students should [...] have improved their English in some way by the end of the course and improved their motivation to study English further is a sufficient goal and I don't think it's necessary I know it's necessary because administrators want it and universities want to look professional but I don't think in terms of education it's actually necessary to set specific goals like were set at [Old University] for what are general required English courses.

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Two interviews and twelve months after he first stated it (see Extract 7.4) and having moved to a new institution, B has retained his central cognition that links his practice to learner autonomy by stating the goal of a class should be for students to have "improved their motivation to study English". The extract revealed a slightly cynical edge to B's feelings about how syllabuses were written generally, and yet in the case of the observed class he still followed it closely, reflecting the way in which his professional not personal cognitions informed how he actually taught. This is consistent with B's statement that "you're working for an institution whether you like the way things are done or not". The crucial point here is that observations showed how he followed the syllabus even though in interviews he doubted the usefulness for students of some of its stated goals, for example academic paragraph writing, a major part of the CW1 course at Old University:

Extract 7.27 (B Interview 2)
I don't think paragraph writing is particularly useful in itself [...] they might not ever have to write a paragraph the way we're teaching them in their lives but I don't think that necessarily means it's not useful I mean to me what we really what the class should be focusing on is as much spoken English as possible.

Though B did paragraph writing as stated on the syllabus, he felt it took away from his ideal-oriented cognitions of as much classroom speaking time as possible, which he believed could have a significant impact on the development of students' learner autonomy because it was enjoyable. In a later interview, when comparing Old University with New University, B again noted how the syllabus at Old was restrictive of his classroom practice. Furthermore, in the same extract it became clear how another professional cognition B held, a collegial one of effectively

preparing his students for their next English teacher, was restrictive. B admitted to preferring the structure at New University where being the only English teacher for a group of students meant there was no such obligation. As he explained, at New University he had flexibility, could offer the students more freedom and control over their learning and, as a result it seemed, was more able to promote activities that would have a positive effect on learner autonomy, like writing role-plays:

Extract 7.28 (B Interview 4)

[At New University] you're not passing on the class to a following teacher so you're not aiming for specific things to be done by the end of the semester and I would always like to be able to teach like that actually ... it's really nice to have the flexibility ... things like writing role-plays I mean they [students] really got into it, spent loads of time discussing it and well why rush this what's the point they're doing exactly what I'd like them to be doing, they're sitting and working together and helping each other ... why impose an artificial time limit on it?

As B explained, his classes at New University allowed him to better support students' development of autonomy as they "really got into it, spent loads of time discussing", and could be allowed the time to continue working in this way. There was no need to "impose an artificial time limit" that the syllabus requirements at Old University obliged him to do. And notably, though he could have done so, he did not do any academic writing at New University, further underlining how B's professional cognitions that seemed to include the gratitude he felt for having been given a job, restricted the promotion of autonomy in his classroom practice at Old University as he followed the syllabus quite strictly.

7.7 Chapter summary

This chapter began by revealing B's hidden cognitions about university language learning that aligned them with the promotion and development of learner autonomy. It continued by showing how B combined multiple roles in class to achieve this and how they existed in dynamic flux when he taught. Based on these roles, B's classroom approach was identified as being one of weak autonomy, a position strongly supported by B's identification of his students' as generally having weak existing levels of autonomy when they entered university as first-year students. It also showed what skills B felt were important and why he tried to help students develop them. Finally, the chapter ended by showing the effect of B's professional cognitions on his teaching practice and how they led to the prioritisation of institutional demands over his ideal-oriented cognitions about developing learner autonomy. The next chapter is devoted to how B implemented his cognitions in the classroom through his practice.

Chapter 8: Case B Part 2 (Classroom Practice)

8.1 Introduction: B's practice

This chapter deals with those aspects of B's practice which were identified as enacting

the cognitions that B held about how he could contribute to the development and promotion of

learner autonomy in the classroom, and attempts to provide evidence to support the existence of

the cognitions identified and illustrated in the previous chapter. It is mainly based on the 14

classroom observations that took place over a semester (see Chapter 4, Table 4.1) but will

frequently refer back to quotes from the interviews from which a picture of B's cognition system

was constructed. It is hoped that by the end of the chapter there will be a tangible picture of the

type of classroom environment that B created through his use of group work, his points system

and his regular communication activities, and also the ways in which his students responded.

However, the chapter makes no attempt to evaluate the success of B's efforts on students' learning,

which was not one of the aims of this study.

8.2 Illustrating B's cognitions in practice

As identified in the previous chapter (see section 7.6), B's cognitions about his students

and their levels of learner autonomy suggested that his classroom practice would be only weakly

autonomous, with many elements of the classroom being teacher-led. In order to develop learner

autonomy in these circumstances, the teacher's role becomes of paramount importance (Dam,

1995; Kumaravadivelu, 2003; Voller, 1997) and, during interviews, B portrayed himself as a

teacher adopting and combining multiple roles, as appropriate, in order to achieve the clear and

guiding central principle of creating an enjoyable and effective learning environment for his students. In doing this, B believed that his students would become more positive about learning and want to continue learning after the end of the course (see Chapter 7, Extract 7.4).

8.2.1 Illustrating B's roles in practice

During the course of the observations, several behaviours emerged which B enacted to give students the confidence to communicate successfully in the L2. Though hard to pigeonhole into a simple or single "role", taken together they formed a strong image of a teacher whose practice was strongly supportive of a desire to enhance learner autonomy.

One way in which he did this was to set clear targets or goals and help students achieve them through explicit guidance:

Extract 8.1 (B Observation 8)
Try to make a longer conversation, two people or three people together you've got five minutes to talk about two questions, one hundred percent English. You should not finish, your target when you hear this timer [sets off timer] your target you should still be speaking English together about this topic okay? So you have to think of lots of extra questions to reach the target.

This extract also showcases a recurring aspect of B's practice, the use of a timer, which regulated students' communicative performance and gave them explicit start and end points, thus reducing anxiety through making tasks appear manageable. It also highlights strategic advice which B offered students in order to be successful. Another example can be found in Observation 5, in which during a communicative task B told students that the contents of their conversation need not be true if that helped them to complete the task:

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Extract 8.2 (B Observation 5)

B: [Addressing students] They [students' responses] don't have to be true. You can use your imagination if you like, true is probably easier.

While it is true that this seems contradictory to a core belief of learner autonomy, namely that communication should be "authentic" (see Chapter 2, section 2.6.5), in the context of B's cognition system as outlined so far, it has been made clear that B's primary classroom concern was to create a classroom environment that would offer students opportunities for communication without damaging their confidence or creating negative feelings towards language learning. In other words, B's classroom practice was an accurate reflection of how his cognition system sought to improve his students' learner autonomy. At the same time, this offered additional evidence for B's cognition that the priority of the classroom was about maximising opportunities for communication, and that his cognitions were layered and classroom practice prioritised working towards satisfactorily fulfilling core cognitions.

B's cognition about students' shyness and lack of confidence being reflected in his practice is seen again in the following extract from Observation 8. This shows B praising students at the end of an activity, thereby strengthening their understanding of the in-class behaviours that he wanted to see and offering students positive reinforcement of their English ability:

Extract 8.3 (B Observation 8)

I thought today was great. I was really impressed all class from start to finish ninety minutes today I thought everybody was fantastic I think this is the best class that we've had this semester. Usually I walk around and I can hear some people speaking a lot of English [Bell goes] some people very little English and some people zero sometimes but today I walked around all the time everybody was speaking English today was fantastic. Everybody please keep up like today, from now on really really good I don't know why but suddenly big improvement in this class.

Though the above extracts do not add up to a simple or easily defined "role" that B adopted in the classroom in order to promote learner autonomy, they do show a sensitivity to his learners that, when applied in his practice, sought to enhance his students' learner autonomy. The insights which B acted upon had come from many years of teaching Japanese students, confirming the contribution that context-specific experience makes to both a teacher's cognition and their practice. B's context–specific cognitions caused him to tailor his actions according to his understanding of Japanese students: in particular, the psychological obstacles to them taking greater control of their language learning. For example, in the following in-class statement B planted in students' heads a different way of conceiving of a presentation that he believed might reduce anxiety that they felt about doing one:

Extract 8.4 (B Observation 8)
That's what presentation is. It's just talking to people.

In terms of B's cognition system, the extract revealed B adopting a practice (avoiding spotlighting in class) that went against his belief that not knowing an answer to a teacher's question should not be an issue for a learner. His underlying belief had not changed but he recognised the benefits of changing his practice for a Japanese context. In other words, he took a pragmatic and sensitive view of the classroom and accordingly adopted an appropriate teacher role. That the context-specific belief about Japanese learners and their classroom behaviour had not replaced his core one about classroom behaviour more generally (that learners should feel comfortable giving wrong answers or saying they did not know an answer) offered evidence for the complexity of cognition systems and their dynamic nature, which allowed for competing beliefs or knowledge

to be held and understood simultaneously. It also suggested how cognition systems retained a

flexibility that meant they could be adapted to different cultural contexts or situations. More

generally, it seemed to show how outside the classroom B could simultaneously hold both ideal

and pragmatic-experiential beliefs about learning, while inside the classroom he approached

teaching with a Japanese-specific pragmatic approach. This approach was based on his

understanding of local conditions and the actions and activities that would maximise his students'

learning, even when they were at odds with his ideal beliefs.

The type of strategic learner behaviour that B promoted in class to enhance autonomy

was not restricted to the advice given during tasks as illustrated above. For example, he used

materials (see section 8.4.2) which promoted out of class preparation, and which, as he pointed

out in class, contributed to more productive and easier in-class communication opportunities:

Extract 8.5 (B Observation 2)
Discussion is difficult so if we prepare at home will be much easier.

A teacher encouraging their students in class and promoting study outside of it are accepted parts

of the job (Hedge, 2000), and B's behaviour is not in itself evidence that he promoted learner

autonomy. However, when understood through the prism of B's stated cognitions, the

observations provided a clear image of a teacher whose practice reflected cognitions that believed

in enabling students to take greater control of their learning through maximising enjoyable

communication opportunities. This was most visible through the range and different dimensions

of the strategies he used in class.

Another incident which illustrated B's interventionist practice in support of his cognitions

came in his own description in his week 5 diary of a task where he explained how for a speaking

activity he had initially organised students "in different groups" to maximise the variety of

speaking partners, after which he gave them the freedom to choose their own partners. However,

students' natural shyness and tendency to avoid talking to classmates they did not know, in

particular those of the opposite sex, became a barrier to speaking, forcing B to intervene:

Extract 8.6 (B Diary 5)
a lot of them like they're still quite shy [...] they're all mixed up in different groups that I've set
and within two minutes of them [being free] there's this mix that we had all the girls on one side
of the room and all the boys on the other so you'll hear me shouting at various people to go and
find a partner suggesting that this guy's free.

This adds further weight to the importance for B of helping students do things they did not

immediately feel comfortable with if he believed that it would improve their learner autonomy

overall. Though it could be argued that in choosing partners of the same sex to talk to students

were exerting their autonomy, from an autonomy perspective this is a simplistic view as the

literature argues that the teacher must always retain overarching control until, normally through

negotiation and consultation, students are in a position to take on greater autonomy in the

classroom, which in turn becomes less teacher-led, something akin to the conditions of strong or

broad autonomy (see Chapter 2, section 2.6.3).

As Dam (2011, p. 41, also quoted in Chapter 2) explains:

> The task for the teacher [...] is two-sided. On the one hand, she has to make the
> learners willing to take over the responsibility for planning their own learning,

for carrying out the plans and for evaluating the outcome. At the same time, she has to support them in becoming capable of doing so.

B's experiences teaching in Japan had not simply led to a secondary layer of pragmatic-experiential cognitions but had been codified into a set of rules and guiding principles for learning which, in every course, B tried to instil in his students. In this regard, B seemed to be taking up Dam's (2011) challenge to support students to become capable of taking greater control of their learning.

8.2.2 Creator of opportunity for peer learning

B had in interviews emphasised that the importance of relationships between students in his classes was the reason he used group work a lot (see Chapter 7, Extract 7.3). The positive effect of students working in groups on their oral interaction was notably observed by B himself in the ninth class:

Extract 8.7 (B Audio Diary 9)
I really emphasise that they have to do it as group work their writing one sentence in their group not four individual sentences by themselves [...] they talked a lot about it, some of them didn't write very much but I don't really mind about that erm because they were actually sitting and thinking about what they should be writing and at a lot of them discussion discussing it in English rather than just using English for the sentence itself so I thought that was quite successful today [...] It always takes much longer when I do it as a group exercise rather than just let them sit there and write but I think it's worth doing it like that erm there was just too much to get through in today's class though erm I would have liked another half hour at least for to get to cover everything that I I wanted to today which is often the case in this course.

Supporting his aforementioned cognitions about creating opportunities for English communication, in this task B felt he had clearly achieved his goal, as students worked together both collaboratively and communicatively to his obvious pleasure. Despite it taking longer for students than when they had been doing it individually, B felt that group work was beneficial, again showing how he prioritised his core cognitions about learners' long-term development over completing his lesson plan in order to satisfy syllabus goals, that, in any case, he had made clear were not ones he really shared (see Chapter 7, Extract 7.26). It was argued in the preceding chapter how B's professional beliefs meant that he followed the syllabus, and this incident is not a contradiction of that argument in that B would still complete the writing tasks for the course.

Even when not all of the students were writing, evidence of interaction as a lot of them discussed the task in English was enough to satisfy B that the group work was working successfully. This successful example of group work occurred at the halfway point in the semester, so after B had had eight weeks to help students acclimatise to working together in groups. As Hedge (2000) points out, successful group work is not an automatic phenomenon but requires the teacher to manage proceedings, something B had been taking care of through deciding which students went into each group, how often and when the groups changed and, through the use of a seating plan, even where the groups should sit in the classroom:

Extract 8.8 (B Interview 4)
Erm first thing today we're going to change groups. Every three or four weeks we're going to change groups otherwise, it's very boring if you work with the same people every week so please listen carefully I'll tell you your new group numbers. Everybody listening? [B calls out names: groups are pre-arranged by him].

As has already been pointed out, B's observation (see Chapter 7, Extract 7.10) that students'

instinctive behaviour did not always act in the interests of improving their language ability

justified his need for this degree of control. To make it easy to monitor, evaluate and support

students, the classroom was set up with students sat in groups of four with enough space in

between the groups of four for B to circulate. By sitting students opposite each other

communication was made easier, but, as importantly, the physical focus of the classroom changed

for students from being on the teacher to being on each other. Therefore, the rearrangement of the

classroom was a powerful statement about how learning took place and B believed that the

communication opportunities in particular would offer students a radically different and more

enjoyable experience from their high school one (see Chapter 7, Extract 7.12). As B pointed out

above, it was also a social opportunity and students would meet new people when the groups

changed, something B said made learning more interesting and which suggested evidence of B's

shared cognitions with A.

In monitoring and supporting students, B adopted a variety of roles with different

intentions. For example, he instructed groups on how they should continue and could complete

the task, advising them on next steps:

Extract 8.9 (B Observation 4)
Compare your answers see if everyone agrees. Do you all have the same answers? If yes great
finished, if you have different answers maybe someone needs to think again.

At other times, he reminded students of their collective responsibility and the support network

offered by working together with others, helping to promote the core cognition he held of

language learning as a "cooperative venture" (see Extract 7.15):

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Extract 8.10 (B Observation 6)

Can anybody help? Can any other group members help? Any other reasons? This was a group decision.

In this way, throughout the semester, B encouraged student interaction in groups and promoted it as a way for individual students to get help and support from classmates, reflecting his cognitions about its potential for peer learning (as implied in Chapter 7, Extract 7.2). Though group work was something B, as he explained, used a lot, it was clear that students did not naturally adopt it (perhaps, B wondered, because of their familiarity with their high school teaching (see Chapter 7, Extract 7.12)). B continually tried to pass on insights about the benefits of group work, as in the following extract where, while commenting on their mid-semester feedback in week 7, he explained that in each group there were potentially three other teachers:

Extract 8.11 (B Observation 7)

What do you think are the bad points of this lesson? Erm seven people said difficult or can't understand so again if you think difficult just keep trying do your best. Ask me anytime if you have a problem ask your group mates for help as well, that's a good point about working in groups, there's always three people who can help you just try to do your best.

In other words, B seemed to suggest that students who worked well together in groups and learned to consider their classmates as learning resources could become more autonomous by developing confidence and independent thought as a result of not being over reliant on the teacher. An example of how B tried to reinforce this notion of other students as resource is illustrated by B's use of "the trick" in section 8.3.1 (see Extract 8.18).

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In short, B's role during group work was more than managing students in the classroom space and additionally included directing how groups worked, encouraging intragroup interaction and passing on knowledge about the benefits of group work itself, as shown above. It also exploited the potential for the class to be a social opportunity for a group of 20-somethings in a new environment, something B was aware of as he deliberately tried to make mixed gender groups based on a cognition he held that a female presence could be a motivating factor in a male student, making a classroom contribution as he explained:

Extract 8.12 (B Interview 7)
if there are five guys who are who are putting their hands up and doing well they're [unmotivated students] probably thinking oh God why can't these guys just shut up whereas for girls if its girls, particularly if they're attractive girls, they're mo- a lot of the guys are probably thinking ooh right (ma-) maybe I should be speaking some English erm there's […] you know ten percent women at Old University I'm not going to get noticed if I just sit back and do nothing all the time.

Supporting this cognition, it was also clear from the video observations that B tried to make mixed groups of females and males, showing another element to his managerial role (a point later confirmed in private email communication).

B clearly set up a task with one specific way in which he intended the group would achieve the desired learning goal. However, this was not something that B considered essential for the success of the task. An example of how working in groups gave students a degree of (albeit limited) autonomy under B's supportive gaze was evident in week 5 when B noted how students had completed the task even though they did not do it "how I wanted them to":

Extract 8.13 (B Diary 5)
what they were supposed to be doing is talking together and creating a sentence together entirely

as a group and then ending up with one topic sentence for their group. [...] I think one or two groups maybe divided the work up and did one bit each, which was not what I intended erm some groups seemed to all write their own and then talk about it but most of them did it how I wanted them to.

In this way, group work contributed to students' increased learner autonomy within a structure that allowed B to keep control of the overall learning environment by deciding both the tasks and the methods of completing them. However, as the literature on learner autonomy notes (see Chapter 2, section 2.6.3.2), giving learners freedom and control over classroom events brings risk for the teacher; as B confirmed, when students worked together outcomes could be unpredictable. As in the above example in week 5, some groups completed the task differently to how B had intended.

Though Extract 8.7 shows students using English for the discursive element of the task, not just the answer, it later emerged that using English in group work was not something B always required even if, as the following extract shows, B's ideal cognition was that tasks would be done completely in English because it represented language use opportunities in which they could "negotiate and agree". Revealing the effect of actual contextualised classroom experience on B's cognition, he explained that while group work "ideally" took place in the L2, as occurred when he was learning Japanese, B had come to accept that even with him monitoring his students the effort to keep them in English was too much trouble and ineffective:

Extract 8.14a (B Interview 6)
what I would like ideally is what we would be doing in our Japanese class we'd be sitting talking about it in Japanese going through the reading discussing it together in Japanese and then we'd be doing the speaking aspect of it that's what I think is ideal.

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At the beginning of this extract B reveals his existing and stable core belief which is based on his own current Japanese language learning experience. Notably, though the focus of the learning is a reading passage, in keeping with his uncovered cognitions about learner autonomy, it is through speaking in the L2 that learning occurs. In the next part of the extract, B explains how he tried to teach according to his ideal-oriented cognitions at Old University and admits the frustration of it not working:

Extract 8.14b (B Interview 6)
having beaten my head against a brick wall for years at [Old University] trying to get people to do that and fail- failing.

B continues, explaining that his new institutional context has allowed him to act on a reality-oriented cognition and develop new experience and knowledge:

Extract 8.14c (B Interview 6)
At [New University] I kind of A) I felt less pressure to be making people do stuff in English all the time and [...]

Extract 8.14d (B Interview 6)
I just thought well it it's going to work better, perhaps it's worth trying to do things differently and I decided that I would make very clear [...] that this time this part of the class you must speak only English and I'm not going to be happy if you're not and I'm not going to accept it if you're not.

Here, in Extract 8.14d, B reflects on how developing a more reality-oriented practice could be better both for himself and his students and refers to his actual classroom experience at New University in which he clearly designates times when students must use English and other times

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when they can use Japanese. This shows how elements of his ideal-oriented cognition have been retained in spite of the new institutional freedom he feels that would allow him not to require English use at all. This could be an effect of his professional beliefs, which have been carried over to the new institution.

Finally, B shows how his newer reality-oriented cognition still has a strong element of teacher control with rules about appropriate and inappropriate language use while revealing how B is seemingly more relaxed in his teaching and no longer beating his head against a brick wall:

Extract 8.14e (B Interview 6)
These other parts of the class and situations I don't mind what language you speak that's fine and this kind of activity which is reading or some kind of grammar or vocabulary activity at [New University] I don't mind at all if they speak in Japanese while they're doing this.

The dynamic interplay between ideal cognitions and actual experience that had led to the formation of new knowledge and the subsequent synthesis and adoption of new pragmatic beliefs justifies an extended commentary here.

In Extract 8.14a, B started by explaining the influence of his own Japanese language learning experience on how a language learner should behave in group work. This might be termed an "ideal cognition" which for some time, including over the initial observation period (e.g. "[...] wrong language, Konomi" (Extract 8.15)), B had tried to follow in his classroom practice through his management of groups in class. However, as he explained, having "beaten my head against a brick wall for years", B gave up on his ideal belief that the learners in the class should use the L2 with each other for all their interactions and came to a compromise in which he made it clear to students the difference between tasks whose aim was communicative group work

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and had to be performed in English (see section 8.4) and general group work which, as he explained, they could do in Japanese.

Though the negative experience of monitoring groups had continued for some time, hinting at the strength of the underlying cognition, the catalyst for B changing his classroom practice was as a result of moving to New University where he felt less pressure to "be making people do stuff in English all the time", reinforcing the powerful force that his professional cognitions exerted on his classroom practice. Also notable is the pragmatic flexibility that B showed as he reevaluated his classroom practice that was based on his ideal cognitions and adapted it so that it better reflected his actual teaching experiences, not to mention the level of his students' learner autonomy. It took time though, and only after changing institutions was B able to reflect on his ideal cognitions as they were filtered through classroom realities and to implement a pragmatic solution to this language issue by accepting newer, pragmatic cognitions and implementing practice that was specifically tailored to his new context.

Group work in B's observed classes did not always produce more effective learning or exhibit autonomy, and the following extract captures B's annoyance with a group who had not simply failed to do the task in the given time but then continued to waste time and disrupt the class. The incident took place in week 10 when B set up a writing task in which students would compare and evaluate each other's homework and choose the best one in the group, evaluating being one of several reflective skills associated with learner autonomy. The writer of the best one would become the group representative and read their sentences to the whole class, so that as B explained, "we'll get some good examples of how to write example and detail sentences" (Extract 8.16, B Observation 10). However, when it came to the third group there was no designated

representative and instead students resorted to the game "rock, paper, scissors" to determine who would speak, something which undermined both the purpose and usefulness of the activity and suggested they had wasted twenty minutes of the class. B's annoyance was clear:

Extract 8.17 (B Observation 10)
Group 3 who's your representative? (4.0) [annoyed] you should have decided I've just given you a minute to decide. What's happening? [students just in the corner of the camera] (5.0) you're supposed to [off camera but sound of B moving over to the students' table] I didn't say do janken [rock paper scissors] I said choose the person with the best paragraph, you've had you've had about twenty minutes to do it. [laughter; students at the table smiling] why am I seeing janken [rock paper scissors] now? I asked for the best paragraph. The person with the best paragraph please stand up now read your paragraph. It's not difficult, who's it going to be? [a student stands up] thank you very much, Kentaro.

As this extract showed, as much as B might have wanted students to take on greater responsibility in their groups, some students clearly failed to embrace the opportunities he offered in an example of learner resistance that can accompany efforts to enhance autonomy (e.g. Little, 1995 - see Chapter 2, section 2.3.3).

Though, as in the above example, using group work sometimes meant unpredictable and disappointing results, there were notable successes as well, such as the extract from his Week 9 diary (Extract 8.7) in which B noticed students cooperating and learning from each other but also speaking English together in group work, even though it was an activity when they could have chosen to use their L1 to communicate with each other, suggesting B had had at least some success in moving these students away from a high school mindset and, by implication, towards becoming, according to his cognitions, more strongly autonomous.

8.3 Use of learner training

The relation of learner training to learner autonomy has been covered in the Literature Review (see Chapter 2, section 2.3.4) but Hedge's (2000, p. 85) commentary summarises the breadth of techniques which fall under the term learner training and also the aims of such training:

> Some learners come to the task of learning a foreign language with the expectation of being active learners, but others? come ill-equipped. For the latter group, perhaps the most useful service the teacher can perform is to encourage them in positive attitudes and prepare them in effective strategies. Dickinson (1987) and Holec (1985) make a distinction between psychological and practical preparation. The first can be described as a change in perception about what language learning involves and a change in the expectation that language can only be learned through the careful control of a specialist teacher. The second involves acquiring a range of techniques with which learners can enhance their learning. Taken together, these two kinds of preparation can be called *learner training* (Hedge, 2000, p. 85).

As noted in the previous chapter (see section 7.12), in terms of his students' expectations for learning, B's cognitions about his students generally reflected Hedge's description of "ill-equipped" learners who needed both psychological and practical preparation (similar to Voller's (1997) characterisation of learner training as being either psycho-social and technical support – see Chapter 2, Figure 2.1). This lack of preparation by students resulted in a weakly autonomous classroom setting in which B became central to learner training processes that would enhance students' autonomy. In particular, B tried to increase the independent thought of students who had become used to teacher control in high school settings (see Chapter 7, Extract 7.19), and to help students grasp opportunities that he provided for them to communicate and enjoy the class,

something that B believed would lead to greater positive feelings about learning languages and by extension, in terms of his cognitions, result in enhanced learner autonomy (see Chapter 7, Extracts 7.3 and 7.6).

The following section which cites observed aspects of B's practice as learner training is divided into two parts. In the first, B's accidental discovery and effective use of "the trick" will be introduced, followed by the activities he did in the first class to help students understand his expectations of them in the class and their responsibilities for learning, before finally describing the points system that B used over the semester that both provided opportunities for reflection and trained students in the positive learning behaviours that B's cognitions showed would result in greater learner autonomy (see Chapter 7, Extracts 7.14 and 7.16).

8.3.1 Learner training: The trick

As shown in the previous section, B was active during group work, acting to guide and support students to successful outcomes and helping them develop a greater understanding and enjoyment of learning through general praise and encouragement and more specific teaching of metacognitive knowledge. One example of how B exploited group work to enhance students' autonomous development, particularly their self-confidence in their ability, was 'the trick', which was a deliberate mistake that he put in the multiple-choice answers to comprehension questions on the listening section of the textbook (see Appendices 16 and 17).

B created the multiple-choice questions himself to challenge students' view of multiple-choice tests as having only one correct answer. Both before and after the listening B gave students time to read and discuss the meaning of the questions and answers in their groups, opening up

possibilities for peer learning, although this was only one of several ways of understanding the material that B suggested to students:

Extract 8.18 (B Observation 3)

I'll give you the questions before we listen please read the questions and check any new words if you have any anything you don't understand ask your groupmates, check your dictionary, or you can ask me.

After the listening, students checked their answers with each other, in theory discussing any differences with their peers. However, if students' answers to multiple-choice questions were the same there would be no reason for any discussion: for B, a missed opportunity. "The trick" changed this because knowing that there might be a mistake even if they had the same answers sowed doubt that students could only resolve through talking to each other. As a result, students discussed and evaluated more carefully what they had heard. As B explained to students upon introducing "the trick" in week 3, they needed to have confidence in their own ability and try to work at a deeper analytical level in order to be successful:

Extract 8.19 (B Observation 3)

All of these [Answers a, b, and c] are wrong and there's a lesson. You have to think carefully about the questions, the questions are not always as simple as you'd imagine this is not a TOEIC test, sometimes the answer isn't there if you think something different, if you say oh some people heard per day, probably must have heard it clearly but thought oh no it's not written so can't be day. So have confidence if you think you have the answer, if you think there's a mistake in the question or in the textbook, maybe you're right because sometimes in my questions there will be strange answers and surprising answers. Every time you read a question think about it is it really a b c or is it maybe something different? Please remember that for next week there may be another surprise next week.

Once groups became aware that there might be a trick there was more communication as they worked collaboratively to spot it. The uncertainty or unpredictability of the outcome changed the way students engaged with the task by promoting deeper thinking and greater collaboration. Observations showed that successfully spotting the trick increased students' confidence in their ability and made them more questioning and more critically attuned to what they were reading, all things that suggested students' increased learner autonomy. The potential for the group work to lead to greater autonomy was also enhanced from a linguistic point of view because of the opportunity for negotiation of meaning and from increased positive feelings about learning derived from working with others, not to mention through the enjoyment of a listening exercise being turned into a mini-game.

In a sign of how "the trick" had a positive effect on student behaviour, in week 9 the listening produced multiple answers, suggesting that groups were becoming more confident and less concerned if their answers were different from others or if they were wrong – something that chimed with B's cognitions (see Chapter 7, Extract 7.17). The trick therefore also seemed to have a positive effect on a learner's individuality and independence, a quality which B identified as an aspect of how he considered learner autonomy (see Chapter 7, Extract 7.1). There was also a sense of heightened tension and anticipation across the whole class, most notable when B revealed which group had successfully spotted "the trick":

Extract 8.20 (B Observation 9)
B: Number 3. Eating meat can…a. Hurt the environment, who chose a? [Students raise their hands] One, two, two groups. b. Cause heart disease. One, two groups. c. Give you protein. One group. Anything different?
S: All

B: All! Well done group 4! This is today's trick question. Eating meat can do all three of these things. [Increase in volume of students talking] Only one group found the trick today. Well done.

The trick added different dimensions to the listening task that turned it into a collaborative group exercise and raised students' confidence. It supported B's wider message to students that trying to speak in English was more important than being right or wrong, as seen at other moments when B checked answers:

Extract 8.21 (B Observation 3)
Number 2 why is it inconvenient to own a car in Amsterdam? (10.0) (Did) nobody get this? [student laughter] Come on somebody tell me I'm sure everybody's got an answer written down. Don't be nervous doesn't matter if it's the wrong answer Daiki what do you think?

By valuing students' effort to answer regardless of whether they were correct or not, B created a classroom environment where speaking carried reduced risk because there was less potential for embarrassment or feeling stupid:

Extract 8.22 (B Observation 4)
Thank you for being brave and telling me different opinion but actually number one is the sentence that gives the main point.

Getting students to volunteer and try to answer his questions, in other words to make a contribution even without being sure of the answer, was a mainstay of B's cognition system and showed through in his classroom practice. It was also a cultural behaviour that B believed was important for students to become acclimatised to if they were going to "*actually [...] be using*

English in the future" (see Chapter 7, Extract 7.19). What this practice seemed to suggest is that the type of behaviour B advocated from his students, and that would according to his cognitions make them more autonomous, was a courage to take risks during language use that generally he felt students lacked because they were afraid of being wrong (see Chapter 7, Extract 7.17). The trick, though artificial, was a safe space B created during a class when students could be more relaxed about being wrong, something that would increase their confidence and contribute to the "deconditioning" of learners from preconceptions about the classroom roles of learners and teachers (Voller, 1997, see Chapter 2, Figure 2.6). This example of B's practice therefore seemed to illuminate a further aspect to B's role in the classroom that was only partly revealed in the interviews, namely as a type of motivational trainer.

8.3.2 Learner training: The first class

The trick was a form of learner training that addressed a specific weakness B had identified in his students. B's learner training, however, was more generally devoted to promoting classroom norms that would help all students contribute to the learning environment (as he explained in Chapter 7, Extract 7.10). In setting rules, B hoped to remove undesirable behaviours that might negatively impact the learning environment and maximise opportunities for communication. Another important goal for B was to promote greater general self-awareness about learning among his students, because this had the potential to raise their autonomy and make them better prepared for future learning situations.

Much of the more general type of learner training was concentrated in the first class and was followed-up through a weekly evaluation or points system (also see section 8.3.3). An

example of a task B did as part of learner training was the "class participation point-awarding exercise" (see Appendix 15) which asked students in groups to discuss four scenarios which described imaginary students' behaviour and then evaluate them on a number scale of 1-4, with 4 being the maximum number of points. While B used learner training to help students address various aspects of their learning, his main message was that visible effort in terms of English communication was "the most important thing", as he made clear to students:

Extract 8.23 (B Observation 1)
Important point though, Yasunori on time but only one point because no English. Kazutaka one hour late but he gets more points because he spoke lots of English, it's an English communication class that's the most important thing.

The exercise itself was also a first chance for B to make students aware of the classroom norms that he espoused and challenge their learned understanding of an English class as taking place in Japanese (see Chapter 7, Extract 7.12). For example, as he explained in his diary, though he allowed students to do the exercise in Japanese, he made an explicit point afterwards that it should have been done in English:

Extract 8.24 (B Diary 1)
they had lots of chance for discussion in their groups but all right until the very end all of that discussion was in Japanese and in the first class I don't worry about that until the end and then I point out as part of the lesson plan oh this is very interesting I've asked you to discuss all these things and I've walked around and about ninety-five percent I've heard you talking in Japanese but this is an English class this is very strange and I make a big point of this and then hopefully from then on my target is whenever I say discuss this in groups obviously they should be doing it in English.

That B could both predict students' behaviour and even build his response into his teaching plan suggested the cumulative effect of his Japanese university teaching experience on his cognitions and how strongly his classroom practice was influenced by them.

Training in the first class was done in groups as an activity to address learners' classroom behaviour by promoting collaboration and teamwork. The exercises addressed both practical and psychological strategies. For example, in an example of the former it reminded them of good learning management strategies (e.g. bringing a dictionary to class) and of the latter it challenged their beliefs about the language learning classroom and their role in it (e.g. which language to use when discussing). Establishing these norms of behaviour increased students' control over their learning and their control over speaking English, both of which enhanced the potential for development of learner autonomy. For example, the first class group discussion exercise, "What should you call me?", in which B trained students to use his first name rather than "Mr" or the formal *sensei,* reduced the risk of embarrassment for students who might not have known how to address him and opened a communication channel between students and teacher. It also drew attention to the equality of the learning environment in which students were now adults and he emphasised that they had entered a new stage of their learning with different norms:

Extract 8.25 (B Observation 1)
I would like you to call me [B's name]. The reason is that this is not an elementary school or a junior high school. You are not children, you are adults. I will call you by your first names so there is no reason why you should call me Mr., you can call me by my first name as well.

While the above example trained students to cope with their new learning environment, the most important part of the first class training was to help students understand the weekly points system.

By learning about how the system worked, students could use it more effectively to help them improve, and the things that B emphasised in the training as being helpful to learners' development (like volunteering a contribution in class) were also ones he evaluated positively through the points system. In other words, B reinforced the learner training through his regular weekly classroom practice (see section 8.4). In the learner training exercise (see Appendix 15), students discussed the scenarios with each other and shared their ideas about what was acceptable in the classroom. Then B revealed what he believed was an appropriate evaluation of the imaginary students as in the following example:

Extract 8.26 (B Observation 1)

B: Four, Sayaka. Sayaka came to class on time, she spoke lots of English during the lesson actively participated in her group discussion, asked and answered lots of questions but when the teacher was speaking was talking to another group of students she read an email on her cellphone er [Student 1's name] how many points?

Student 1: Two point five

B: [Student 2's name] how many points?

Student 2:   (xxx)

B: [Student 3's name] how many points?

Student 3:Two point five

B: [Student 4's name] how many points?

Student 4:Two point five

B: Everybody's too kind. [writes on board; students gasp] Sayaka gets zero, her choice. She knows the rule she breaks the rule zero not an accident not a mistake please be careful.

B: Number 5: Yasunori came to class on time he did the homework, he brought his textbook and his name card he didn't speak any English during the lesson [Student 5's name] how many points?

Student 5: Three

B: 3 points? Very generous. [Student 6's name] how many points.

Student 6: Two

B: 2 still too generous. [Student 7's name] how many points?

Student 7: Two point five

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B: Even more generous. No only one. This is an English communication class, if he doesn't speak English why should he get points? You don't get points for coming and sitting and being quiet? It's a communication class.

As the extract showed, B addressed both positive and negative behaviours in the classroom. In both cases though there was a big gap between what B believed and what students thought was acceptable in the classroom. This showed exactly why B thought addressing these issues through learning training was necessary and how not doing so might restrict students' engagement in the class and therefore in the development of their autonomy. B's message was unequivocal: "This is an English communication class. If he doesn't speak English why should he get points?"

While the importance of trying to speak in English was the main message B wanted to get across in the first class learner training, he also encouraged behaviours which he considered supported that aim, such as active participation, efforts to use English without being afraid to make mistakes, and volunteering answers or making suggestions etc. B believed that students who did these things could improve their autonomy: first by being more confident and capable communicators in English, and second by enjoying the experience and strengthening their desire to carry on studying after the end of the course (see Chapter 7, Extract 7.4).

8.3.3 Learner training: Using the points system for reflection

The classroom learner training described above introduced students to the points system which B had devised himself to evaluate students for their final grade while also supporting and encouraging the behaviours or traits that B believed produced a better language learning environment and greater learner autonomy (see Chapter 7, Extract 7.16). As explained in the

previous chapter, positive behaviours included communicating actively in English, volunteering answers, preparing through homework, listening to others and completing tasks with other group members. In contrast, negative behaviours were lateness, silence, sleeping, mobile phone use and passivity which, as has already been noted, B felt damaged the learning potential not just of individual students but everybody in the class. By trying to help students regulate both positive and negative types of behaviour, B supported the development of learner autonomy by making the classroom an enjoyable and motivating place to be. Though the learner training was based on discretely identified behaviours and traits, and B added or subtracted points based on what he observed, the overall points system was intended to be a more holistic evaluation of how students performed in class, as B explained:

Extract 8.27 (B Interview 2)
The points system to me is more an overall reflection of what they've done in class.

And though on a practical level the points system helped B evaluate students for a final grade, another important function was the opportunity it provided students to reflect on their learning, something which could help students address their strengths and weaknesses, increasing their autonomy as a result:

Extract 8.28 (B Interview 1)
R: Do you let your students know what their points are?
B: Oh, the points themselves? Yes of course. Yeah. I don't think it has any value whatsoever not to and also I think it's rather unfair not to if you don't. The purpose or one of the purposes of the points is, is to help them improve throughout the course if they're not seeing their points until the end, well that purpose becomes redundant so yeah, definitely.

Here another cognition was revealed that was not explicitly stated in the interviews: B viewed learning as a continuous, developmental process in which the students, it seems to be implied, could play an active role with teacher guidance. This further strengthens the argument that B's cognitions aligned closely with learner autonomy. Additionally, a strong air of professionalism seemed to suffuse B's discourse when describing this student-centred system. B's comment in this extract about being fair to students revealed further evidence in support of his previously mentioned professional cognitions: first that students are, to an extent, customers and therefore should receive a service from their teacher that respects their rights as learners (see Extract 7.21), and second that the teacher-student relationship aims at a type of equality (see Extract 7.18).

According to the literature, getting learners to reflect on their learning can lead to greater autonomy because reflection makes learners more aware of their strengths, weaknesses and goals while developing their independence from their teacher (e.g. Wenden, 1991; Harmer, 2007) and thereby increasing learner control. Though B's classroom presented students with few obvious opportunities for direct reflection or self-evaluation of their own work, B noted that any form of teacher feedback to students (e.g. as written feedback on student essays etc.) could potentially be a stimulus to student reflection, a point which came up during the initial discussion of learner autonomy with the researcher in Interview 2:

Extract 8.29 (B Interview 2)
I suppose any activity in which students are getting feedback [...] is a way to foster autonomy isn't it? It's getting them to think about what they've already done (B Interview 2).

In this way, the points system was a reflective tool, because students who looked at their points

every week via the university learning system, which they could access online, would get

feedback on their classroom performance, as B emphasised to students in the first class:

Extract 8.30 (B Observation 4)

So when the class is finished maybe Friday evening or Saturday please check WebCT [the university wide course learning tool] and you can see how many points did you get today. Maybe four great well done, congratulations, three point five, that's very very good too. Fantastic, you only got three points three's good that's okay. Two point five, that's a little bit disappointing. Only two point five out of four. This is the key point. If you get two to zero this is a problem because this means an F. [writing on board] Two out of four is 50%. 50% is a fail. Two point five, this is 60% 60% is a C so you're still safe, anytime you get two or lower you need to be worried so in this case you need to think very carefully what was the problem? Why did I get two points today? If you don't know, of course you can ask me but maybe if you think carefully, you will probably understand the reason.

By being used almost weekly (10 out of 15 classes) the points system offered students a regular

personal stimulus to reflect on their progress and it could be described as the central organising

structure in the promotion of learner autonomy in B's classroom. In theory, it would lead to

positive reinforcement of good classroom behaviours in the case of high scores and as a fillip to

change in the case of low ones. In the same way, as will be shown in the next section, it supported

the communicative activities which B considered to be the best use of class time.

8.3.4 Learner training: Summary

The points system was B's central organising structure for the gradual development of

his students' learner autonomy because of its role in raising students' awareness of learning

strategies and its potential to stimulate learner reflection. The underlying basis for learner training

was B's cognitions that students were likely to be weak English communicators who might not

necessarily having an interest in learning English. In addition, he had learned from his experiences

that students were likely to be low on confidence and carry over negative or inappropriate

behaviours from high school that could restrict the development of their autonomy. Practical

aspects of learner training focused on norms of behaviour and addressed issues which might

negatively affect or interfere with the efficient use of the class time. B's cognitions, as explained

in the previous chapter, linked efficient use of class time to more efficient use of opportunities for

communication that in turn increased students communicating and therefore could lead to greater

autonomy. As shown, the type of training B did was contextually-specific to Japan and anticipated

problems students would have in adapting to university learning, supporting the argument made

in Chapter 7 that B, as a result of his previous teaching experiences, had developed practical

cognitions based on his ideal ones.

While some of B's learner training addressed students at an individual, psychological

level, he also believed that his practical learner training made an important contribution to the

overall learning environment by enhancing the effectiveness of the communication activities that

he provided for all students through setting minimum standards (see Chapter 7, Extract 7.16). In

particular, the more practical training aimed to create an efficient environment in which plentiful

opportunities for communication were provided for students, who B believed, in enjoying doing

them, would become more involved in their learning, more motivated and potentially more

autonomous.

8.4 The role of weekly repetition in the promotion of learner autonomy

The previous section highlighted the role the points system played in how B helped

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students develop their learner autonomy, principally by encouraging positive learning behaviours and promoting reflection on performance. The next section investigates examples of B's communication activities that supported the system because the number of points students received and could check online after class were based on them, and how they were designed to further his students' learner autonomy.

It should be remembered that though B's definition of learner autonomy shared many of the common features cited in the mainstream literature on the subject, (see Chapter 7, section 7.2) his cognitions were not informed by that body of work. As a result, in the following section which describes the development of learner autonomy through B's activities, learner autonomy is considered from the picture drawn from B's cognitions in his context as identified in the interviews. By doing this, not only can it be shown how B's activities aimed to contribute to the improved autonomy of his students but also how his practice reflected his cognitions, confirming them to be mature, developed and firmly embedded in his practice.

As identified in the previous chapter, B understood the classroom as being a forum for as much communication between different students in English as possible. Communication would hopefully be an enjoyable experience for students who, through completing tasks successfully, would develop their confidence and ability, leading them to develop over the semester a strong affinity for learning languages that would make them want to continue to study beyond the end of the course (see Chapter 7, Extract 7.4). In other words, B's cognitions implied that classroom learning developed students' control over their learning, particularly in the psychological sphere, and resulted in them becoming more independent learners.

8.4.1 Weekly communication activities: Introduction

The idea that autonomy has developmental levels has been taken up in the literature review (see Chapter 2, section 2.3.3). Analysis of B's weekly communication activities suggested that he too saw autonomy as a developmental process, with three types of task used over the semester being identified. These will be described under the following headings: *stressing English, identifying autonomy and scaffolding, and leading to freedom*.

8.4.2 Weekly communication activities: Stressing English

Though B's classroom was set up to enable communicative group work, and though B's preference was for everything to be done by students in English, he had come to develop an acceptance of classroom realities and did not insist on English whenever students worked together (see Extracts 8.14c and 8.14e). However, every week B made a point of including specific communication activities which he designated as English-only.

Extract 8.31 (B Observation 2)
You've got five minutes, two people together, same people as before. Tell your partner your opinions. Go ahead, five minutes. One hundred percent English, of course.

The weekly communication activities were regularly repeated and generally self-contained tasks offering language communication opportunities, though some also taught students about aspects of writing or presentations that they would need in future classes. Because students' performance on the tasks was evaluated with the points system, the tasks could be described as the most important segment of the class because they most directly supported B's cognitions about learning and increasing autonomy.

Activities normally began with controlled language practice (mainly using the textbook exercises) and led to freer discussion. The developmental cycle involved students doing things before class such as planning, preparing and practicing at home; communication in class in which they exchanged ideas, checked answers, discussed topics and were involved in peer learning, while B monitored and supported them; and then *after class* evaluating and reflecting on their performance through checking their classroom points for that week. In a much later interview that took place some time after the observed classes, B explained how authenticity was an important facet of the communication tasks because, he implied, it represented authentic interaction.

Extract 8.32 (B Interview 6)
In terms of sharing their ideas with each other that's where they're actually communicating that's where they're using English to communicate information rather than just to practice language forms

Interestingly, here B's cognitions, albeit recounted some time later, seemed to contradict his observed classroom practice. For example, in the fourth class the following exchange occurred between B and a group of students who had managed to complete the communicative task without using any English, thereby undermining its purpose, as he told them:

Extract 8.33 (B Observation 4)
Hang hang on a minute, that didn't sound like discussion. I didn't hear any reasons. I just heard (car) bus and hands up that's not discussion [students laughter] the most important thing is not the order the most important thing is speaking English and discussing okay?

Here B deliberately exposed the inauthenticity of the task in order to stress the importance of using and speaking English during the weekly communication activities, suggesting how tasks were sometimes used to "practice language forms". The apparent contradiction between B's cognitions and practice could here be put down to a fault with the methodology of this study in questioning B some time after the class had occurred, though an extract of the exchange was provided to him. At the same time though, B had in Interview 4 pointed out how being "authentic" was actually an impossible task as:

Extract 8.34 (B Interview 4)
Language teaching materials are inherently au- inauthentic because they are designed specifically for language learners [...] everything you do is contrived isn't it [...] because it is contrived for a purpose erm but it should as far as possible reflect language they are likely to how likely they are to use any of it [laughs] but likely they are to use.

Thus, an alternative reading of Extract 8.33 would be to argue, as B did, that what students did was not recognisable as "discussion" and was therefore not a reflection of language they might be likely to use in the future. The purpose of the task had been undermined, ironically in this case, by the group structure which offered students autonomy.

Given the strong arguments in the literature for the positive correlation between meaningful tasks and the development of learner autonomy, it could be argued here that what B said was both undermining students' actual learner autonomy as well as potentially damaging its development. Another example of B doing this took place in Observation 4 when B was going around the class getting students' answers after group discussions about the advantages and disadvantage of different forms of transport (see Appendix 18). One student, when asked for his answer replied in Japanese, prompting B to make the following response:

Extract 8.35 (B Observation 3)

You can't tell me in Japanese this is an English class I know the good points of local trains I want to hear your English.

B's comment that he already knew the answer revealed this episode to be a "show" question, one without an actual reason for being asked. While this undermined the interaction from an autonomy point of view, it was acting true to B's cognitions about the classroom being primarily about language use. It is also worth remembering that dividing learner autonomy into the discrete components of ability, desire, and freedom allows a teacher to focus on one component at a time, when it might not be valuable or possible to try to enhance all three aspects together (Benson, 2012). In this case, it could be argued B's focus was on improving language ability rather than anything else.

In the very next class there was an example of how B would involve himself in an authentic interaction providing the student used English:

Extract 8.36 (B Observation 4)

B: Why did he disagree?

Student: [...] may not use English in the future

B: Mm hmm

Student: Some people don't like English

B: That's true, yeah, good point about the future. Who knows maybe Chinese will be more important, maybe in the future we won't need to learn a language, maybe computer translation will be perfect in the future. We can just have a small machine to translate for us. Who knows? Maybe.

An obvious conclusion to draw from the first incident is that on this occasion B's lack of formal learning about learner autonomy seemed to undermine some potential for his task to enhance

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learner autonomy, while the second incident showed that the specific circumstances of the first one provoked his response in that case. On the other hand, it has already been shown how B believed that stronger, more confident speakers of English could result in more autonomous learners (see Extract 7.8) and given that this was such a strongly articulated cognition, though his actions sometimes seemed to be problematic for the official discourse on learner autonomy, in terms of his own aims for the class and for enhancing his students' learner autonomy he was entirely consistent.

8.4.3 Weekly communication activities: Identifying autonomy; scaffolding

As mentioned, the weekly communication activities were self-contained tasks, but collectively week on week they were part of a broader developmental cycle that encouraged students to gradually take greater control over their learning and advance their autonomy through becoming more confident and independent English communicators throughout the semester.

In order for B to support students in this semester-long cycle he spent the first few weeks of the course learning about students' existing autonomy (be it their ability, desire or existing learning skills/attitude), something cited in the literature as a pre-requisite for fostering learner autonomy in the classroom (e.g. Cotterall, 2000). For example, B tried to identify group leaders and evaluated students' interaction so he could "plan how to how to organise the rest of the semester":

Extract 8.37 (B Diary 2)
really erm today is kind of a what do you call is not a test case testing the water I suppose, see how they can deal with discussing things in groups erm wh- which students stand out which ones are obviously going to be group leaders within the class and then from what I see today really I

can plan how to how to organise the rest of the semester for this class. [...] it was kind of exploratory in nature today's class er certainly for me and I guess probably for them as well.

While B's past experiences formed the basis for his general expectations of how his students would be, it was his experiences of the early classes which allowed him to make decisions about his role and how he could best support students' developing learner autonomy over the semester. For example, B judged the observed class to be a "relatively weak" one that would require him to support the group more with "scaffolding", showing how he adjusted his practice in relation to learners' autonomy:

Extract 8.38 (B Diary 2)
this is a relatively weak class I think. I may be wrong I hope I'm wrong erm but from what I've seen today I've decided I think I need to give this class a bit more support in terms of er well scaffolding I suppose language and structure in terms of how they carry out their discussions.

One of the reasons B considered the class weak was the absence of any student leaders, who as "near peer role-models", could make "everything work more smoothly" with the result that the class was less reliant on him and could act more autonomously in their groups. Instead, B feared that the class was "going to be more teacher-led than I would like it to be", something that would inevitably restrict the opportunities that students had to take control over their learning.

Extract 8.39 (B Diary 3)
I haven't yet in the third week identified any students really who I oh yeah these guys are really, really good and as I said in last week or the week before I think having these type of students in the class makes it so much easier erm and makes everything work more smoothly because not everything is from coming from the teacher the students are getting [...] near peer role-models erm basically people within the class who are taking a lead and other students are dragged along with them. I still don't think there are people like that in this class.

While B would have to keep greater overall control of the class, through appropriate "support in terms of ... scaffolding" he could still help students develop autonomy. The preparation worksheet B set as homework (see Appendix 19) exemplified the manner in which B scaffolded learning for students so that they could successfully perform tasks in class. In his own words, B tentatively linked the worksheet to students' being successful, while pointing out some of the learning strategies that students might have gained by using them: e.g. preparation from being helped to "order their thoughts and pre-write language", and new vocabulary from students possibly looking up words connected to the topic:

Extract 8.40 (B Diary 3)
It got them to think about it [the topic]. It made sure that everybody had some-something they could say about the topic because everyone had done something for that at least, so they'd started to think about it. They'd probably looked up some key vocabulary and I suspect that did help. I can't be sure that's what made the difference.

While the worksheet as scaffolding increased students' control over the task and possibly led to increased autonomy, B also noted that "there's a way to go before it's as good as I would hope it would be" (Extract 8.41, B Diary 3), underlining how B considered the students within a developmental progress that relied on his support and guidance and took place over an extended period of time.

8.4.4 Weekly communication activities: Leading to freedom

B offered students scaffolded support that reflected his evaluation of their readiness for autonomy. However, he did not want students to become over reliant on him; his classroom aim

was still to encourage students to become confident English speakers and more autonomous. So, as B explains in his fourth-week diary entry below, when he noticed some students simply reading from the preparation worksheets he made a plan to "*gradually take away the support*". It was a gradual removal because he would still make students write the preparation sheet for homework before the class. But during the actual communication activity B would take them away, forcing students to try to speak in the free, unstructured and spontaneous way that he ultimately aimed for. At a further point in time B imagined a point where the preparation processes structured by the worksheet and supported by other aspects of learning training were internalised so B could

"*just ask them to think about the topic before class."*

B's commentary on the preparation worksheets in Week 4 showed how the initial strong control he exerted over the classroom would gradually give way to greater learner autonomy over the whole semester. In this extract, he started by commenting on what students were actually doing when they were meant to be exchanging their answers orally with each other without looking or reading from their paper:

Extract 8.42 (B Diary 4)

A bit too much focus on actually writing down people's answers rather than listening to what they were saying and some people seemed to be just reading what they'd written for their homework which is not the idea so I'm going to change that next time and gradually take away the support that they've got in this activity so I'll split the sheet into two and I'm going to give the first three steps for homework where they think about it and write it down. But the in class I'm going to collect those in before they do the in-class discussion next time so that they will have prepared it and thought about it have their ideas and opinions written down but when they're doing the discussion activity next time they're not going to have that in front of them erm the table they have to fill in is going to be on a separate piece of paper which I'll give them in class. Erm so they'll probably be quite surprised by that the ones who have been just reading out what they've written erm but they will still have it have had it prepared and they'll just well they'll just have to

wing it which is the whole idea anyway and what I've been trying to get them to do anyway and a lot of them have erm but everybody's going to have to next time and then see how that goes maybe use that for two weeks see how it goes and then maybe take it away completely and just ask them to think about the topic before class instead.

In this extract, it was also clear how B monitored and continued to evaluate students' developing autonomy during the weekly classroom activities, and how he was actively engaged in the ongoing process of how to help students reach the point where they could "wing it" when speaking.

Though B wanted to remove the scaffolding and structure which supported students, the speed with which he did so was also influenced by the pressures of time, as B made clear in week 9. Though B had stopped using the preparation worksheets for the weekly speaking activities two weeks before, he still felt that students might have benefited from structured support or training activities:

Extract 8.43 (B Diary 9)
I would have liked to have spent more time on that; the final discussion part was a bit erm, what's the right word, it wasn't very structured and it was a bit it just seemed a bit sudden. Erm then this was just a time issue, I would have liked to do the what's it called on the page next to the listening where you've got the four people's opinions erm, which is quite a good structured activity to build them into the freer discussion, but there just wasn't time to do that today.

It was clear then that while B held in his mind a clear pattern of classroom practice that could enhance learner autonomy, other factors influenced what he could do in reality, reflecting the suggestion that the scope for a teacher to involve their students in developing their autonomy will inevitably be dependent on the freedom they are given by the institutions in which they work (Smith, 2003).

8.5 Student presentations

8.5.1 Introduction

As Dam (2011) points out, even small choices for students can result in reflection on learning and greater autonomy, and in the presentations in B's class students could choose both their topic and how they presented it to their classmates. The presentations were also the culmination of the course-long process in which B had tried to make students feel relaxed and confident about speaking in English, in his view a first step towards increased learner autonomy. The final pair presentations took place in weeks 13 and 14, with an introductory workshop in week 6 and speaking practice in weeks 7 and 11 (labelled as "surprise presentations" by B).

As was typical of B's weakly autonomous practice, in the presentations the freedom that students had was clearly defined and B retained overall control over how the activity took place, intervening when he felt it necessary. B acted as a guide by teaching students the components of a good presentation and provided learner training including speaking opportunities. He also acted as a positive language role-model when he gave a short speech in his L2 (Japanese). The next section will illustrate these aspects.

8.5.2 Student presentations: Choice of topic, how to present

For the presentations, each student pair could theoretically choose their topic. However, it became clear that B retained a controlling hand over the process so that students would be guided towards making novel, effective and interesting presentations. B did this through asking students to make a shortlist of three possible topics and then checking them. In doing so, B

anticipated students failing to choose good topics by themselves, as shown in the following extract when he tried to discuss their topics with some pairs of students:

Extract 8.44 (B Observation 9)

[To the second pair] What's happened there? You were supposed to give three topics written in English not one topic (written) in Japanese. Erm mmm not great but yeah that's why you need three that's why I asked for three, because if one's not great then you have some options. [To the 3rd pair] No this is much too broad. Soccer and futsal...maybe not great, everybody knows soccer maybe people don't know futsal but yeah not great. Why do you only have one topic? I asked you to think of three, you've had two weeks to do this. That's not really good enough.

B's ideal role in this exercise was simply to confirm that students understood what a good topic was and let students exercise their autonomy by taking control of the content and form by making their final choice. Unfortunately, students had failed to even follow B's instructions, let alone come up with a good topic. And this was in spite of B training students prior to this using the handbook, showing how learner training had a sometimes limited effect.

8.5.3 Student presentations: Presentation delivery

B knew that most students would try to memorise their presentation script word for word in order to speak perfectly. Though B tried to discourage this by explaining how unnatural it looked, he still left it as an option for students. On the other hand, he emphatically tried to draw students' attention to choose the better alternative of writing notes and "speaking naturally" thereby trying to reduce the pressure associated with formal presentations (see also Extract 8.48). This was another example of B's practice reflecting a psychological insight he had into the minds of his students and which had become embedded in his cognition system. As B pointed out, mistakes were unimportant and presenting was simply "talking to people":

Extract 8.45 (B Observation 6)

If you're speaking naturally your English will not be perfect you will make some grammar mistakes don't worry about it. You will forget some words, don't worry about it, speaking naturally is still better. Presentation is talking to people it's not remembering and repeating. Even if you write a speech and remember it perfectly your English will not be perfect, of course, when you write your English is not perfect so you don't need to worry about that. The most important thing is to be natural, remember when you're presenting you're talking to people, this is the key thing.

In allowing students to choose the one of the two techniques that they felt most comfortable with (writing sentences/memorising or writing notes/presenting naturally) B behaved pragmatically. Though B believed that he could guide students to different behaviours and raise their awareness of alternative learning styles that would increase their autonomy, he was also aware though that there were limits to how much students would change because of him, citing the lack of time to build up a trusting relationship in just fifteen weeks. However, B also admitted to having some self-doubt about his own knowledge of the best learning strategies, a cognition that contrasted with the outward confidence of his teaching practice and how he presented it to students, as shown in this chapter:

Extract 8.46 (B Interview 2)

I think if even if I was convinced I knew the best way for them to learn English which I'm not at all then I think it would be very very difficult in our teaching situation given that we see students for an hour and a half a week for fifteen weeks and then we never see them again more often than not erm by the time I've built up sufficient trust and respect within the class for them to totally change their learning style according to what I've said then it would probably be too late anyway.

On the other hand, he did lay down a clear boundary, defending a core cognition that a presentation should never be read, by not allowing any student to read from a paper ("Nobody can read. I will not allow a piece of paper" (Extract 8.47, B Observation 6)), something that he considered would work against the development of their confidence and autonomy, a point he had consistently made in the weekly presentation activities. In doing this, B demarcated a clear choice for students while setting his minimum expectation. Offering students a choice of two styles but not allowing reading illustrated how B controlled students' choices in order to further their autonomy. At the same time, by leaving them the "safer" option of memorisation, he accommodated the range of learners in his classroom, recognising that not all would be able to achieve his "ideal" style of presentation technique.

8.5.4 Student presentations: B as a role-model

A key cognition, which B had as a teacher but has not yet been mentioned, was the beneficial effect he could have as a role-model. In this role, B demonstrated what he wanted students to do in class both in terms of language use and also behaviour. He mainly did this before a task or activity by modelling in English with a student. However, on one notable occasion B modelled a one-minute presentation task in Japanese as an L2 learner to show students "if I could do it with zero preparation and make a shitload of mistakes then they needn't worry about it" (see Extract 8.50). In other words, he did it in a further attempt to reduce the psychological barrier that he perceived students had about speaking English and to give them greater control of their language use. By modelling language and behaviour before a weekly communication activity students would both notice the language and understand how to do a particular task successfully.

After he had given his one-minute presentation in Japanese in class, B again tried to raise students' awareness of their own psychological barriers to presentations and provide a strategy for overcoming them when he said to students in the class that "it's just talking. Your English won't be perfect, my Japanese was not perfect, probably you noticed many mistakes in my Japanese. That doesn't matter" (Extract 8.48 B Observation 8). In doing so B tried to reduce the fear that students had of speaking that he felt prevented them from becoming more autonomous. At the same time, he reiterated a key message seen throughout the weekly communication activities that making an effort to speak was more important than speaking perfectly (see Extract 8.23).

The stimulus for B's Japanese presentation was students trying to read from their paper while making a one-minute practice presentation on a familiar topic in week 8 (see Appendix 20):

Extract 8.49 (B Observation 8)
First presenters are Junji and Masahiro and Arisa and Seiya. You are the first presenters, please stand up presenters, please stand up, please come and stand at the front of your group or you you can't have paper of course let's put that down […] No okay please sit down everybody please sit down please sit down thank you. [Annoyance in his voice] Last week last week we looked at presentation workshop, you've forgotten already? And we said this is the best style, write down your main points only, glance at your notes if you need to, I didn't expect I didn't ask people to write out paragraphs, I asked you to prepare a presentation, to think about it, not to write it out and remember it. This is only one minute.

Though B's reaction to students in the classroom appeared to be spontaneous, it was in fact pre-planned as he had been "fully anticipating" that they would try to read. Allowing students to do this would have undermined the very purpose of the exercise which aimed to give students

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confidence when speaking. B had deliberately made the content simple and familiar so that students could focus on other aspects of their speaking behaviour, like making eye contact, more examples of cultural behaviour that B saw as being intricately connected to being successful language communicators. B believed that if students were more in command of these behavioural aspects they would be more in control of communicative situations, feel more confident, and thus according to his cognitions have stronger autonomy:

Extract 8.50 (B Diary 8)
practice presentations […] the purpose of this obviously practicing eye contact body language but also just to get them used to speaking to a slightly larger group of people rather than just the little groups of four erm trying to give them a bit more confidence speaking in front of people before they do the big presentation erm As expected […] what they'd all done […] was to write out an entire paragraph about them on a particular topic, try and memorise it, and then try and sneak it up to the front and read it erm obviously I was fully anticipating that and that's why I did the little Japanese one off the top of my head just to show them that if I could do it with zero preparation and make a shitload of mistakes then they needn't worry about it. Erm and they all did really really well once I got their papers away.

While in the diary extract B revealed that his making the one-minute presentation in Japanese was a confidence-boosting piece of theatre rather than a genuine risk to his own image as a language learner, the overall effect of his model and the presentation practice seemed to be successful in terms of students' subsequent performance in the class. As B noted later in his diary following the class, "today was great" and all students seemed to be contributing:

Extract 8.51 (B Diary 8)
That [practice presentations] might have fed into the whole class because contrary to the usual class rather than just a few people really trying and speaking a lot of English and then a few people putting in a cursory effort but a lot of people putting in not much effort, which has kind of been

the pattern in this class but a bit variable, today was great. All of the discussion work all of the group work, you know, as I was walking around, I heard hardly any Japanese erm which is a big change in this class.

As shown, B synthesised his knowledge of student behaviour across the student body to create the classroom practice that he believed would help them improve their autonomy. And, in keeping with his cognitions, he showed how he believed as a linguistic role-model he could raise students' awareness of different aspects of language learning by portraying himself as a learner similar to them whose second language use was imperfect.

8.6 Role-plays: Introduction

During this research, B moved from Old University to New University (see Chapter 3, section 3.4.1.2), offering a fortuitous opportunity to view his classroom practice in a different context. In comparing the two in Interview 4, B said he preferred New University because it did not have specific goals, meaning that he could teach with more flexibility and choice. This suggested how his professional cognition that he should follow the institutional syllabus (see Chapter 7, Extract 7.28) was an important factor in guiding his practice:

Extract 8.52 (B Interview 4)
[At Old University] all the classes we did obviously were or pretty much all were communication and writing [...] but at [New University] it's not like that at all. [...] Most of the classes I teach are specified as oral communication and it's much more like an eikaiwa [English conversation] style class but in a university setting. [...] I'm quite happy with that in lots of ways [at New University] what you're expected to do is teach a general English class. There are no set goals [...] so you're very free to teach the course how you want to teach it [...] because you're not passing on the class to a following teacher, so you're not aiming for specific things to be done by the end of the semester erm and I I would always like to be able to teach like that actually.

Two other interrelated factors gave B freedom to teach in his preferred way at New University compared to how he could at Old University. Firstly, teaching the same students for the whole year rather than one semester gave him more time with the students, and secondly the knowledge that this was the only English class that they took meant that because he was not "*passing on the class to a following teacher*", B had fewer restrictions imposed on him, with the result that his practice was "*much more flexible*".

Extract 8.53 (B Interview 4)

I'm not passing those students onto anybody else, so they have two oral communication courses in the first year: A in the first semester and B in the second semester. Both are twice a week. I teach both of them so when they finish my class they're finished with English so I don't have to worry about hitting specific targets or doing specific things in order to not screw up the following teacher's lessons. So I have a lot more freedom in that respect to do things how I want to, skip around and extend things if I want to and cut things if I want to erm so it's much more flexible.

The greater freedom and flexibility had a visible impact on B's classroom practice during the four observations which took place at New University. It became clear how B, while working in this new context, gave his students more time and control over the activities during the class, and how the potential for students to develop their autonomy was greater as a result. Specific examples are given in the following sections.

8.6.1 A comparison of role-plays at Old and New Universities and the freedom given to students

The way in which B used the greater freedom at New University to promote learner autonomy was made clear by a comparison of his approach to student role-plays. At Old

University role-plays only featured occasionally, and when they did were limited in terms of both time and scope. For example, in week 4 B used the final ten minutes of the class for a role-play based on the textbook situation:

Extract 8.54 (B New Observation 4)

If you are A you need to imagine you are working in China you are going to take Chinese lessons you need to explain to your colleague why you want to learn the language. [...] If you are B you are also working in China of course, listen to him or listen to her and explain why you don't want to learn Chinese so the same as Peter and Richard in the textbook. One person was learning Thai one person didn't want to learn Thai. Same situation. A is learning Chinese, B does not want to learn Chinese. I'm going to tell you A or B and then you'll have a little bit of thinking time to prepare your arguments. [B goes around allocating students A or B] Okay you've got about two minutes thinking time to prepare think about your reasons why you were learning Chinese, why you don't want to. [B sets timer; two minutes later it goes off]. Okay thinking time's over you've got the beginning of the conversation on the board, this is the start. You need to continue, if you've got two B's that's fine. Both B's don't want to learn Chinese. Three minutes role-play. 100% English, person A you need to start the conversation. Are you ready? Any questions anybody? Okay off you go, person A go.

B's instructions clearly showed the level of control that he maintained over the activity. These included him describing the exact details of the situation, choosing which student would play which role and then deciding the length of time students would speak for, something that limited student involvement and therefore restricted the potential for them to further develop their autonomy. Though as a communicative exercise it was an efficient way of maximising students' speaking opportunities, it was fairly one-dimensional in terms of its aims, with just two minutes' preparation time before the task and the start of the conversation written on the board to help students begin.

In contrast, at New University role-plays were a deeper process that involved students far more and had fewer restrictions, raising the possibility for them to develop autonomy as a result. Students had more time and were given freedom to write and develop the situation and dialogue together. They wrote collaboratively in pairs and much more class time was devoted to pre-planning, discussing and writing. Though B still set goals or parameters and organised the classroom by making the pairs, during the activity students were given greater choice and responsibility for the situation and language, broadening the potential for the task in terms of its outcomes and making it multi-dimensional, as shown in the following extract:

Extract 8.55 (B New Observation 4)
We're going to write a role-play for James and Nicole. Role-play time again [laughter] I thought you liked role-plays? Your role-play was great last time, why that face? [B laughs] This time different partners so your role-play partners today [names partners] so those are your partners for your role-play today, I'll give you give you notepaper [...] Okay so please sit with your partner talk together and you've got about fifteen minutes to write a role-play use your imagination but your target try to use try to use one one section from here one question and one reply from here and [turns page] two phrases from here okay? So the vocabulary and the phrases we've done today use your imagination two from here one from here try to get them in the conversation you know the situation talk with your partner try to write an interesting role-play you've got about 15 minutes, go.

The extract suggested this was not the first time that B had done role-plays in the class and that he was repeating them because they were successful before and students seemed to have enjoyed doing them, notwithstanding some students' initial negative reactions. This showed how, unlike at Old University, B could direct the class in a way that better reflected what students enjoyed and seemed to want to do, suggesting greater potential for student control and learner autonomy developing. Though there was still a lack of explicit learner involvement in deciding what

happened in the classroom, in other words it was still only weakly autonomous, with more time

and fewer institutional requirements, B could provide students with a learning environment in

which they were "*doing exactly what I'd like them to be doing*", as he explained in the first

interview after he had begun to teach at New University in a discussion about the differences

between Old and New:

Extract 8.56 (B Interview 4)

...because you're not passing on the class to a following teacher, so you're not aiming for specific things to be done by the end of the semester erm and I I would always like to be able to teach like that actually [...] things like writing role-plays erm I mean they really got into it spent loads of time discussing it and well why rush this what's the point (you know) they're doing exactly what I'd like them to be doing they're sitting and working together and helping each other using what's the phrase I wrote in that essay, utilising the full extent of their linguistic knowledge in cooperative groups or something like that. That's what they're doing, you know, why impose an artificial time limit on it? Erm that could could be difficult in terms of if some people have finished very quickly and others need more time but generally they all needed more time than I expected and it was very nice to be able to give them that.

The opportunity to compare B's practice at two different institutions was a serendipitous

occurrence. However, it was an important one for this research because it confirmed how strongly

B believed in developing learner autonomy through peer interaction, collaboration and giving

students freedom and control, and how his ability to do this was limited at Old University. It also

added further weight to the importance of B's professional beliefs, because it showed how

important they were in keeping his teaching practice aligned with the institutional aims rather

than his ideal cognitions about how he would like to teach.

8.7 Chapter summary

This chapter gave a comprehensive account of B's classroom practice in relation to his cognitions to learner autonomy. It showed how his practice was strongly consistent with his cognitions and how he used a variety of systems and techniques to enhance learner autonomy among his students, while also adopting multiple and diverse roles to support them. Through a comparison of how B undertook roleplays at his Old and New Universities, it has been shown how influential B's professional cognitions were and introduced some of the factors (e.g. time, the course structure, the curriculum, and how long a teacher is responsible for a group of students) that can affect a teacher's ability to promote learner autonomy within the classroom.

Chapter 9: Discussion

9.1 Introduction

The preceding four chapters have set out detailed pictures of A and B's cognitions about learner autonomy and comprehensively described the practice they employed to further their students' control of their learning. This chapter discusses the findings from the two case studies with the aim of providing answers to the two research questions set out in section 1.2. It begins by discussing the weaknesses and limitations of the study before dealing with each of the research questions in turn. It finishes by suggesting how this work has contributed to the field and future areas of research.

9.2 Weaknesses / limitations of this study

The relative merits of focusing on two single participants, as in this study, has been discussed above (see Chapter 3, section 3.3.2). Even though generalisability is not recognised as a goal of qualitative research, questions about the wider relevance of the findings remain nevertheless. The fact that observations could only be recorded and not always watched in person by the researcher was also a weakness.

Although the sensitivity of modern recording instruments does not put the researcher at a great disadvantage in terms of capturing discourse, body language and physical interaction is inevitably lost. A camera, though intrusive and sometimes off-putting to students and teachers, could have remedied this situation; however, on a practical level it was unfortunately not possible

to set up a camera on a tripod every week and the classrooms were cramped spaces anyway. In spite of these drawbacks it is believed that this study still provides a valid and timely addition to the research base, drawing together two current areas of interest in a manner hitherto not attempted and at a crucial time in each area's critical development (Kubanyiova & Feryok, 2015).

As has been mentioned, qualitative research generates masses of data and this can dramatically affect the speed of analysis. No matter how methodical and organised (see section 3.6.1), the fact remains that the amount of data collected in this study was challenging for a single researcher. As a result, the time taken between collecting and analysing the data was between one and five years; though almost all of the materials were preserved on paper or digitally, inevitably over time finer details of the interactions during interviews and in classroom observations will have grown weaker or been lost. Furthermore, the collection of the majority of the data in one block followed by an extended period of analysis meant that opportunities to reflect on the emerging picture and adjust data collection accordingly were missed. Having commented and reflected on the weaknesses and limitations of this study, the next sections of this chapter will address the two research questions.

9.3. Similarities and differences in teacher cognitions

The first research question asked: What cognitions do native English speaking teachers working in Japanese universities hold about language learner autonomy?

As Chapters 5-8 showed, the two native English speaker teacher participants in this study both held strong cognitions about learning that were consistent with the enhancement of learner autonomy defined as being a movement towards greater learner control over their learning.

Interestingly, both held these beliefs in spite of no apparent formal education about, or exposure to, learner autonomy specifically in the realm of language teaching – a first point of similarity between the two.

Therefore, an initial finding from this study is that these two experienced teachers of English in Japan shared cognitions; and that experienced teachers have cognitions about developing learner autonomy as a possible classroom goal that may develop naturally, probably as a result of repeated teaching experiences.

As has been shown in the preceding four chapters, there were both similarities and differences between A's beliefs and practices and B's, although it could be argued that the similarities suggest more interesting points of note. These are:

a. both held strong cognitions about learning that were consistent with the enhancement of learner autonomy defined as being a movement towards greater learner control over their learning.

b. both held these beliefs in spite of no apparent formal education about, or exposure to, learner autonomy specifically in the realm of language teaching – suggesting that teaching experiences not teacher education was a more influential factor in the development of these cognitions.

c. both saw positive or enjoyable learning experiences as crucial to language learning and learner autonomy and sought to enhance the classroom in a positive way while actively trying to minimise negative classroom experiences. For example, A by not showing anger and B by avoiding 'spotlighting' to reduce student stress when speaking.

d. both seemed to have adopted more pragmatic policies on L1 use over time – this suggests

the existence of modified cognitions, thereby supporting the long-standing recognition in the field that, while cognitions are resistant to change, they are not immune to it. At the same time, this study showed how the original belief might remain strong in theory even as the teacher implements a modified belief in practice. As Borg (2006) and Borg and Alshumaimeri (2017) have suggested, teachers are likely to hold both types of belief simultaneously, as in the case of B who seemed to have both ideal-oriented and reality-oriented cognitions on language use. In class, for example, B accepted that students could use the L1 for certain discussions but remained firm in his ideal-oriented cognition that students would benefit more by trying to do everything in English. That B cited "frustration" as the main reason for developing a reality-oriented cognition suggests that teacher exhaustion or fatigue, perhaps as a sub-category of students as obstacles to learner autonomy (Borg & Al Busaidi, 2012a, 2012b), could be a future area of study for teacher cognition research. Additionally, B's recognition of belief change seemed to occur at about the time B changed jobs and recognised himself in a changed professional working environment, which suggests more attention should be paid to the effect of working context on cognitions and practices.

e. A final notable similarity between the two teacher participants seems to be their attitude to students. Both had very high expectations of their students and strongly believed they could be successful language learners with a capacity for learner autonomy; this view was reflected in their attitude to learners and the efforts they made to create ability-appropriate and beneficial learning tasks and materials. Though not accurately quantifiable, it is clear that both spent significant amounts of time outside of class on their

students and the courses, either by creating materials or providing feedback on students'

work.

f. Finally, a new finding seems to be the importance to both participants of what has been

described here as 'professional beliefs'. This set of cognitions may have been previously

identified in descriptions of other, different areas of cognitions but in my case studies,

they were cited by both participants as a singular and separate body of cognitions.

Similarly, to my knowledge, these cognitions have not been represented previously as a

group of attitudes, positions and beliefs that A and B each held about their workplace and

included students, colleagues, parents and other stakeholders. This thesis argues that,

while these sets of cognitions were not the same for both A and B, for each teacher they

seemed be a significant factor in their classroom decision making; this included decisions

they made about how they encouraging learner autonomy. In B's case, they seemed to be

based on a professional obligation he felt to an institution who had entrusted him with an

employment contract, while A imagined a reciprocal bond of respect borne out of her

many years teaching at the institution. In both cases, it has been shown how professional

cognitions largely played out through adherence to the syllabus, were an important

mitigating factor in how teachers introduced autonomy into the classroom and the extent

they pursued it.

The most obvious differences between A and B were ethnic and experiential ones.

However, while A and B had significantly different prior life experiences and present attitudes, it

seems significant that this did not result in differences between their conceptions of learner

autonomy, nor how they tried to implement it in their teaching practice. As shown above, the key

guiding principles which they followed in the classroom were trying to create a positive learning environment while simultaneously developing confidence and positive feelings about studying English. That they both followed this philosophy in materialistically different ways further supports Breen et al.'s (2001) suggestion that a group of teachers might follow the same practice based on different principles or have the same principles but embark on different practices. A's and B's cases seem to show clear support for this idea, even if it offers no evidence for why this might happen beyond day to day teacher meetings and exchanging of ideas.

In terms of different practices and reasons for them, detailed accounts have been given in the case study chapters (see Chapters 5-8). In sum though, A's and B's teaching styles were significantly different – as seen in the observations and elucidated in the diaries, different classroom materials, activities and reasoning were in evidence. The reason for these differences in spite of seemingly shared principles are, beyond their ages and experiences (for example, A was less confident using a computer), difficult to explain. Needless to say, no study can possibly uncover all possible factors in a case; however, it is hoped that this thesis can be considered a valid attempt to have done so.

9.4 The role of context

Research question 2 asked: How do these teachers try to foster language learner autonomy in their classrooms and what role do cognitions play in how teachers do this?

A second significant contribution of this study is its detailed description of the way in which the teachers' beliefs in language learner autonomy, and attempts to foster this in their classrooms, interacted with their working contexts. While context has long been recognised as an

important factor in how teachers teach, this study offers clear evidence of the way in which context could both enable and hinder teachers attempts to foster autonomy in the classroom. It is also clear, however, that A and B's unique personalities, while interacting with the context in quite different ways, seemed to produce similar beliefs about learner autonomy and how to promote it in students.

Both participants revealed different insights about the context in which they worked, something that can be traced back to their differing employment positions in the institution where they worked. Largely, these insights revealed a great respect and gratitude for the institution even when they might disagree with it. In A's case, as a part-time teacher, her prioritisation of institutional requirements over her desire to further learner autonomy seemed to generate from a latent fear of doing something wrong and possibly losing classes as a result, which would damage her self-image as a teacher as well as leading to economic loss. For B, on the other hand, his self-imposed limitations on fostering autonomy seemed generated by his understanding of professional behaviour and interpretation of the institutional culture where he worked; this is supported by the fact that, when he moved university during the research and identified a less stringent regime, he introduced more time for learner autonomy activities. In reality, the researcher observed that the lack of administrative oversight at the institution suggested that had either teacher done as they had really wished they would have been unlikely to suffer any consequences, an observation that suggests the way in which these two teachers' self-policing practices were unnecessarily limiting and, in reality, they could have taught more according to their ideal cognitions than they were prepared to risk in the observed classes.

9.5 Contribution to the field

This study confirms the complexity of teachers' cognitions – cognitions are personal and practical, tacit, systematic, dynamic. This study also adds two comprehensive accounts of the ways in which teacher cognition interacts with classroom practice aimed at fostering learner autonomy. In terms of its use of multiple sources – interviews, observations, teacher' diaries, and teaching materials – it can truly claim to show two unique and all-embracing accounts of A and B's beliefs and practice. At the same time, it offers high quality case study research that, it is hoped, will prove useful to other scholars intending to use a similar methodology, as well as highlighting the importance of longitudinal research that offers the researcher greater exposure to their subject or subjects within their chosen context.

The effect that context had on the development of participants' cognitions and the impact this knowledge had on their practice has reiterated the argument that studies of language teacher cognition must not be divorced from the context in which they are applied. If, as has been mentioned, calls to make the ecology of the teacher central to the study of teacher cognition become a reality, then this study is a first step in terms of its investigation into learner autonomy as filtered through language teacher cognitions, as well as its detailed analysis of teachers' practice. On a related note, though this research confirms many things already understood about teacher cognition, such as its complexity, and the way in which teachers prioritise different cognitions (both A and B seemingly prioritising their professional ones over their ones about learner autonomy) it also highlights the influence of concepts like emotions and ethnicity that seem under researched.

9.6 Future areas for research

Though some suggestions have been made in the previous section as to the future directions for research into teacher cognitions and learner autonomy, in both cases there is an obvious lack of published research (Benson, 2011; Borg, 2006). Namely, strong empirical studies that investigate links between each of the concepts and student language learning outcomes (Borg, 2006; Johnson, 2009; Kubanyiova & Feryok, 2015; Tsui, 2011). On teacher cognition research, Borg (2006, p. 284) offers this damning verdict: "From a language learning point of view, teacher cognition research is unsatisfactory because it neglects the quality of learning; it says nothing about the kinds of cognitions which are likely to enhance learning outcomes". Benson (2011) offers a similar criticism of the effect of learner autonomy on language acquisition.

In addition, Borg (2006) also notes how more longitudinal studies of cognitive change are needed. Li (2013) adds that there must be a greater exploration of the role of cultural knowledge, self-perceived teacher image, and educational priorities in cognition. She also calls for longitudinal research into groups of teachers in the same institution to look at the way their cognitions compare. This would be useful because, as Borg has noted, teacher cognition has tended to focus on individuals rather than communities of practice. This thesis can claim to make a valuable contribution to this aim.

The future challenges for research into both teacher cognition and learner autonomy seem remarkably similar: how to measure learning and empirically show how it has been affected by either of the two topics. Though difficult, these seem to be the logical next steps in furthering and sustaining the importance of both subjects in the fields of TESOL and Applied Linguistics.

As much as current research has already identified a great number of influences on

language teacher cognition, there is still more to learn. As this study highlights, emotions, teacher identity in the form of professional cognitions, changing jobs and outside events can have an impact on teacher cognitions, and changes in these will most likely lead to changes in practice. This is particularly true in the current Japanese educational landscape in which many teachers are employed either part-time or on short-term contracts. The connection between A's precarious employment status and her desire to teach illuminates just how important an issue this is. As Kubanyiova and Feryok (2015) point out, more ecological teacher cognition studies would give a clearer picture of how change in one area of a teacher's life impacts their cognitions and practice.

World events and the huge population movements of the past few decades have led to the growth of multilingual language learners (Kubanyiova & Feryok 2015). How teachers adapt to these changes and how their cognitions adapt to different teaching situations is undoubtedly a crucial area of research to pursue. Although Japan has so far it has resisted large-scale immigration, with a falling birthrate, a paucity of workers, and a rapidly aging population as well as a growth in mixed marriages, it seems highly likely that the contextual landscape for language teaching in Japan will change hugely over the next decade, which in turn will open up opportunities for research into diverse student communities.

Chapter 10: Conclusion

In addressing the lack of combined research on two current major areas of interest, this thesis makes a significant contribution to applied linguistics and related fields. The establishment of teacher cognitions and learner autonomy on the research agenda should surprise no one, but the lack of major attempts until now to link the two should.

This research involved only two teachers. This small number meant that a detailed and comprehensive survey of their beliefs and practices could take place. Using a qualitative case study methodology, the research followed two experienced English teachers who were established at the same tertiary institution. Both tried to promote learner autonomy amongst their students based on personal definitions uncovered during research. These drew on their Japanese teaching context and experience, and recognised and embraced the individuality of students. Interestingly, neither had any formal exposure to learner autonomy, suggesting that its goal is a natural consequence of language teaching that develops for teachers as a result of exposure to students and experience. If this is the case, then teacher trainers who currently place learner autonomy at the start of a teacher training course, might consider the value of doing it later with more experienced practitioners whose exposure to different types of students is greater.

Another important area explored in the thesis was the wider circles of influence which make up a teacher's ecosystem. The influence of past experiences, job concerns, family life and other topics which came up during interviews is a potent reminder of how teaching never occurs in isolation: teachers, when they enter the classroom, inevitable carry a range of mental baggage which affects how they work. The thesis thus highlights the importance in this kind of research

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of utilising as many sources as possible, and reveals the advantages of case study approaches.

Finally, perhaps the most valuable contribution this thesis makes to the field is as a timely reminder. A reminder that teachers are active thinkers, fully involved in their work, deeply sympathetic to their students and their goals and almost always strive for the best outcomes, often struggling against circumstances that would constrain them. In an increasingly mechanised and automated world, this thesis serves as a reminder that successful teaching ultimately relies on the human touch.

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Yin, R. K. (2012). *Applications of case study research.* Thousand Oaks: Sage.

Appendices

Appendix 1: The CW1 Syllabus at Old University – A's copy

成績評価方法 / Grading Criteria and Method of Evaluation

前期に比べて変更されることにはよりません。

類別 Kind	割合 Percentage	評価基準等 Grading Criteria etc.
定期試験（筆記） End of Semester Examination (Written)	0 %	
レポート試験 Report Examination （レポート課題を掲示等で周知する。） （A report to be submitted by the standard deadline）	0 %	
平常点評価 Continuous Assessment 日常点（日頃の授業への取り組み状況） Evaluation of Everyday Performance in Class 平常点（小テスト、学習プロセス） Exam or Final Verification of Attainment Levels レポート Report	100 %	30% is for Writing and Discussion tasks 20% is for Paragraphs 20% is for Presentations (5% practice presentations, 15% final presentations) 20% for Active Participation 10% for Skills Test

学習および研究に関するアドバイス / Advice to Students on Study and Research Methods

Students should become familiar with the library and internet use. Read Study Skills in English by Michael Wallace in the library to help with study skills.

Active participation in all class activities is required. If you participate actively, you will learn more in this class. Please do your best!

Attendance is part of your grade.

If you miss classes, it will lower your grade.

If you miss a class contact your teacher and explain why you missed the class.

Remember that you are responsible for any information you miss if you are absent.

Late homework may not be accepted in some cases.

（学部科目 / Undergraduate Courses）授業外学習の指示 / Recommendations for Private Study
（大学院科目 / Graduate Courses）授業の方法 / Study Method

Students must be prepared to write not only assigned paragraphs, but also to complete other assignments such as writing exercises, and doing research for presentations.

Students must be prepared to spend approximately 3 hours for study outside of class.

All assignments given as homework must be prepared before the next class.

Get plenty of sleep at home. Sleeping will not be tolerated in class!

If you miss a class, you are responsible for finding out what happened in class and homework. Ask your classmates and instructors.

教員との連絡方法 / How to Contact Teaching Staff

学生の直接相談 / Talk with Students

その他 / Other

授業連絡をしているときそのみ、Webコースツールに掲載されているシラバスから入室して、関連するこの画面末行きます。

http://webct.ritsumei.ac.jp/webct/entryPageIns.dowebct

その他 / Others　　　　's e-mai :

授業科目名クラス
Course Title Class

	開講期 Term	曜日・時限 Day of the week, Period	単位数 Credit	担当者 Instructor
英語CW1	前期	前期	1	

＊1：時間割は大社本（理系）で表記しています。

授業の概要 / Course Outline

This course is designed to further develop students' communication and writing skills through discussion, presentations and paragraph writing. Students will be required to complete paragraph writing assignments, to demonstrate that they can give opinions with clear reasons and to give presentations in English. The skills in this course will serve as a foundation for Communication and Writing 2 and courses which follow.

到達目標 / Attainment Objectives

By the end of this course you should be able to:
identify and write a topic sentence, supporting sentences and a concluding sentence
organize information and write that information as opinion paragraphs of 150 words or more
express opinions, agreement and disagreement in an informal manner
present a comparison and contrast presentation to a class for 2 to 3 minutes with minimal prompts
use visual aids (poster) in presentation

前期に比べて変更されることにはよりません。

教科書 / Textbooks

書名をクリックすると出版社等の所在状況を確認できます。
検索方法が不明な方はカウンターまたは、図書館にお尋ねください。
library@st.ritsumei.ac.jp

書名 Title	著者 Author	出版社 Publisher	ISBNコード ISBN Code	備考 Comment
Impact Issues 2	Richard R. Day, Joseph Shaules and Junko Yamanaka	Pearson Longman	978-962-01-931-8	This textbook will be continued in CW2.

参考書 / Reference Books

書名をクリックすると出版社等の所在状況を確認できます。
検索方法が不明な方はカウンターまたは、図書館にお尋ねください。
library@st.ritsumei.ac.jp

書名 Title	著者 Author	出版社 Publisher	ISBNコード ISBN Code	備考 Comment
Study Skills in English	Michael Wallace			

参考になる WWW ページ / Web Pages Useful for Reference

http://www.impactseries.com/issues (video clips)

http://owl.english.purdue.edu/

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Extra Notes About the Class

授業スケジュール / Course Schedule

※履修している学生に対して事前に説明があった上で、変更される場合があります。

授業回数 Lecture	テーマ / Theme キーワード / Key Word CW1 Impact Issues 2
Week 1	Introduction and orientation to the course Needs Analysis
Week 2	Unit 1 First impressions
Week 3	Unit 2 Traffic jam
Week 4	Unit 3 Who needs the local language?
Week 5	Unit 4 Getting ahead Presentation workshop
Week 6	Presentation workshop First paragraph due
Week 7	Practice presentations
Week 8	Practice presentations
Week 9	Unit 5 Forever single
Week 10	Unit 6 What are friends for?
Week 11	Unit 7 What's for dinner Presentation preparation
Week 12	Unit 10 Why go to school? Second paragraph due
Week 13	Poster presentations
Week 14	Poster presentations
Week 15	Poster presentations Test

UNIT 1 — FIRST IMPRESSIONS
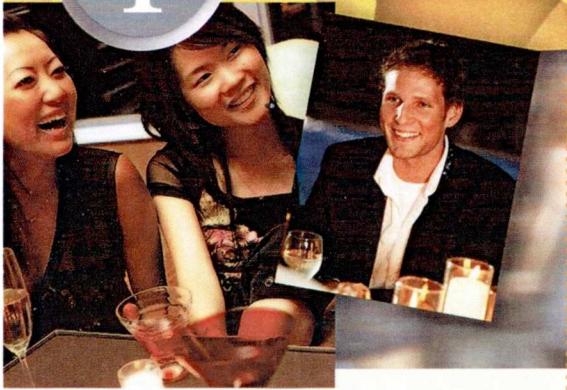
Getting Ready

Work with a partner.
Answer these questions.

1. A "first impression" is your first "opinion" of someone. What is your first impression of these people?

2. When are first impressions important?
3. What do people usually think of you when they meet you for the first time?

Situation ◄ Track 1

Sandy and Tamara are at a party and have been talking to a cute guy. After the guy leaves, Sandy is upset at Tamara. Listen to their conversation.

Dave: So, you ladies are students?

Sandy: Yes, I'm a chemistry major.

Dave: That sounds, uh, hard. Are you a student, too?

Tamara: Yeah, just taking a few classes. Enjoying life.

Dave: Oh, cool!

Dave's Friend: Hey, Dave! Come here!

Dave: Uh, I'm sorry, I'll be back. Don't go away.

. . . .

Sandy: Oh, Tamara, I hate it when you do that!

Tamara: What?

Sandy: Whenever you talk to a cute guy, you hide how smart you are. You said, "I'm just taking a few classes," but you are doing graduate research in physics!

Tamara: Guys don't like it if you sound too smart. Why did you tell them that you're a chemistry major?

Sandy: Because it's true! I want a guy to know that I'm intelligent. But you smile and pretend everything the guy says is brilliant. So they all talk to you and ignore me. It's not fair!

Tamara: It's just flirting.

Sandy: Guys are so predictable. Only interested in a woman's looks. You're smart and beautiful. Don't hide your abilities.

Tamara: Look, guys are afraid of women who are too smart. Besides, it's easier to control the guy if he thinks he's smarter than you are.

Sandy: You're terrible! A real man will appreciate you for your talent, not your looks.

Tamara: Maybe. Oh, look, he's coming back!

Glossary **Oh, cool! =** Oh, that's great! **graduate research =** high-level university study **major =** university student's area of study
brilliant = very smart and interesting **ignore =** to not pay attention to **flirting =** showing romantic interest in someone

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Check Your Understanding

Complete the sentences. Circle a, b, or c.

1. The cute guy is interested in talking to:
   a) Sandy.   b) Tamara.   c) neither.

2. Sandy is upset at Tamara because Tamara:
   a) pretends she's not smart.   b) talks too much.   c) is too quiet.

3. Tamara doesn't talk to guys about her studies because she:
   a) doesn't like what she studies.   b) thinks guys don't like smart girls.   c) thinks Sandy is smarter.

4. Sandy thinks women should:
   a) be proud of their intelligence.   b) try to look good.   c) not talk to boys.

5. Tamara thinks guys are:
   a) interested in smart women.   b) scared of beautiful women.   c) scared of smart women.

What Do You Think? Track 2

A Listen carefully to the opinions of these four people. Check all of the opinions you agree with.

☐ **Anna:** I would never change how I act in front of men. That's stupid!

☐ **Iris:** Guys just care about looks. It's too bad women have to adapt to them.

☐ **Shingo:** Intelligence is really sexy in a woman! Smart women should be themselves!

☐ **Mark:** Smart women should hide their intelligence. Men like to feel smarter than women.

B Work with a partner. What do you think of the opinions above?

What do you think of Iris's opinion?

opinionNETWORK

What	do you think	of	Iris's opinion?
		about	her idea?
I disagree	with Iris.	She's	totally wrong.
I agree			right.

I disagree with her. I think guys care about personality, too.

Extending the Topic *What do you look for in others?*

A When you meet someone for the first time, what is important to you? What do you look for in a person? Rank these features in order of importance to you (1 = very important, 5 = not important).

Appearance	Rank	Personality/Lifestyle	Rank
hair style/color		intelligence	
height		sense of humor	
smile		common interests	
eyes		education	
clothes		job	
my idea:		my idea:	

B Discuss your rankings with two or three classmates.

BASIC

A: When I meet a man/woman for the first time, I always look at his/her clothes first.

B: Really? I don't care at all about clothes.

EXTENSION

B: Why are clothes so important to you?

A: Well, you can learn a lot from a person's clothes. What's important to you?

B: A sense of humor is definitely the most important to me. I like people who can make me laugh!

C Report your group's ideas to the class. What was the most important quality in your group? What was the least important?

Culture Corner

How to Create a Good First Impression

Dress modestly.
(not overdressed or underdressed)

Communicate clearly.
(don't be too shy or too talkative)

Show interest by remembering people's names.

Avoid jokes.
(jokes can hurt someone's feelings)

Source: askmen.com

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Sharing My Ideas *Introduce yourself*

STEP 1

Choose

Select one topic:

☐ The real me

☐ Who am I?

☐ My idea:
....

STEP 2

Prepare

Speaking notes:

What do other people think about me?

I'm .... and .... and ....

What am I really like?

I am ....

Example: ....

I love ....

I'm very interested in ....

What are my future plans?

I want to ....

Someday I hope to ....

Adjectives to help you:
outgoing shy kind unkind talkative quiet honest dishonest
friendly cheerful selfish mature immature thoughtful mean
generous stingy patient impatient

Language Hints:

Beginning and ending your presentation:

First, I'll talk about...

In conclusion,...

Giving opinions:

I think...

...is important to me (because)...

STEP 3

Rehearse

Practice saying your ideas silently while looking at your notes.

After you practice once, improve your speaking notes. Then practice again. Look at your notes only one or two times!
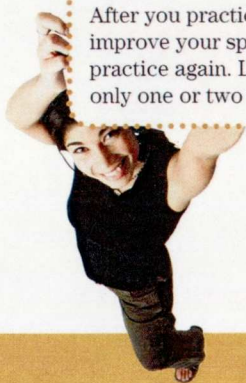
STEP 4

Present

Present yourself to a partner or to a group.

Listener task: Write one question you would like to ask the presenter.

Presentation Tip:
Take a deep breath before you begin speaking. Sit/Stand up straight.

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Appendix 3: Participant Diary Prompts

i. What were the goals of today's class? Did you achieve them? Why or why not?

ii. How much of today's class was guided by syllabus goals set by others and what were decided by you and/or the students?

iii. What opportunities did your students have for exploring their use of English in today's class?

iv. Overall, were you satisfied with today's class?

Extra diary prompts (Week 10)

iv. Up to this point in the semester, have there been opportunities for students in class to reflect on their learning or on how they learn languages? If yes, can you explain those opportunities? And what students might have learned?

v. Have you been instructing students on strategies? E.g., using brainstorming before writing, hesitating before speaking etc. Why or why not?

vi. What did you learn from the student feedback midway through the semester? How have you responded?

vii. Have you tried anything new recently? If so what was it and what was it in response to? Or have you changed the way you did something compared to last year?

vii. Are there any other examples of what teachers do in their classes that have surprised you this semester and made you reflect on what you do in yours?

Appendix 4: Participants' informed consent form

Appendix B: Participant informed consent form

Informed Consent Form for Teacher Participants (April 2011)

What signing this form means

This form is designed to give you detailed information about the research in which I have asked you to participate. By signing this document it shows you are aware of the nature of the research, the demands of the research process and that you are happy for the data to be used as outlined below.

Please be reassured that signing this form is a statement of understanding; it is not a contract. Signing this form does not mean that you have to go through with the research. If at any time you have a question or want clarification of the research process or how data is being used, please don't hesitate to contact me. If at any time you feel uncomfortable with the research or that there is a problem that means you cannot continue, you are free to withdraw from the research process. I will also sign the form and give you a copy of the signed form for your records.

Why do we need to sign a form?

As this research forms part of my PhD research with Aston University, I am subject to the requirements of an ethical research board who have approved my research plan and they require me to have written consent from you with regard to this research. The form also means thatyou have a clear idea of the research and what participation entails.

This form:

I. Explains the purpose of the research
II. Explains the kind of data being collected
III. Explains the timetable for data collection
IV. Explains how data will be used, stored and disseminated
V. Tries to answer questions you may have

I. The purpose of my research

I am undertaking this research as part of a PhD in Applied Linguistics through distance learning at Aston University, UK. My supervisor is Dr Sue Garton and the subject area is autonomy and teacher beliefs. The general aim of the research is to look at current

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language teaching practice in Japan with regard to autonomy and the underlying beliefs of teachers that inform their practice. It also appreciates the existence of other stakeholders in education such as students, institutions, administrators etc. and so could involve investigating their beliefs as well. The completion date for the PhD is 2016.

The research process is continually evolving and may change as a result of the ongoing analysis of the data. In the event of any changes that may involve you, I will try to keep you informed. If you have any questions at any time, please don't hesitate to ask me.
Because this research is exploratory in nature my stance is non-judgmental. My position as researcher does not make my opinions or understanding superior to yours and in this sense the research I am proposing to do is a collaboration in which your voice and actions will be respected. Throughout our collaboration I hope that you will feel comfortable talking with me.

II. The kind of data I want and how it will be collected
The research design in this investigation is that of a case study. Case study involves the collection of data from various sources over a period of time in order to gain as full an understanding as possible of the situation being researched. I would like to collect the following sources of data from you:

> Interviews with you (audio recorded)
> Observations of your classes (audio recorded)
> A diary reflecting on the classroom written by you (collected by email)

In addition, I would like to ask the students of the classes I observe to fill out a questionnaire and participate in focus group interviews.

III. The timetable for data collection
I would like to collect data from you over the spring semester beginning in April 2011. The timetable would be something like this:

Pre-semester   Interview (1 Hour)

Week 1   Observation 1 (No RS)
Week 2   Observation 2 (RS)

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Qualifying Report

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	Student questionnaire 1
Week 3	
Week 4	Observation 3 (RS)
Week 5	
Week 6	Observation 4 (RS)
Week 7	
Week 8	Observation 5 (RS)
Week 9	
Week 10	Observation 6 (RS)
Week 11	
Week 12	Observation 7 (RS)
Week 13	Student questionnaire 2
Week 14	Student focus group interview
Week 15	Observation 8 (RS)
	Student focus group interview
Post-semester	Interview (1 hour)

Pre- and post-semester interviews: I would like to interview you both before and after the research begins. Each interview would hopefully last no longer than about an hour and would focus on issues connected to the research. For convenience, where possible, I will try to do the interviews on campus, but if we can agree on somewhere else that is suitable then that's fine. I will try to arrange the interview in advance, but there is never any need to prepare for the interview.

Observations: In total I will observe you eight times (though if you agreed the number could be revised up or down and the weeks changed), although I might not always be present in the classroom. If absent, I would ask you to record yourself. Please note that you should not prepare anything special for these classes, but just teach them as you would if I was not there.

Mid-term interview: If something of interest occurs during the observation process I might ask you to do a short interview about it, or might email you a question.

Student questionnaire: In order to get maximum number of questionnaire responses I would like to do the questionnaires in class time. The questionnaire is a double-sided A3

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paper consisting of Likert scale questions, tick-box structured answers and open-ended questions.

Artifacts: I would like to collect any materials you use (other than the textbook) in your classes either in printed form or by email.

Diary: I would like you to write a short diary entry following each class (so once a week) answering the four prompts below. Please send me your entry by email or, if you prefer, you could print it and leave it in my mailbox in the teachers' lounge.

    i.   What were the goals of today's class? Did you achieve them? Why or why not?

    ii.   How much of today's class was guided by syllabus goals set by others and what were decided by you and/or the students?

    iii.   What opportunities did your students have for exploring their use of English in today's class?

    iv.   Overall, were you satisfied with today's class?

IV. How data will be used, stored and disseminated

Anonymity of answers

Both during the data collection process and afterwards you will not be identified with the data that I collect. In the transcripts and in any published research you will be referred to by a letter or with a changed name. Any audio files stored on my computer or on CD will be labeled in the same way. Nobody will have access to transcripts, audio recordings, artifacts or diaries except people connected to the PhD process (e.g. my supervisor, ethics board etc.)

Public nature of the research

Inevitably, as the research will be going in a public environment people will be aware of our research collaboration and ask questions about what we are doing. Please feel free to discuss the research with others. I will not disclose your answers from interviews, events that occur as part of the observation process, nor the details of your diaries.

In the final research report and any published papers that come out of the research process, excerpts from interviews, diary entries, artifacts and classroom observation will be used to support any conclusions I may make. In that event you will be not be

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identified by name. However, in describing your context in any published work and in any presentations I would need to include details of your situation (e.g. age, ethnicity) so as to give accurate impression of the participant. In certain circumstances this could lead to you being identified by colleagues. If you have any concerns about this, please talk to me about it.

Similarly, the names of students and colleagues who you may mention in the classroom or in interviews will be changed in any published work, though again their context may be described.

Because the nature of this research is reflective I may well discuss the details of my research with others, including colleagues and students. However, at no time will I identify any information you provide as having coming from you.

The published research and data storage

As mentioned above, the main purpose of this research is for a PhD thesis; however, it is also hoped that data gathered could be used in other published pieces of research and future presentations. In the event of that happening, the same anonymity will be applied to the data. Any future use of the data will be for academic activities such as presentations or papers.

Data will be stored both in printed form either in my home or office and digitally on my computer and separate hard drive. CDs will also be made of any audio recordings. I will be careful about safeguarding the data at all time. Because of its potential richness I do not propose to destroy the data (e.g. audio recordings) after the completion of the PhD research as I may use it for other research purposes. However, we can discuss this issue if you wish.

Your access to the data

I am happy to supply you with both audio recordings on CD and printed transcripts of the interviews. In fact to check the validity of my interpretation of the data, I may ask you to look at the transcripts and comment.

Retrospective consent for data already collected

In some cases I have already collected data from you as part of other research. In this case, I would like to use the data as part of my PhD program and any future analysis

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will follow the same principles (e.g. of anonymity) as above.

V. Questions you may have

i. **Will my students get to see the data I give you?** *In terms of the diary entries and interviews, no. It is possible that in the focus group interviews I would play parts of the class to remind students (stimulated recall) or show them transcripts of the classroom observation.*

ii. **Will you guarantee my anonymity?** *I will do my best to ensure that your views and actions are not identified with you both during the research and after publication of the results.*

iii. **What about other conversations?** *Other conversations we have outside of scheduled interviews and observations could form part of the body of data.*

iv. **Will I be able to read the final PhD thesis?** *Absolutely!*

Subject consent form

I have read the description of the research project to be carried out by Richard Silver. I have had the opportunity to discuss it with him and ask any questions I have.

I understand that I will be asked to take part in interviews and class observations, to provide classroom materials and to keep a diary for the duration of a semester. I also understand that a questionnaire may be distributed to my students and that they may be also be interviewed.

I understand that my anonymity will be preserved as outlined above. I also agree that the data can be used, stored and disseminated as outlined in this document. In addition, I give retrospective consent for data already collected to be used in the same way as future data collected.

I agree to take part in the study. I understand that I may withdraw from the study at any time, for whatever reason, and if I do, I will inform the researcher.

_____

Signature

_____

Print name

_____

E-mail address

Researcher's declaration
I also agree to follow the guidelines for this research as set out in this document.

Name: Richard Silver
Signature: Contact details: richinwit@hotmail.com
Date: 080-3116-1795

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Appendix 5: Transcription conventions

The original transcriptions of both interviews and observations generally followed the following conventions which were adapted from Richards (2003). Extracts included in the thesis were edited for clarity of meaning and punctuation added intuitively to aid the reader.

.	judged to be the end of clause or sentence
?	questioning intonation
(3.0)	Pause of about three seconds

NB Only pauses over 2 seconds have been included in transcripts

[...]	researcher's explanatory gloss or translation
[...]	whole sections or parts removed
...	parts or sections of sentence removed

(guessed)	unsure transcription
(xxx)	unable to transcribe
italics	foreign words

Adapted from Richards, K. (2003). *Qualitative Inquiry in TESOL*. Basingstoke: Palgrave Macmillan, P. 173.

judged to be the end of sentence	
(3.0)	Pause of about three seconds
[comment]	explanatory comment, translation

NB Only pauses over 2 seconds have been included in the transcripts

Adapted from Richards, K. (2003). *Qualitative Inquiry in TESOL*. Basingstoke: Palgrave Macmillan, P. 173.

Appendix 6: Example of Nvivo coding

Appendix E: List of codes generated so far (Participant B)
NB Codes in bold and italics are sub-codes of the preceding code

Name	Sources	References
Accuracy	3	3
Asking students	5	17
Belief about success	8	27
beliefs about autonomy	17	125
beliefs about communicating	14	53
Beliefs about language learning	12	31
Beliefs about native teachers	2	4
Beliefs about peer teaching	10	22
Beliefs about progress	3	6
Beliefs about students	15	79
Beliefs about teacher autonomy	2	7
Beliefs about teacher roles	15	52
Beliefs about technology	5	8
Beliefs about university	5	17
blackboard	2	2
Career	1	5
class leaders	10	19
Class management	6	24
Belief about class management		
Class arrangement		
Class size	3	4
Classroom practice	17	210
code switching	9	20
Coercion	1	1
Communication room	1	1
Comparisons	4	15
Computers blocking the flow of communication	1	1
Course coordination	1	1
Course materials	2	9
CUBE	3	5
dichotomy of teacher roles	1	1

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Eikaiwa	1	1
English language rules	12	21
Enjoyable teaching experience	5	14
Bad experiences		
Positive experience		
Experimentation	2	2
Expertise	9	33
Unexpected outcomes		
Feedback	1	23
first class	6	27
Foreign culture	4	6
Formal Practical Knowledge (e.g. conferences) (Nodes)	1	1
Frustration	9	30
grammar translation	1	1
Handouts	7	9
have a go at them	14	33
high and junior high school	4	6
homework	13	41
Intervention	10	28
Japanese English teachers	2	9
knowledge of students	15	67
Language learning strategies	15	41
Learning goals	10	17
make students comfortable	9	25
materials	2	5
Monitoring	14	71
motivation	8	26
Observation	1	2
One year or one semester classes	1	1
Other teachers	1	1
Participants own learning experiences	5	16
Participants self-evaluation	2	17
points system	6	15
Praise	13	31
professionalism	7	16

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Purpose of university	6	12
Rapport	11	25
Influences on rapport		
Reflecting on language learning	6	8
Reflective diary	2	3
Research Impact	2	5
restrictions	2	9
Rits English classes	9	48
Elements of a good CW class		
Change to classes		
Luck		
Peripheral things		
Horizontal connections between the classes		
Ritsumeikan the Institution	5	12
Routine	12	38
seeing what happens	3	6
stereotype	1	4
student characteristics	8	26
Teacher-researcher	2	2
Tests	2	3
textbooks	5	9
TOEIC	2	3
Trick	8	16
Willingness to speak	4	11

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Appendix 7: A's mid-semester review survey

Week 6 (3/2)

HSION PARTICIPANT # 11/0

2011/05/19

2/2

Name:_____

Class:_____

Mid-Semester Review

What have you learned in this class?

What do you enjoy in this class and why!?

What don't you enjoy in this class?
How do you/want/to improve it?
What other things do you want to learn?

Appendix 8: A's writing correction key

Rich, 6/9   Week 9 (½)

Correction Key

sm ⟶ small letters   cap. ⟶ capital letter

o = change to another word

$\overset{o\ o}{VorA}$ = insert a word

(   ) what are you trying to say? It is difficult to understand.

〔   〕'' It is partially difficult to understand.

sp. ⟶ spelling mistake

For homework/prepare Self Introduction.

Week 1 (4/7)

Please write 5 important things about yourself and introduce yourself to the class.
1)
2)
3)
4)
5)

Please write a paragraph about yourself:
(10~15 sentences)

Please listen to your classmates. Write down some notes:

Please write a paragraph about your classmates. What is your impression?

Appendix 10: A's student worksheet showing student reflection Extract 6.45 (A Handout Weeks 13-15)

Week 13   2011·7·07 ½
ASTW B.

Presentation
Please write your goals today as an audience member and or presenter.
(3~5 sentences)
*+****+***

What new information did you hear today? (5~8 sentences)
*+****+****+**

What physical visual and story message techniques did you see today? Please write specific comments. /(5~8 sentences)
*+****+***

How did you do today? (atleast 3 sentences)
*+****

Extended Questions/ Please ask each group atleast two/questions

(Q
A
(Q
A
(Q
A
(Q
A
(Q
A
(Q
A
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A
(Q
A
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A
(Q
A
(Q
A

Extra comments and last comments to Heidi.
(atleast 3~5 sentences)
*+++**

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Appendix 11: A's student worksheet showing reflection and repurposing of textbook

5/26 - Students work on two ... as they wait for their turn for interviews.

Name: _____

A→ WORKSHEET   CW1 Impact Issues 2

P.14 Traffic Jam. Please read the situation. On p.15 four people have opinions. Who do you agree with most? Why? (5 sentences please)
* * * * *

P.20 Becoming international. Please look and complete Extending the Topic A. Summarize the information, be sure to include some of your own ideas and write a short paragraph. (7~10 sentences)
* * * * * * * *

P.22 What is situation "Getting Ahead" about? Please describe some main parts. (5 sentences)
* * * * * *

BONUS POINTS [if you have time on the back] free-write about any subject of your interest
Draw & WRITE *add a drawing

p.26 Forever Single. Please answer the two questions in the Getting Ready box. (work by yourself)
1)

2)

p.28 Extending the Topic "Stay single or get married? What do you think of marriage? Which is better, staying single or getting married? Why? (5~7 sentences)
* * * * * * *

9) How was your interview? What did you learn? What did you feel? (5 sentences)
* * * * * * *

10) What were some things your partner and Heidi said that were interesting? Why? (5 sentences)
* * * * *

Week 7

Appendix 12: A's final group work worksheet showing connections between self-evaluation and future goal setting

Week 11(4)

Name:

Last Class Group Work

What kind of good visuals will you use? (Use) some ideas from last week's good poster samples.

*
*
*
*
*

What are some good presentation skills you will use during your final presentation?

*
*
*
*
*

How did you all do for the practice / presentation? describe some good points.

*
*
*
*

How will you improve for your final presentation?

*
*
*
*
*

Finally what are your goals for the final presentation? What do you want the audience members to /do for you? What will you wear? Any other extra comments.

*
*
*
*
*
*
*
*
*
*
*

Economics CW1, Intermediate

Course Description and Introduction

Textbook: Impact Issues 2 (2009), Day, R. *et al*, Longman.

Instructor:

My e-mail address:

1) Course objectives

This course is designed to further develop students' communication and writing skills through discussion, presentations and paragraph writing. Students will be required to complete paragraph writing assignments, to demonstrate that they can give opinions with clear reasons and to give presentations in English. The skills in this course will serve as a foundation for Communication and Writing 2 and courses which follow.

By the end of this course you should be able to:

- identify and write a topic sentence, supporting sentences and a concluding sentence
- organize information and write that information as opinion paragraphs of 160 words or more
- express opinions, agreement and disagreement in an informal manner
- make a 5 minute presentation to the class using visual aids

2) Provisional schedule

	Lesson contents/Assignments due
Week 1 04/08	Introduction to CW courses and orientation
Week 2* 04/15	Unit 1: First Impressions **Writing:** Exercise 1 Paragraph Format
Week 3* 04/22	Unit 2: Traffic Jam **Writing:** Exercise 3 Paragraph Structure
Week 4* 04/29	Unit 3: Who Needs the Local Language? **Writing:** Exercise 4 and 5 Topic Sentences 1 and 2
Week 5* 05/06	**Writing:** Exercise 6 and 7 Support Sentences 1 and 2

Week 6* 05/13	Exercise 11: Presentation Workshop **Paragraph One deadline**
Week 7* 05/20	Unit 5: Forever Single Exercise 11: Presentation Workshop continued
Week 8* 05/27	Unit 6: What Are Friends For? Presentation Practice
Week 9* 06/03	Unit 7: What's for Dinner? **Writing:** Exercise 8 and 9 Examples and Details 1 and 2
Week 10* 06/10	Unit 8: Cyber Bullying **Writing:** Exercise 10 Concluding Sentences
Week 11* 06/17	Unit 10: Why go to school? **Paragraph Two deadline**
Week 12 06/22	Presentation preparation **Speaking Test**
Week 13 07/01	Presentations
Week 14 07/08	Presentations
Week 15 07/15	Presentations **Writing Test**

* These weeks include in class points (4% each)

Note This is a tentative schedule only: we will not necessarily follow it exactly. If I make any changes to the schedule then I will announce these in class.

3) <u>Evaluation</u>

40% In class tasks
20% Paragraphs
20% Presentations
10% Writing test
10% Speaking test

4) <u>Absence policy</u>

Please do your best to attend every class and to arrive on time. We have a lot of work to do during this course, so you need to come to class regularly. *If you are absent, it is your responsibility to check what happened in class and whether there was any homework. Absence from class is NOT an excuse for late homework.*

(i) Students who are absent more than 5 times will receive an **F** grade for this course.

(ii) If you are 0-30 minutes late you will receive 1 late mark.

(iii) If you are 30-60 minutes late you will receive 2 late marks.

(iv) If you are more than 60 minutes late you will be marked as absent.

(v) 3 late marks equal 1 absent mark.

(vi) If you sleep in class you will be marked as late.

5) Homework

There will be two types of homework in this class:

> (i) written assignments to be handed in by a set deadline.

> (ii) grammar, reading and other exercises for use in class.

Late homework: -10%

More than 1 week late: -20%

If you are absent on the day of the deadline, *you still must hand in your homework.* You have two choices: (i) give it to a classmate to hand in for you.

(ii) e-mail it to me **by the start of the class.**

6) Class rules

In order to make this class more useful and enjoyable for all students, there are two very important rules that I would like all students to follow.

(i) Cellphone use is prohibited in class.

(ii) When I am speaking to the class, or when a student is speaking to the class, everyone else must be quiet and listen.

7) Advice for success in this class

(i)   Make sure you hand in all the written assignments. Every year, students fail this course because they have not submitted all the homework

(ii)   Speak in English as much as possible in class. All discussion activities in class must be carried out in English, **not** in Japanese.

(iii)   Actively participate in the class. This means **a)** when I ask a question to the

class, put up your hand and try to answer. *It is much better to guess and give a wrong answer than to sit silently;* b) contribute to group work and discussions as much as you can – ask questions, listen carefully, try to help out your classmates.

(iv)   Keep all handouts and homework assignments from this class in a clear file.

(v)   Make good notes during class and keep these in your file too.

(vi)   Please check the online syllabus for links to further resources which may help you during this course:

8) Finally...

As well as improving your English ability, I hope very much that you will enjoy speaking and writing in English during this class. If you have any problems or questions then please feel free to ask me during or after class, or by e-mail. Good luck with CW1!

Appendix 14: B problem situations in the classroom exercise

Problem situations in the classroom

Task One

Work with a partner. Read the following questions and choose the best answer. Sometimes more than one answer is OK.

1) The teacher asks you a question, but you don't know the answer. What should you do?

   a) say "I'm sorry, I don't know" in English
   b) say nothing
   c) think about the question and try to guess the answer

2) The teacher asks you something, but you don't understand the question. What should you do?

   a) say "I'm sorry, I don't understand. Could you repeat the question please?"
   b) say nothing
   c) ask your friend to explain the question in Japanese

3) You arrive to class late because your train was delayed. What should you do?

   a) sit down and start chatting to your friends
   b) sit down quietly and explain to the teacher after class
   c) interrupt the teacher to explain why you were late

4) The teacher has given you homework, but you don't understand what to do. What should you do?

   a) guess and do your best
   b) ask the teacher to explain
   c) don't do the homework

5) The homework deadline is today, but you haven't done the homework. What should you do?

    a) be absent from today's lesson and hand in the homework next week
    b) come to the lesson and hand in the homework next week
    c) be absent from today's lesson, do the homework during lesson time and go to the classroom at the end of the lesson to hand it in

6) You have done the homework, but you feel sick so can't go to class today. What should you do?

    a) e-mail the teacher your homework before class
    b) find the teacher on campus the next day and hand in your homework
    c) hand in your homework next week

7) You've forgotten your textbook. What should you do?

    a) share your friend's book
    b) be absent from class
    c) photocopy your friend's textbook before class

<u>Task Two</u>

There are usually only two reasons that I get angry with students. What do you think they are? Work with a partner and choose from this list.

1) sleeping in class   2) not doing homework
3) asking lots of questions   4) using a cellphone in class
5) speaking Japanese   6) forgetting your textbook
7) chatting when someone is speaking to the class   8) being late

One thing on this list will make me happy. Which do you think it is?

In-class points

In this course, 40% of your final grade comes from in-class points.

I will give each student points depending on their performance in class. This is a communication class, so the points are based on how well you communicate in English.

You will get in-class points in weeks 2~11. You can get a maximum 4 points in one week (4 points × 10 weeks = 40%). There will be no in-class points in weeks 1 or 12~15.

After every class I will enter your points on WebCT so you can check them. Any time you get 2 points or less, please think about the reason for this.

Exercise 1: How can I get a good score?

1) If I want to score 4 points I should…

2) If I want to score 4 points I should not…

Exercise 2: How many points should this student get?

Example 1

Ryosuke was 20 minutes late for class. He was quiet during the lesson, but he did speak some English.   **Points:**

Example 2

Mariko came to class on time. She spoke lots of English during the lesson, actively participated in her group discussion, and asked and answered lots of questions.

Points:

Example 3

Kazuya came to class on time. He did his best to speak English during discussions but also spoke quite a lot of Japanese. He didn't volunteer to answer any questions, but he did his homework. **Points:**

Example 4

Sayaka came to class on time. She spoke lots of English during the lesson, actively participated in her group discussion, and asked and answered lots of questions. While the teacher was talking to another group of students she read an e-mail on her cellphone.

Points:

Example 5

Yasunori came to class on time. He did the homework and brought his textbook and name card to class. He didn't speak any English during the lesson.

Points:

Example 6

Ayako was absent from the lesson.

Points:

Example 7

Kazutaka was one hour late for class. He was very talkative in his group discussion and helped the other students a lot.

Points:

Unit 1: First Impressions

Listening comprehension

Step One: Read the questions below and check you understand them.

Step Two: Listen to the CD.

Step Three: Discuss the questions with your group members and choose the correct answer.

1) Tamara is...

    a) studying physics

    b) studying chemistry

    c) a waitress

2) Sandy is upset because Tamara...

    a) pretends she's not smart

    b) talks too much

    c) is studying physics

3) Tamara thinks that guys...

    a) don't like smart women

    b) don't like quiet women

    c) are terrible

4) Sandy thinks a man should...

    a) appreciate her talent

    b) appreciate her looks

    c) ignore her

Unit 2: Traffic Jam

Listening comprehension

Step One: Read the questions below and check you understand them.

Step Two: Listen to the CD.

Step Three: Discuss the questions with your group members and choose the correct answer.

1) Which city has no traffic jams?

     a) Seoul

     b) Singapore

     c) Sao Paulo

2) Why is it inconvenient to own a car in Amsterdam?

     a) gasoline is very expensive

     b) drivers must pay to enter downtown

     c) there are few parking places

3) How much does it cost to drive a car in the centre of London?

     a) $47 per hour

     b) $47 per week

     c) $47 per month

4) The public transport in Los Angeles is...

     a) limited

     b) easy and fast

     c) polluted

Discussion Activity

1. Work alone. Look at the list in the box and rank the modes of transport in order:

aeroplane	car	ferry
bicycle	walking	*shinkansen*
bus	local train	horse

	Cheapest	Most fun	Most relaxing
1			
2			
3			
4			
5			
6			
7			
8			
9			

2. Work in groups. Explain your rankings to each other. Do you agree with each other? **Working together,** agree on an overall ranking:

	Best overall
1	
2	
3	
4	
5	
6	
7	
8	
9	

3. Explain your rankings to the class.

CW1 Economics (Impact Issues)

Discussion

This week's topic:

_____

Step One: Class discussion. Discuss this topic with three classmates and note down their answers. You do not have to write full sentences – just notes.

Name	Agree/Disagree	Reasons (key words only)
Classmate 1 _____		1. _____ 2. _____ 3.
Classmate 2 _____		1. _____ 2. _____ 3.
Classmate 3 _____		1. _____ 2. _____ 3.

Step Two: Which person had the best reasons to support their opinion? Why do you think so? _____

_____

_____

CW1 (Economics)

<div style="border:1px solid;">Presentation practice</div>

Next week you will make a presentation to a small group on one of the topics in the box below. The purpose of this presentation is to practice using your voice and body language effectively. **Of course, you cannot read from a piece of paper.** If you want to bring something to show the audience (photos etc) that is OK, but you do not have to. Your presentation should be 1 ~ 2 minutes.

my hometown	my high school	my best friend
my hobbies	my family	my first week at Rits
my best vacation ever	my pet	my plans for summer vacation

Homework

1. Choose your topic
2. Plan what you want to say. Check the pronunciation of any difficult words you need to use.
3. Practice as many times as you can:
   - i)   practice with a friend so you can give each other advice.
   - ii)   practice in the mirror and make eye contact with yourself
   - iii)   record your presentation so you can hear your own voice (you can use your cellphone or camera to do this)

In class

Presenter: Stand in front of your group and speak about your topic for at least one minute. Try to make eye contact with every group member. Remember, eye contact means looking into people's eyes, **not** looking straight ahead!

Audience: Listen carefully to each presentation. Every time the presenter makes eye contact with you, put up your hand.

Appendix 21: The English oral communication A syllabus at New University

英語オーラルコミュニケーションA <134, 234>

授業概要 (Course Outline)

　これまで学習してきた基本的な英語を使用して、口頭でコミュニケーションを行えるようにすることを目的とします。日常会話表現を中心にとした会話練習や、少人数のグループに別れてのディスカッションなどを通して「話すこと」と「聞くこと」の練習をします。教師陣は英語のネイティブスピーカーを中心に、ネイティブスピーカーと同程度の英語力をもつ外国人および日本人です。授業時間外の課題として、「多読学習」により簡単な英語の本を読み、既習の語彙や文法を定着させます。

授業内容・授業計画 (Course Description/Plan)
Week 1: Introduction and orientation
Week 2: Unit 1: Getting to know you
Week 3: Unit 1: Getting to know you
Week 4: Unit 2: The way we live
Week 5: Unit 2: The way we live
Week 6: Unit 3: What happened next?
Week 7: Unit 3: What happened next?
Week 8: Units 1-3 review and quiz
Week 9: Unit 4: The market place
Week 10: Unit 4: The market place
Week 11: Unit 5: What do you want to do?
Week 12: Unit 5: What do you want to do?
Week 13: Unit 6: Places and things
Week 14: Unit 6: Places and things
Week 15: Units 4-6 review and quiz

準備学習等（事前・事後学習）(Preparation and Assignments)
　前回の授業で扱った授業内容を全て復習し、多読学習を含めた授業外の課題を全てこなすこと。

授業の到達目標 (Expected Outcome)

　以下の URL に記述しているレベル別の目標を達成すること。
　http://moodle2.kyoto-su.ac.jp/center/Attain-Speak-J.doc　及び
　http://moodle2.kyoto-su.ac.jp/center/Attain-List-J.doc

身に付く力 (Special Abilities to be Attained)

Communicative Ability (Language Ability 語学力, Ability to Communicate Ideas to Others 発信力)

履修上の注意 (Special Notes/Cautions)

クラス編成は、入学時に行われる統一試験の結果を基にして行われます。5段階の習熟度別編成で、レベル1が最低レベルでレベル5が最高レベルです。指定されたレベル以外での受講はできません。

評価方法 (Evaluation)

成績は、授業を担当している教員による評価が60%、学期末にいっせいに行われる到達度テストの結果が20%、授業時間外の多読学習20%の割合で算出されます。どのレベルでも100点満点を取ることはできますが、履修上の注意にあるように英語能力別レベルクラス体制ですから、成績はレベルが高いクラスほど高得点になるように統計処理を行います。

The class grade (60%) will be determined in the following manner: Class participation and homework (50%), In-class quizzes (25%), Role-plays and oral presentations (25%)

教材 (Text and Materials)

教科書／Required text: Soars, J. & Soars, L. *American Headway 2A: Second Edition.* (Oxford University Press, 2010) Maruzen Code: OC