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**Emotion in English as an additional language
oral communication: Vietnamese English language
teachers and students**

A thesis

submitted in fulfilment

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Abstract

In applied linguistics, the scope of emotion research has broadened from the simple linear cause and effect paradigm of anxiety to multiple facets of emotions and their interaction with various aspects of language learning. Along with this development, the social dimension of emotions is currently receiving an increasing amount of research attention. The present study has continued that focus by exploring the trajectories of changing emotions throughout the lifelong experience of English language learning and language use among Vietnamese EAL tertiary teachers and EAL teacher candidates in a single Vietnamese university. The study also highlights the role of emotion in their English oral communication.

This study employed a qualitatively-driven mixed methods research design. Two phases of data collection using initial and exploratory self-designed questionnaires, followed by semi-structured interviews and reflective journals took place over approximately six months. The quantitative data, collected from all EAL teachers and their final-year students in the English faculty, aimed to capture the range of emotions the participants experienced in speaking English. The qualitative data, collected from nine teachers and ten students recruited from the questionnaire phase, revealed the complexity and dynamism of their emotions in the process of language learning and use. It also sought to understand the rich sources of their emotions, and the influences of emotions on their oral communication. LimeSurvey was employed to collect and analyze the questionnaire data, and thematic analysis was used to analyze the qualitative data.

The findings show that the participants experienced shifting emotions across the different contexts of language learning, including family, school, out-of-school, tertiary and professional contexts. The emotions were seen to be dynamic, socially and contextually constructed, emerging from their social circumstances and interaction with others. They were interwoven with self-concept, language learning success, perceived standing in different communities, and relationships with others. Emotions also appeared to play a significant role in motivating the participants to take up English for their teaching profession. Theories of belonging, agency and positioning, as well as L1 cultural values informed the interpretation of the data to help explain the complexity of emotion for these

participants. The results also provide theoretical and practical implications for emotion research and pedagogies of EAL teaching and learning. The participants' emotional self-regulation was not dealt with in this study because there was little evidence in the data.

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Chapter One: Introduction

This introductory chapter presents my experience of learning, teaching and speaking English which motivated me to conduct the research. It then provides insights into the Vietnamese social cultural context regarding English language teaching in Vietnam. Following this is a discussion on the broader context of research on emotion in second language acquisition (SLA) and applied linguistics, which establishes the foundation for the research. The chapter concludes by presenting the research aims and an outline of the structure of the thesis.

1.1 Learning, teaching and speaking English

I have been teaching English as an additional language (EAL) at the English faculty of a university in Vietnam for over twenty years. My main duty is to teach the English language and train EAL students to become teachers of English. Language teachers and students at my university are expected, if not required, to speak English in the language classroom. My teaching experience shows, as other researchers (e.g. Humphries, Burns, & Tanaka 2015) have found, that despite the considerable time my students have spent learning English at primary and secondary schools, a great number of them are unable to express themselves with ease in English. This was also my own experience as a language learner and continues today as a language teacher. The fact that I am unable to speak English with confidence does not necessarily mean that I lack English language competence. My inability to speak with ease seems largely emotionally driven, arising from anxiety, frustration, excitement, or eagerness associated with face-to-face interaction.

As Berscheid (1987) argued, communicating orally with others may be the main driver of learners' emotional experiences with language because they may feel vulnerable when their language proficiency is so exposed to others. They are required to "knowingly use underdeveloped L2 skills" to communicate (MacIntyre & Legatto, 2011, p. 149). Moreover, oral communication, speaking, is multifaceted, involving pronunciation, word search, discourse competence, and interactive competence - listening, self-presentation and pragmatics, for example. When people communicate orally, they typically have to speak spontaneously

with little time to process their output or revise, unlike when writing. That is why oral interaction may be more emotionally loaded than other modes of communication.

My colleagues, and especially many of my past students, have shared similar feelings about speaking English and experiences of emotion associated with giving oral presentations in English, along with the influences of emotion on their spoken English. Some have revealed that they have been so nervous that they cannot remember what they have prepared. Others have said they have been afraid of being laughed at by the teacher and their classmates because of the mistakes they might make or because of their incorrect pronunciation. A few have reported their happiness and excitement to share their knowledge with others and their eagerness to be corrected by the teacher or friends to make progress. Colleagues have shared with me a range of feelings they have experienced when speaking English in front of their students, other language teachers or native speakers, or in teaching a particular subject. They have also spoken of how those feelings have affected their English speaking. Although amongst all these groups, emotion appears to play a powerful role in EAL oral communication, it tends not to be acknowledged and investigated. This has motivated me to explore the role of emotion in EAL teachers' and students' oral communication in my teaching context.

In the next section, I will discuss some traditional cultural values that are relevant to the current study and their influences on Vietnamese cultural practices.

1.2 Vietnamese traditional values and changing practices

This section first provides a brief account of the influences of Vietnamese culture on people's practices (section 1.2.1), followed by the role of emotion in Vietnamese communication (section 1.2.2). It further discusses the guiding principles for people's attitudes and behaviours including respect for others (section 1.2.3), hierarchical social order (section 1.2.4), and face saving (section 1.2.5)

1.2.1 Influences on Vietnamese cultural practices

Vietnamese culture has been strongly influenced by Confucianism (Tan & Tambyah, 2011; Woodside, 1998) and Buddhism (D. Pham, 2013). Confucian philosophy was introduced into Vietnam early during the Chinese invasion from 111 BC to 938 AD and has consistently shaped Vietnamese culture up to the present time. This philosophy educates people to be obedient, respectful and faithful (Thi Thanh Mai Nguyen, 2014; Vo, 2015). Buddhism “directly came to Vietnam from Indian traders and missionaries in the 1st or 2nd century A.D.” (T. T. Nguyen, Dinh, Ly, Ha, & Ha, 2008, p. 1). Buddhism, the most widely practiced religion in Vietnam currently, is well-known for its cause and effect principle, captured by the expression *we reap what we have sown*. This philosophy guides people to lead a peaceful life by forgiving others’ mistakes and sacrificing their benefits so that others enjoy happiness. Since the first Confucian Vietnamese disciples were Buddhist monks (V. H. Nguyen, 2002), there was a strong blending of the teachings of Buddha and the teachings of Confucius. Buddhists’ view of the world and their code of conduct and attitudes toward education resemble the Confucian interpretation of life (Goodman, 2005; Thi Tuyet Mai Nguyen, 2009).

Confucianism and Buddhism, with their long and powerful history, continue to affect Vietnamese people’s worldviews and practices in modern times (Thi Thanh Mai Nguyen, 2014; Vo, 2015). The guiding principles of these two philosophies may lead to different emotions among people when they show their obedience, respect, faith, and forgiveness of others’ mistakes. Accordingly, emotion may play some part in people’s behaviour and communication with others.

1.2.2 The role of emotion in Vietnamese communication

Emotion is very generally defined as a sense of strong feelings (Ratner, 2000). Throughout Western history, emotion has been thought to be in conflict with *reason*. According to Socrates, who considered emotion a weakness that needed to be controlled, emotion was seen as a threat to reason and a danger to philosophy and philosophers (Solomon, 2010). Moreover, a traditional linguistic view has regarded emotion as subjective and non-scientific (Kębłowska, 2012) and has dismissed the importance of emotion in favour of cognitive, behavioural

paradigms (Swain, 2013). As a result, emotion has been placed in an inferior position by Western linguists.

In Vietnam traditionally, by contrast, emotion may be placed in a higher position than reason in the culture of communication (V. S. Le, 1993; N. T. Tran, 1999). Vietnamese people tend to see themselves as controlled by emotion when they try to solve a problem or make a decision. There is a popular belief that when two people are in conflict and even take each other to court, they still believe in a Vietnamese saying that *Bên ngoài là lí, bên trong là tình* (literally, *outside is reason, but inside is emotion*). It can be interpreted that although Vietnamese people appeal to justice to solve their problems, they still rely on their emotions. In a popular book on Vietnamese cultural views, *Life and emotion of the Vietnamese*, V. S. Le (1993) raises a question: “What makes a human being become a human being?”. His answer is: “It is not their face, but their heart that guides them how to treat others” (p. 5). This means that people rely on their emotion to behave appropriately in interaction with others. Such observations are an indication that emotion has been recognized as a legitimate part of thinking and problem solving in Vietnam.

Human emotion is mediated by language and is not the same across languages. The translation for emotion into Vietnamese is *cảm xúc*. Its literal meaning is the combination of feelings *cảm* and contact *xúc*. The term is abstract and denotes a general feeling which emerges from within or when people are in contact with others and the surrounding world. The meanings of emotions in Vietnamese are not exactly the same as those in English. For example, *bối rối* in Vietnamese for *embarrassment* denotes a feeling of confusion and a lack of confidence without knowing what to do. The level of embarrassment increases and turns to *shame* when people think of their self-concept as being inferior. This is similar to the notions of *embarrassment* and *shame* in English. However, Vietnamese people’s shame is more often related to family expectations and values.

1.2.3 Respect for others

The concept of respect for others is paramount in the traditional Vietnamese family and society (V. S. Le, 1993; N. T. Tran, 1999). This cultural value is displayed in the saying *Tiên học lễ, hậu học văn*, meaning *first learn integrity,*

then learn knowledge, and is found in almost every school in Vietnam today. What can be interpreted from this saying is that Vietnamese education tends to place emphasis on ethical learning, including respectful attitudes toward teachers and older people. Children in their early years are taught to respect elders in their interactions. For instance, a common traditional respectful act of younger people towards elders is handing an object to others with both hands. This courtesy may be undergoing change and may not be seen among a number of Vietnamese youths influenced by other cultures with which they have contact.

Vietnamese people's long-lasting tradition of deference in communication is expressed through appropriate address terms (H. S. Tran, 2013). English speakers use two personal pronouns: *I* and *you* regardless of the gender, age and position of the speaker and the addressee, with relatively few genealogical address terms. However, Vietnamese has numerous address terms indicating genealogical relatives (N. T. Tran, 1999), that is, kinship-based address terms. In many situations, kinship terms are applied regardless of genealogical relationship (Sidnell & Shohet, 2013). N. T. Tran (1999) explains that the tendency to use kinship terms instead of personal pronouns arises from the traditions of close relationships within communities of the Vietnamese who regard people in the community as their family members. Szymańska-Matusiewicz (2014) states that the relational nature of Vietnamese terms of address forces the speakers to define their own role and its relation to the role of the interlocutors. In the context of language learning, the richness of the Vietnamese address system may be problematic to learners of Vietnamese. By contrast, the simplicity of the English address system may facilitate English communication for the Vietnamese.

1.2.4 Hierarchical social order

Hierarchical order in Vietnamese culture can be seen in the unequal relationships in parent-child, man-woman, teacher-student, and manager-subordinate dyads. Among them, the relationship between teachers and students is considered particularly hierarchical and formal (Signorini, Wiesemes, & Murphy, 2009). Teachers are expected to “satisfy learners in the search for the truth (in knowledge) and virtues (in life)” and to “always have the right answer to all questions coming from students” (P.-M. Nguyen, Terlouw, & Pilot, 2006, p. 5).

Students are taught early on to view their teachers as “the embodiment of knowledge” (T. C. L. Nguyen, 2005, p. 2). Questioning a teacher is considered offensive, as it contradicts the teacher's point of view and thus challenges his/her status. As V. C. Le (2001, November) points out, under the influence of Confucianism, students “feel rude if they interrupt, question, or argue with their teacher” (p. 36). They are also expected to show deference to their teachers. For example, they stand up to greet the teachers when they enter the classroom. They only speak when invited or allowed by the teacher. The teacher’s authority and control in the classroom may prevent students from expressing their opinions freely.

Nevertheless, current international influences, for example, Western learning theories and pedagogy, may change traditional cultural practices. This may mean the order and quiet of a classroom may be increasingly replaced by heated discussion and an atmosphere where students ask questions and teachers answer. Teaching and learning are gradually moving from teacher-centred approaches to learner-centred approaches, which offers students more autonomy and opportunity to construct knowledge instead of receiving knowledge passively from the teacher (P.-M. Nguyen et al., 2006; T. C. L. Nguyen, 2005).

1.2.5 Face saving

Face and face saving are often mentioned with reference to Vietnamese culture. The Vietnamese concept of face is generally seen to rely on social expectations and public opinions (T. Q. T. Nguyen, 2013; T. H. N. Pham, 2011) and is closely linked to social roles and positions (T. Q. T. Nguyen, 2015). This concept emphasizes people’s social role and position and the importance of fulfilling the responsibilities of their role and position (T. Q. T. Nguyen, 2015). In her writing about the concept of face, Vu (2002) suggests that the Vietnamese notion of face can be explained by “self”, which has two components: independent and relational self. Accordingly, Vietnamese face also consists of two corresponding aspects: personal face linked to independent self (i.e., desire to have one’s individual attributes respected) and social face linked to relational self (i.e., desire to have relationships with others and to have one’s social values respected) (T. Q. T. Nguyen, 2013).

Face plays an essential part in Vietnamese people's thinking and behaviour. Thus, they tend to behave and do things "properly" to save face. From a sociolinguistic perspective, the way people treat others in a *positive* or *negative polite* manner can imply saving face for the interlocutor (Holmes, 2013, p. 285). Positive politeness refers to the way solidarity is expressed to minimize status differences between employers and subordinates, for example. Negative politeness involves paying respect and avoiding intruding on people. Borton (2000) observes that it is painful for people in any society to lose face; however, "loss of face is ... unbearable in Vietnam" (p. 24). Her observation aligns with a Vietnamese saying '*Chết vinh hơn sống nhục*', meaning it is better to die than to lose face, reminding people to be mindful of their behaviour. The concept of face complicates the nature of English language learning which requires students to experiment and make mistakes in order to progress.

To further complicate the nature of English language learning and teaching, teaching in Vietnam is considered *ngành cao quý nhất trong các ngành cao quý*, meaning *the most honorable career among honorable careers* (Thuy Huong, 2011). This has placed a burden on Vietnamese teachers who need to be concerned about their face and face saving. T. Q. T. Nguyen (2015) investigated fifteen Vietnamese college lecturers' perceptions of face and found that they hold the belief that they possess an unquestionable source of knowledge and hold "a significant and honorable role and position in society" (p. 211). The participants reported preserving a "noble distant image" and demanding respectful behavior from their students (T. Q. T. Nguyen, 2015, p. 203). They described themselves as tending to avoid any admission of limited knowledge to save face. T. Q. T. Nguyen (2015) explained that teachers need to conceal their imperfect knowledge to maintain students' "absolute trust in their [teachers'] knowledge"; otherwise, "any sign of knowledge deficiency would degrade this trust and therefore would equate to a serious face loss" (p. 211). This perception of face might indicate an influential hindrance to changing educational trends in Vietnam.

In summary, Vietnamese culture embedded in Confucianism and Buddhism together with such cultural aspects as showing respect to others, conforming to hierarchical order, and saving face have played an influential role in people's attitudes, and behaviour. The way they are guided to lead their life peacefully,

treat others' mistakes tolerantly and respect others may be linked with their different emotions, which in turn affects their practices.

In the next sections, I will discuss the status of English and English language teaching in Vietnam to provide a background understanding of factors that possibly affect the study participants' emotion regarding English and their ability to speak the language.

1.3 English and English language teaching in Vietnam

1.3.1 The status of English in the Vietnamese social context

The status of English in Vietnamese society prior to and after the nation's liberation will now be briefly described.

Before the nation's reunification in 1975, Vietnam was divided into two parts: North Vietnam and South Vietnam. The North was governed by the Vietnamese Communist Party; the South was ruled by a US-allied regime. The North received support from the Soviet Union and China. Due to their political involvement, Russian and Chinese were taught as dominant foreign languages at schools in the North at the time. In the meantime, English was very popular in the South as a means of communication with American troops and opportunities for better employment (T. S. Le, 2011; G. V. Nguyen, 2013).

In April 1975, the communists regained the South; and the entire country was reunified. With the fall of Saigon (i.e., the capital city of the South), English was degraded to a disadvantageous position. Russian and Chinese became the main foreign languages for the Vietnamese to study according to the Communists' approach to teaching foreign languages within the nationwide educational system then (H. T. Do, 2006). Not until 1986 did English regain its popularity after the Vietnamese government lifted the embargo policy to open the door to the world (Hoang, 2010) to solve the country's economic problems and to develop a strong future (T. S. Le, 2011).

In countries like Vietnam where English has been taught as an additional language, the classroom environment did not create favorable conditions for language learners to speak English. The only opportunities they could afford were going out and practising English with English speaking tourists. Although more

and more foreign tourists, especially Westerners, arrived in Vietnam after the lifting of embargo policy, direct contact with native English speakers was still minimal due to some political reservations.

There were some language teachers who pioneered encouraging English practice with native English speakers among their gifted English students. My English teacher was a typical example. At the time there were very few Westerners coming to Vietnam. Our enthusiastic English teacher attempted to look for opportunities for us to practise English with native English speakers. He went out to find such speakers and invited them to our classroom. We even had some trips out to a coffee shop or some tourist spots, took photos with them and exchanged letters when they returned to their home country. Some of the teacher participants of the current study also came from gifted English classes and had similar experiences. Compared with other students, we had more opportunities to practice English, though still limited.

As in many other parts of the world, the need for mutual understanding in international communication has motivated the teaching and learning of English as a global language in Vietnam. In recent years, the political, economic, social, and cultural changes in Vietnam have shifted Vietnamese learners' attitudes from resentment of foreign languages towards an appreciation of them and a motivation for learning them (T. M. H. Nguyen & Nguyen, 2007; Phan, 2009).

Classroom practices have also changed in recent years. Whereas prior to 2010, English classes were optional for Grade 3 children at primary schools with two 40-minute periods per week, since this time English has become a compulsory subject with four 40-minute periods per week (T. M. H. Nguyen, 2011). According to L. Nguyen (2005), 99.1% of all the junior secondary schools throughout the country offer English as a school subject. Among the five nationally recognized foreign languages at tertiary level in Vietnam (English, Russian, Chinese, French and German), English is studied as a subject by approximately 94% of undergraduates and 92% of postgraduates (Hoang, 2010).

To improve English language proficiency for language learners, the Ministry of Education and Training (MOET) (2006) has made a series of changes in language policy and planning developments. The English language curriculum aims to

enable students at secondary schools to communicate in English at a basic level in the four language modes of listening, speaking, reading and writing. Furthermore, an additional objective of general English education stipulated in 2007 is for secondary school graduates to have gained communicative competence in English (Ministry of Education and Training, 2007).

As a step to further enhance language teachers' and learners' English proficiency, the Prime Minister of Vietnam issued a decree approving a project on teaching and learning foreign languages in the national education system in the period of 2008-2020 (The Prime Minister, 2008). The ultimate aim of the project is to reform the teaching and learning of foreign languages nationwide to improve language teachers' knowledge and capacity to use a foreign language. It also aims to train Vietnamese graduates to use a foreign language independently and confidently to communicate, study, and work. This reform is expected to help to make foreign languages a strength of Vietnamese people to serve national industrialization and modernization (The Prime Minister, 2008, p. 1). While there are advantages to the Government aims, there are also issues, as have been voiced by educators (e.g., N. H. Nguyen, 2011). It remains an area that requires further research and clarification.

1.3.2 The quality of language learning and teaching in Vietnam

Despite the ambitious aims of the Vietnamese government to strengthen English language teaching and learning, English teaching continues to rely heavily on traditional methods. Although there are some changes in learning and teaching at tertiary level, the students' communicative competence remains a concern.

Although a great deal of effort has been invested in language education, most secondary school graduates cannot use the English language they have studied for seven years or more for basic communication (Huong, 2010; T. H. Le, 2011; V. C. Le, 2007). One reason is that English language teaching methods continue to use traditional methods which prioritise learning about the written language rather than how to use it (T. X. D. Do & Cai, 2010; V. C. Le, 2000, 2002, November, 2011; V. C. Le & Barnard, 2009; Tomlinson & Dat, 2004). Although workshops have been held to introduce and popularize the concept of the communicative approach with Vietnamese language teachers and persuade them to apply the

approach in the classroom, many English teachers at secondary schools do not wish to change (H. H. Pham, 2005). From researchers' observations, Vietnamese teachers are reluctant to implement the communicative language teaching approach. In a case study exploring how teachers implemented the new communication-oriented English curriculum in a Vietnamese secondary school, V. C. Le and Barnard (2009) found that the teachers spent most of the lesson time explaining grammar rules in the students' first language and guiding their students in choral reading. They also emphasized reproduction of knowledge rather than creating opportunities for students to use the target language for communication. These researchers have recognised that traditional pedagogies emphasizing the mastery of grammar and vocabulary rather than communicative competence have failed to satisfy various communicative needs in an era of modernization, industrialization, integration and globalization.

One of the reasons for the inability of teaching and learning of English to result in better speakers could relate to the students' personal characteristics. As Nguyen Hung Tuong remarks:

Vietnamese students are very traditional in their learning styles: they are quiet and attentive, good at memorizing and following directions, reluctant to participate (though knowing the answers), shy away from oral skills (being more comfortable with grammar and writing exercises) and from group interaction. (H. T. Nguyen, 2002, p. 4)

These characteristics were also observed by Tomlinson and Dat (2004) among the students in their study when the students participated in classroom interaction in English and expressed themselves orally. Such personal characteristics around learning English together with culturally respectful attitudes toward teachers and older people (discussed in section 1.2.3) might prevent the students from improving their speaking skills and hence cause them to avoid communicating with other people.

The nature of language testing may also play a key role in students' difficulty in using English to communicate. Almost all of the examinations at primary and secondary school levels, including university entrance examinations, are designed to test linguistic competence rather than communicative competence. They tend to

focus on vocabulary, grammar, and reading comprehension rather than listening and speaking skills (Hoang, 2010; V. C. Le & Barnard, 2009; Ngoc & Iwashita, 2012). As English is one of the compulsory subjects in the national secondary school examinations, passing them is their main goal. This has created pressure on teachers to ‘teach’ to the examinations. Such exam-driven instruction has brought about two issues: 1) it leads to greater anxiety in students, which may affect their learning process; 2) it produces students who may “achieve the highest scores in the exams but fail to show their excellence in real life performance” (Hoang Tuy, 1999, cited in T. S. Le, 2011, p. 38).

Unlike at secondary schools, there has been more investment to strengthen the quality of teaching, and English speaking has received more attention at tertiary level. At university, classes are arranged around the four language modes. Thus, each practical skill receives an equal focus. Teaching materials are selected from recent publications. The teachers may follow the materials or redesign the tasks in the textbooks to accommodate different types of learners and their communicative needs. Despite this development in language teaching techniques, university students’ ability to communicate in English remains a concern for language teachers and educators (T. G. L. Nguyen, Nguyen, & Nguyen, 2010; Thanh Ha, 2008). According to H. H. Pham (2004), after a long period of learning English, a majority of Vietnamese learners cannot use it effectively as a means of communication. It is estimated that less than 20% of graduates in a class of fifty English major students have the English skills required for jobs as interpreters, translators, tour guides or teachers of English (H. H. Pham, 2004). Moreover, as stated in a news article, most university graduates cannot meet the demand of their employers. This means their ability to use English in the workplace is limited (Thanh Ha, 2008).

Although many factors have been identified as hindrances to students’ language learning and use and perhaps to language teachers also, the role of emotion in learning English and oral communication in Vietnam, potentially one of the causes, has not yet received serious attention, as in much Western English language teaching. The next section will deal with growing attention to emotion in applied linguistics research focusing on English language teaching and learning.

1.4 Emotion in SLA and applied linguistics research

Emotion in language learning has attracted significant attention of SLA researchers, and in particular, the emotion of anxiety. A great number of SLA researchers have identified various sources of anxiety and the interaction of these sources in affecting English language communication (Andrade & Williams, 2009; Awan, Azher, Anwar, & Naz, 2010; Elaine K. Horwitz, Horwitz, & Cope, 1986; Liu & Jackson, 2008; Oxford, 1998; K. E. Williams & Andrade, 2008; Woodrow, 2006). They have also recognized the negative influences of anxiety on the process of language learning, and in particular, oral communication. The causes and effects of anxiety will be detailed in section 2.2.1.

Recently, though, several researchers have found a wide range of emotions such as frustration, shame, despair, enjoyment, hope and pride that play a much larger role in language learning contexts than anxiety alone, notably Bown and White (2010), Imai (2010), and Swain (2013). Imai (2010), for example, has gone beyond the linear cause and effect paradigm of language anxiety research to have new insights into the role and meaning of emotions in second language (L2) learning processes. He explored how a group of English as a second language (ESL) students constructed and shared their emotional attitudes in collaborative learning and how such emotional intersubjectivity affected the group work. The unpleasant emotions in Imai's study did not hinder the group from realizing their goals; rather, he saw them as able to "mediate development" (Imai, 2010, p. 278). His study has challenged the notion that negative emotions are necessarily detrimental to language outcomes.

In the context of Vietnam, a study on the development of foreign language anxiety (FLA) among Vietnamese non-English major students has recently been conducted by T. T. T. Tran, Baldauf, and Moni (2013). The students' FLA was found to be affected by four major factors consisting of pedagogy, assessment, student-teacher relationships and curriculum structure. Though FLA can be a reason for the students not to continue learning the language, their awareness of the importance of learning English for their future job has changed their motivation from intrinsic to extrinsic. This study offers evidence of growing interest in emotion in the Vietnamese context; however, it links to a more

traditional view of anxiety. My research may contribute to broadening the literature in SLA on the role of emotion in language learning and use and the link with other important factors in language learning.

The following section will present the main purposes of the research.

1.5 Research aims

This research aims to:

- explore the role of emotion among Vietnamese students and teachers learning and using the English language,
- investigate how emotion and English language are related over the participants' life times and in interactions in their current educational, professional and social contexts,
- examine how the students and teachers deal with emotion when emotion affects their oral communication.

1.6 Structure of the thesis

The thesis comprises seven chapters. Chapter One above began with a discussion about my experience as a language learner and language teacher which provided the motivation to conduct this research. It also discussed English language teaching in the Vietnamese social and cultural context followed by an explanation of the broader context of emotion in SLA and applied linguistics.

Chapter Two discusses the literature on the development of emotion research. It then expands the scope of emotion together with a range of other emotions that are embedded in social dimensions. The chapter further reviews the literature on the link between emotion and other important aspects of language learning and use, including motivation and self-concept, followed by emotion regulation and teachers' emotions. This review chapter highlights the gaps for the current study.

Chapter Three discusses the methodology of this study and justifies the suitability of using an interpretive paradigm. It then describes the methods employed to conduct the research, including two online questionnaires, semi-structured interviews and reflective journals.

The next two chapters present the findings from the teachers (Chapter Four) and the students (Chapter Five). Each chapter discusses the participants' perceptions of the importance of emotions in their English teaching and learning and trends of emotions they reported experiencing in different contexts from the questionnaire data. Following this, the quantitative findings are explained in more depth using the data from the participants' interviews and reflective journals. These chapters are concerned with describing the part emotions play in the teachers' and students' language learning since they commenced learning English.

Chapter Six provides an analysis and interpretation of key research findings from the data in light of the literature and theory. The discussion focuses on the association between shifting emotion and sense of belonging, acceptance, recognition, agency, positioning, and self-related issues. It also focuses on shifting emotions along with cultural traditions and values in social interaction with others in changing contexts of language learning and language use.

Chapter Seven highlights the contributions of the research, followed by an acknowledgement of research limitations. It then provides theoretical and pedagogical implications for the literature on emotions in EAL and language learning and teaching. It ends with a proposal of recommendations for future research.

Chapter Two: Literature review

Chapter 1 provided a discussion about my professional background and the Vietnamese socio-cultural and English language teaching and learning context for this research. This chapter presents a review of theoretical perspectives and research literature that informs the current study. It introduces the constructs of affect and emotion borrowed from psychology. It then explores the development of emotion research in SLA from a predominance of language anxiety to an expansion to other emotions in language learning with a somewhat linear individualistic cause and effect framework. The review then explores more recent research on the social dimensions of emotion and emotional processes, and presents a discussion of the relationship of emotion and several important aspects of language learning, including language motivation and self-concept. Finally, emotion regulation, teacher emotion and emotional labour are discussed.

2.1 Concepts of affect and emotion

2.1.1 Affect

There is a lot of debate over what *affect* is. It has been used widely in the psychological field. Arnold and Brown (1999) borrow the term *affect* from psychology and define it as including “aspects of emotion, feeling, mood or attitude which condition behaviour” (p. 1). In this definition affect is an umbrella term covering emotion. However, according to Bown and White (2010), “affect is generally equated with emotion” within psychology (p. 433). They use Huitt’s (1999) definition of affect to illustrate the equation. Huitt (1999) refers to affect as “the emotional interpretation of perceptions, information, or knowledge” (paragraph 2). This indicates that there seems not to be a clear distinction between affect and emotion. In fact, these two terms have been used interchangeably in a considerable amount of research (e.g., Bown & White, 2010; Imai, 2007, 2010; Meyer & Turner, 2006; Sutton & Wheatley, 2003; Wetherell, 2012).

In this study, I would like to use *emotion*, the term widely used currently in applied linguistics. I will take a broad approach to emotion by applying Arnold and Brown’s (1999) definition of *affect* including temporary feelings, as well as

attitudes and confidence as experienced and accumulated over time in interaction with others in various contexts.

2.1.2 Emotion

The definitions of emotion vary across disciplines. Its interpretation aligns with theoretical developments across the field, from psychology based paradigms to sociocultural paradigms. From a psychological perspective, emotion is commonly viewed as a physiological, cognitive and psychological state which is brief, rapid, intense, and short-lived, and usually stems from a definite cause (Colman, 2009; Keltner & Ekman, 2000). In this sense, emotion is primarily cognitive and internal to the individual.

Wetherell (2012), a social psychologist, criticizes the conventional psychological paradigm as too narrow and restrictive. She disagrees with definitions that solely refer to basic emotions, such as sadness, anger, fear, surprise, disgust and happiness. Instead, she proposes that emotions need to describe a “range and variety of affective performances, affective scenes and affective events” (Wetherell, 2012, p. 3). Wetherell employs *affective practice* as a key concept which “focuses on the emotional as it *appears in social life* and tries to follow what *participants do*” (my emphasis) (p. 4). By practice she means what people do and how it is integrated in their social life. For Wetherell (2012), affective practice needs to be seen as “shifting, flexible ... rather than simple lines of causation, character types and neat emotion categories” (p. 4). This suggests that emotion is complex and dynamic and needs to be interpreted with consideration for all the relationships with which it is experienced.

Others (see Denzin, 2007; Maynard, 2002) agree with Wetherell’s inclusion of social dimensions and emphasise interactions. Maynard (2002), who views emotion from the social dimension, states, “Human emotions are not simply experienced internal to the person, but rather, are experienced through interaction with other factors, including how the context influences the person, and how the interacting partner may emotionally react” (p. 6). Along the lines of Maynard’s definition, Denzin (2007) contends that emotions are not only cognitive responses to physiological, cultural, or structural factors, but also interactive processes, and

should be best studied as social acts involving interactions with self and others. In this sense, emotion is both cognitive and social.

At this point, it is essential to establish the distinction between *emotion* and *emotions*. I see *emotion* as an abstract term to refer to people's general feeling, whereas *emotions* refers to one or several feelings at a particular moment in a certain context. In this study, emotions have been looked at from an approach suggesting that emotions be interpreted in consideration of what they mean and of how they emerge and develop over time. For example, when people are angry, they may not start with anger. There may be many layers of emotions underneath their anger. They might initially feel confused or bored, frustrated and then become angry. This approach challenges the labelling of emotions. If we simply label them as *hope*, *anger*, or *frustration*, we may miss the nuances and complexity of emotions.

To build on the theoretical development of emotion, the current study aims to provide evidence for shifting emotions in language learning and use. An emphasis is placed on emotional responses in relation to the target language, the interlocutor, and the cultural and contextual settings in which they are experienced.

In the next section, I will review the development of emotion research in SLA.

2.2 The development of emotion research in SLA

The long interest in emotions in the SLA literature has focused predominantly on language anxiety. Before the turn of the twenty-first century, emotion was viewed as a cognitive and individual construct (Benesch, 2013). As a development in the field, researchers have begun to expand the scope of the research by exploring a wide range of emotions other than anxiety. Moreover, the social turn in SLA has driven researchers to include social dimensions of emotion in addition to its cognitive ones. These key points will be discussed in the following subsections.

2.2.1 Individualistic cognitive dimensions of emotion

This section will review the literature on the predominant emotion in SLA emotion research – language anxiety and its sources and effects on language learning, with the traditional focus on emotion as cognitive. Researchers have

adopted a linear cause-effect relationship of emotion and language learning; i.e., a dichotomy of negative and positive emotions and their detrimental or beneficial effects on language learning. This approach has focussed on identifying direct causes and effects of anxiety on language learning. As such, this view has diminished the complexity of emotions and learning, and sidelined contextual differences and changing emotions. Although some researchers have incorporated situational and social factors, they are generally treated as background and causal, or independent variables in quantitative studies (e.g., Matsuda & Gobel, 2004; K. E. Williams & Andrade, 2008).

Language anxiety has been defined as “the feeling of tension and apprehension specifically associated with second language contexts” (MacIntyre & Gardner, 1994, p. 284). Its predominance derives from it being seen as “a [readily] measurable variable which causes failure in learning a target language” (Swain, 2013, p. 197). As Oxford (1998) states, among factors influencing language learning, language anxiety ranked high regardless of formal or informal settings and was viewed as the most influential emotional factor in language learning.

Researchers in the field have focused on identifying sources of anxiety and their effects on English language communication. The sources can be classified into four main categories including the learners themselves, others, instructional and cultural factors. However, they were identified but were not investigated more deeply.

A number of researchers (e.g., Ewald, 2007; Elaine K. Horwitz et al., 1986; Kitano, 2001; Subaşı, 2010) have agreed that language anxiety mainly arises from the learners themselves, and involves their personalities and beliefs about language learning. Learners’ fear of negative evaluation was identified as one of the main sources by Elaine K. Horwitz et al. (1986), using the standard measure of language anxiety, the Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale. This source was also confirmed in a great deal of later research (Gregersen & Horwitz, 2002; Kim, 2009; Kitano, 2001; Liu & Jackson, 2008; Lucas, Miraflores, & Go, 2011; Subaşı, 2010; K. E. Williams & Andrade, 2008). For example, Subaşı (2010) investigated the relationship between anxiety and its two potential sources: individual students’ fear of negative evaluation, and their self-perceived speaking

ability among first year students. He found that there was a positive correlation between students' fear of negative evaluation and anxiety experienced in speaking classes. In another study investigating the relationship between foreign language anxiety and perfectionism among second-year English students at a university in Chile, Gregersen and Horwitz (2002) found that highly anxious students had a fear of negative evaluation. In addition, the feeling of anxiety is seen to emerge from learners' apprehension about communicating in a language in which they may appear weak (Elaine K. Horwitz et al., 1986; Liu & Jackson, 2008; K. E. Williams & Andrade, 2008). Moreover, anxiety is identified as arising from learners' self-perception of low language proficiency (Ewald, 2007; Kitano, 2001; Subaşı, 2010). Exploring anxiety among advanced students of Spanish, Ewald (2007) found that the participants' uncertainty about their own knowledge and abilities in comparison with their classmates' generated a certain level of anxiety.

Researchers have further attributed learners' anxiety to others, such as friends, and particularly their teachers. Half of the students in Subaşı's (2010) study thought that teachers were responsible for their anxiety. Researchers who identify anxiety coming from fear of negative evaluation, as reviewed above, often reason that the learners are afraid of being negatively evaluated by their peers and teachers. Students felt anxious being stared at by their friends when speaking in front of the class (Subaşı, 2010) or being laughed at by their teachers and peers when making mistakes (K. E. Williams & Andrade, 2008). Students' fear of appearing foolish when speaking the target language in front of peers is also associated with language anxiety (Frantzen & Sieloff Madnan, 2005; Kim, 2009; Liu & Jackson, 2008; MacIntyre, 1999; Young, 1991).

Teachers' behaviours and attitudes are highlighted as contributing to learners' anxiety. One student in Tran, Baldauf, and Moni's (2013) study complained about the pressure strict teachers exerted on students from grade 10 to 12 that made him feel very stressful. Teachers' harsh manners in correcting students' errors are also seen as an anxiety provoking factor (Elaine K. Horwitz, 1988; Koch & Terrell, 1991; Lucas et al., 2011; Subaşı, 2010). The participants in Subaşı's (2010) study reported that the way their teachers corrected their mistakes while they were speaking caused them to experience anxiety in speaking classes.

Instructional factors have been attributed to learners' anxiety by some researchers (e.g., K. E. Williams & Andrade, 2008). The procedure teachers use for calling on students is a source of anxiety. As reported by some students in Williams and Andrade's (2008) study, they experienced anxiety when their teacher applied random selection. They complained that they "always felt on edge not knowing when or if they would be called on" (p. 186).

In addition, a few researchers (Huang, 2014b; Ohata, 2005) consider cultural factors to be sources of language learners' anxiety. In Ohata's (2005) study of Japanese ESL learners' perspectives of the influence of Japanese cultural norms on the nature of language anxiety, for example, one of the participants reported that his culturally fixed beliefs about learning prevented him from asking the teacher or his peers to explain the topic again when everyone in the class seemed to understand it. He explained his anxiety as the fear of "break[ing] the class atmosphere and stick[ing] out from others", which is not expected in Japanese culture (p. 11).

As noted above, although researchers have incorporated situational and social factors, they are generally treated as the background and independent variables. Yan and Horwitz's (2008) study is an illustration. They provided a picture of how student anxiety was associated with other factors in language learning. Like other researchers in the field, they saw comparison with peers, learning strategies, and language learning interest and motivation as the "immediate sources" of anxiety. Apart from these, they saw regional differences, gender, parental influence and other instructional factors as "remote sources" of foreign language anxiety (p. 173). For example, Chinese people believe that students coming from Shanghai, a cosmopolitan and economically developing city, are better at English than those coming from other regions, such as Inner Mongolia. According to Yan and Horwitz (2008), comparison with peers from different regions is considered a source of anxiety which affects students' English ability. In this relationship, they see a direct link between comparison and anxiety, whereas regional differences are indirectly linked with anxiety through comparison with peers. Thus, such social factors are still regarded as the background in their study. These researchers described what the students said. A deeper analysis might have reviewed how the situational and social factors actually affected the students' emotions. While the

identification of additional factors expands the explanatory scope of language anxiety, it also serves to maintain the direct linear cause-emotion-effect paradigm.

Regarding the effects of language anxiety, there has been a general tendency to view language anxiety as a major hindrance to oral performance in English. According to Young (1999), speaking or giving a presentation in front of the class produces high level of anxiety. In addition, speaking publicly in the target language is particularly anxiety provoking for many students, even though they feel little stress in other aspects of language learning (E. K Horwitz, 1995). Oxford (1998) states that negative anxiety harms learners' performance both indirectly through worry and self-doubt and directly by reducing participation and creating overt language avoidance.

Evidence of negative effects of anxiety can be seen in much later studies. Looking at the issue in language classrooms, Humphries et al. (2015) found that anxious students spoke in short phrases and described themselves very briefly in the second language. One of the participants in Yan and Horwitz's (2008) study stated that, "I am scared, anxious, and then I can't hear clearly; neither can I say anything" (p. 160). Woodrow (2006) explored the relationship between anxiety and second language performance inside and outside the language classrooms among advanced English for academic purposes students at a university in Australia. She pointed out that the students with second language speaking anxiety tended to forget the previously learned material. They rarely initiated conversation and interacted minimally, which resulted in a communication breakdown. More seriously, the anxious students with perfectionist characteristics retreated into silence (Gregersen & Horwitz, 2002).

Apart from the general tendency to view anxiety as a hindrance to language learning, some second language researchers assert the existence of positive effects of anxiety. Oxford (1998) tells of a learner's success in overcoming his anxiety by seeking help in formal and informal instruction in a target-language speaking country. The learner's own personality and decision to achieve his goal may have been affected by what other people thought about him. Language anxiety in this case turned out to be a motivating factor. Such a situation has been explained by Argaman and Abu-Rabia's (2002) statement that because students wish to protect

themselves from harm to their self-esteem or loss of face, they try harder to address their shortcomings. In addition, one of the participants in Humphries et al.'s (2015) study indicated that anxiety could facilitate capacity to speak: "when doing a presentation [I could speak well] because it made me nervous" (p. 169). All these examples show that anxiety experienced in social and interpersonal interactions can result in positive effects. The social dimension of emotion will be further discussed in section 2.2.3.

2.2.2 Expanding the scope of emotion research: other emotions

With the work of Imai (2010) and others (e.g., Bown & White, 2010; Piasecka, 2013), the scope of emotion research has expanded beyond anxiety. According to Imai (2010), anxiety and other emotions may be experienced over the course of language learning and use. Researchers have begun to look at the role of emotion in terms of engagement with language learning (Imai, 2010) other than identifying a straightforward dichotomy between negative and positive emotions and their debilitating versus facilitative effects (Bown & White, 2010; Piasecka, 2013).

A number of researchers have found a wide range of emotions in the process of language learning and language participation (Aragão, 2011; Bown & White, 2010; Garrett & Young, 2009; Imai, 2007, 2010; Miyahara, 2015; Piasecka, 2013; So & Dominguez, 2005; Swain, 2013). Many of them classify emotions as positive and negative. For example, Bown and White (2010) conducted case studies with three university students in an individualized instruction programme. They found that the students experienced a range of emotions in the language course, including more negative emotions such as frustration, shame, anxiety, and despair than positive ones such as enjoyment, hope and pride. Looking at emotions from a different setting, Imai (2010) explored how a group of ESL students constructed and shared their emotional attitudes in collaborative learning and how such emotional intersubjectivity affected the group work. He focused on the students' manifestation of emotions in their verbal communication while working together to prepare for their group presentation. The findings showed that as the students participated in the group discussion to pursue their task goals in the immediate learning setting, they verbally manifested, shaped and constructed

various emotions, such as confusion, boredom, frustration, regret, and empathy (Imai, 2010, p. 288).

Researchers in the field have also identified the sources of these emotions, some of which are not different from earlier identified sources of anxiety. Emotions are seen to emerge individually from the learners. The students in Järvenoja and Järvelä's (2005) and Miyahara's (2015) studies, for example, relate their emotions to their former personal experiences, and their self-perceptions. Researchers also see learners' learning achievement as a source of emotions (Garrett & Young, 2009; Miyahara, 2015; Piasecka, 2013; So & Dominguez, 2005). The participants in Piasecka's (2013) study, for instance, unsurprisingly reported experiencing happy, content, satisfied and successful feelings when they passed examinations, and could communicate with (non-) English native speakers. Meanwhile, low grades and poor language performance caused them to feel disappointed and sad.

Emotions are considered to have a significant impact on learners' language development and communication proficiency (Garrett & Young, 2009). Like language anxiety, negative emotions are also found to have negative effects on language learning. The case studies in Bown and White's (2010) research indicated that the negative emotions the students experienced had powerful effects that might diminish their ability to focus on the language, remember the language forms or use the language to communicate effectively. The students viewed the negative emotions as being "deeply unpleasant, and something to be avoided at all costs" (Bown & White, 2010, p. 441). Consequently, they could avoid, delay or even drop the study of the language. For these students, emotions contributed to determining their individual trajectories as learners.

Similar to findings on the positive effect of language anxiety, researchers (e.g., Imai, 2010; M. Méndez López, G. & Peña Aguilar, 2013; Swain, 2013; Swain, Kinnear, & Steinman, 2011) have recently begun to theorise the positive influence of negative emotions as an important construct embedded in a more recent paradigm of language learning in social and interpersonal interaction. This theme will be further discussed in section 2.2.3.

A few of these researchers have begun to look beyond identifying direct cause and effect to investigate the role of emotions in language learning. The literature on

emotion has become more complex and challenged the traditional notions of detrimental and beneficial effects of negative and positive emotions on language outcomes. With the intention of capturing the socially constructed emotions in collaborative learning in real time, Imai (2010) has found that the unpleasant emotions in his study did not hinder the group from realizing their goals; rather, he saw them as able to “mediate development” in knowledge co-construction (p. 278). He meant that despite the negative emotions, the participants continued working to complete their assignment. In the discussion process, they interacted with each other, co-constructed their knowledge and developed their language.

The idea of mediation is also seen in Miyahara’s (2015) study. She explores identity formation among Japanese EFL learners and examines how emotion is involved in the learning process. Her study seeks to fill the gap between the social and psychological dimensions of identity construction, focusing on learners’ emotions and experience in their language learning. By conceptualizing emotions as socially constructed and focusing on the learners’ emotional experiences in their L2 learning process, Miyahara (2015) sees how emotions mediate the learners’ transitions in their experiential world. The findings of the research show that both negative and positive emotions can “prompt a learner to act”. However, learners with positive emotions tend to be more flexible and strategic in their language learning (Miyahara, 2015, p. 162).

These few studies suggest the need for further research on the role of emotions in the language learning process, which goes beyond the typical view on the cause and effect relationship between emotions and language learning proficiency or outcomes.

2.2.3 Social dimensions of emotion

As noted in the opening section of this chapter, following the social turn in applied linguistics and other disciplines, researchers from several disciplines (e.g., Arnold, 2011; Denzin, 2007; Wetherell, 2012) have drawn on social psychology and discussed the social aspects of emotion in terms of interactions and relations with others. SLA researchers (e.g., Garrett & Young, 2009; Imai, 2010; Miyahara, 2015; Swain, 2013) have theorised emotions as socially and contextually constructed. Complexifying the linear cause and effect paradigm, they view

emotion shaped from social interactions as partly influencing the language learning process.

Contexts are taken into consideration in a social paradigm. Edwards (2009), for example, challenges the typical definition of context as “a bounded container within which the learning takes place or a more fluid and relational set of practices” (p. 3). For him, the educational context involves various school settings and is expanded to the relationship between people, which is mediated through a variety of social, organizational and technological factors. As stated by Schutz, Hong, Cross, and Osbon (2006), emotion is not shaped in a vacuum. It is constructed when people are interacting with each other.

From a social view, emotion researchers have demonstrated that emotions emerge from teacher-student and peer relationships in language classroom contexts. As reviewed earlier, in Imai’s (2010) study, the participants’ emotions were shaped in their process of negotiation to construct their knowledge. These emotions were orally and locally constructed when the participants interacted with each other in group discussions to fulfil their assigned task. Along the same lines, Swain (2013) analysed a very short conversation between two language learners and saw changing emotions of self-pride, pleasure, pride and admiration, trust, frustration, excitement, exhilaration, joy, and a sense of satisfaction in each turn as they exchanged their ideas to construct knowledge. The emotions in this instance were interpersonally and socially constructed. In the context of individualized instruction programmes at an American university, Bown and White (2010) have found that the students’ various emotions also emerged from the interactions with teachers and other learners.

A few researchers have expanded the scope of social dimensions of emotion beyond the classroom contexts. Miyahara (2015) explores identity formation among Japanese EFL learners and examines how emotion is involved in their learning process. She focuses on the learners’ emotions and experience in their language learning contexts including the home, institutional settings, situated activities, and the wider context of society. By conceptualizing emotions as socially constructed and focusing on the learners’ emotional experiences in their L2 learning process, Miyahara (2015) shows how emotions mediate the learners’

transition to L2 users. Emotions can help to reinforce learners' ideal L2 selves, and as a result their target language learning. This research has contributed an insight into how learners perceive their emotions and experiences, and how these perceptions affect their experiences of self.

In the previous section, I briefly mentioned the positive effects of negative emotion as embedded in the social dimension. These positive effects may be determined by social factors which affect learners' perception of themselves and then influence the process of language learning over time. This issue has been highlighted by Swain et al. (2011) and Dorfman (1998), who each studied a bilingual learner. Grace, in Swain et al.'s (2011) study, was laughed at by her classmates because she did not know an English word. Dorfman, in Dorfman's (1998) autobiography, was reluctantly admitted to a public high school because of his inability to speak Spanish. Grace's embarrassment and Dorfman's anger resulted in their "learning for revenge" (Swain et al., 2011, p. 84), which resulted in positive language learning outcomes. Swain (2013), reporting on another study, stated that learners who attained high levels of proficiency in their target language "did not learn in spite of these negative emotions; they learned BECAUSE of them" (p. 198, emphasis in original). These two examples suggest that learners' emotions did not stem from their internal individual cognition, but from the social contexts they were exposed to, which, in turn, influenced the process of language learning over time. These researchers have again challenged the straightforward cause and effect relationship of emotion and language learning. This may be a direction for further research.

Though the above mentioned researchers have shown interest in investigating the social dimensions of emotions, for the most part, they have focused on the local events in the classroom at specific times rather than the emotional experiences that have accumulated over time. These issues need to be further researched.

The next section will review the literature on the link between emotion and some important aspects in language learning.

2.3 Emotion and additional aspects of language learning

Integrating emotion into the broader literature of SLA has led researchers to examine links between emotion and other aspects of language learning such as

motivation and self-concept. These links will be discussed in the following sub sections.

2.3.1 Emotion and motivation

The link between emotion and motivation has been acknowledged across disciplines although educational psychologists and applied linguists explore the integration of emotion, motivation and cognition somewhat differently. For example, the educationalists Meyer and Turner (2002) observe that emotion plays an influential role in changing students' motivation through the classroom context in which their relationships with teachers are established. From the applied linguistics perspective, Dörnyei (2014) and others have taken another direction by looking at the connection between emotion and motivation in language learning and applied linguistics. Dörnyei (2014), for instance, focuses on the cognitive dimensions of the integration of these two components within individuals, disregarding the context of learning. Dörnyei and Skehan (2003) consider motivation as responsible for why language learners make a decision to learn a language, how long they are going to sustain their learning, and how hard they are willing to pursue it.

In the early 2000s, several educational psychologists began to incorporate emotion in studying motivation in classroom settings (Linnenbrink & Pintrich, 2002; Meyer & Turner, 2002). They provided an insight into the role of emotion in motivation research. Based on their review of existing literature, Linnenbrink and Pintrich (2002) developed a model suggesting the relationship between goal orientation, a component of motivation, and emotion in the educational context. To narrow the focus, Meyer and Turner (2002) reviewed research studies on motivation among teachers and students in instructional contexts over the past ten years of their research programme. They took into consideration the construction of beliefs, emotions, and actions through social interactions for understanding the interrelations among emotion, motivation, and cognition in learning. As a consequence, they found interaction patterns among students and teachers for building and supporting classroom contexts associated with positive emotions and learning goals. Many “serendipitous findings” from previous research have

prompted Meyer and Turner (2002) to conclude that “emotion is an essential part of studying motivation in classroom interactions” (p. 107).

To better inform and enhance classroom teaching and learning, Meyer and Turner (2006) argue for a complex relationship between emotion, teacher-student relationship and interaction, and motivation to learn. Their study focuses on the classroom context where the teacher and students co-create positive climates for learning. Their findings suggest that “engaging students in learning requires consistently positive emotional experiences, which contribute to a classroom climate that forms the foundation for teacher–student relationships and interactions necessary for motivation to learn” (Meyer & Turner, 2006, p. 377). Meyer and Turner (2006) argue that emotions may change the ways that students perceive their educational experience and hence alter their ensuing motivation.

Looking at the issue from an applied linguistics lens, Dörnyei (2014) claims there is a link between motivation, cognition, and emotion while still retaining a cognitive approach. Dörnyei argues that people simply know and feel when they are motivated. For example, learners are motivated to learn a language if they expect to learn it well and if they value their language achievement. In this sense, in Dörnyei’s view the primary function of learners’ appraisal of language learning is cognitive. In addition to the link between motivation and cognition, motivation is claimed by Dörnyei (2014) to be closely associated with emotion. When learners experience a certain emotion, anger, for example, they cognitively appraise the situation and shape their behaviour of not wanting to continue their learning activities accordingly. With the motivation - emotion link, Dörnyei (2014) has underscored the cognitive dimension of emotion.

To broaden the scope of L2 motivation research, Dörnyei (2009) proposes L2 Motivational Self System within a self framework. This system focuses on learners’ vision of themselves in the future and is composed of three main sources of motivation to learn an additional language: (1) an ideal L2 self concerning the learner’s vision of oneself as the person, e.g., a successful L2 speaker, they would like to become; (2) an ought-to-L2 self concerning the attributes the learners believe they need to possess, which comes from the social pressure of the learning environment; (3) L2 learning experience concerning the learners’ experience of

success in language learning and the impact of learning environment including the curriculum, teachers and peers. This last component is related with the situation in the process of language learning. For some language learners, motivation to learn a language may stem from the enjoyment of the learning environment. An enjoyable environment can lead to an improvement in learners' attitude or study. Thus, this component is linked with intrinsic motivation and is hence cognitive. This theory indicates that the social pressure to achieve ought-to self may bring about a feeling of tension which becomes a motivator for learners.

Unlike Dörnyei, Ushioda (2009), his co-author in many publications, began to explore motivation as emergent from a "person-in-context relational" view. This view suggests that motivation emerges from relationships between persons in a particular context. Her critique is that traditional SLA research has focused on participants as language learners in general rather than as particular students with particular social identities in real classrooms. She also points out that the Gardnerian social psychological tradition explored the social and cultural factors of L2 learning which were "reflected only through the individual's attitudes, measured through self-report instruments" (Ushioda, 2009, p. 216). The context of language learning was still defined as an independent variable which was separated from the learners. To have a better understanding of L2 learners as "real people", Ushioda (2009) argues for locating them in specific social and cultural contexts.

To illustrate the importance of context in understanding a particular student's thinking and feeling about language learning, Ushioda (2009) tells the story of one of her doctoral research participants who maintained his motivation to succeed in learning a language. He was at first stimulated to study French due to his relationship with his French girlfriend. Their break-up one year later might predict, if based on a linear cause and effect paradigm, a lack of motivation to continue his language learning and progress. However, in effect, his "personal pride" and "a sense of spite" motivated him to "work even more on French and really master the language" (Ushioda, 2009, p. 219). He wished to prove that he could be a proficient French speaker.

As seen above, Dörnyei's (2009) L2 Motivational Self System and Ushioda's (2009) a person-in-context relational view of motivation have recognized the importance of emotion. Dörnyei explores the causal relationship between emotion and motivation and theorised it from a cognitive view. Ushioda applies a more contextual view. This shows a development toward a more complex notion of emotion and language learning from two angles.

The link between motivation and emotion is also supported by other researchers (M. Méndez López, G. & Peña Aguilar, 2013; M. G. Méndez López & Fabela Cárdenas, 2014; T. T. T. Tran, Moni, & Baldauf, 2012; Yan & Horwitz, 2008). Yan and Horwitz's (2008) model, reviewed in section 2.2.1, suggests a bidirectional relationship between foreign language anxiety and motivation. These researchers have found students' anxiety and motivation to be interrelated and to affect language learning.

Additional research has continued to look at the link between motivation and other positive and negative emotions rather than language anxiety. To make a contribution to expanding the understanding of the link, M. G. Méndez López and Fabela Cárdenas (2014) studied Mexican ELT students' reflections on the impact of their emotional experiences on their motivation. The findings show that the students reported experiencing a mixture of both positive and negative emotions though the latter predominated. However, they seemed to be able to turn negative emotions into motivational energy through their reflections on the influence of the social context. Similarly, in another study, as mentioned earlier, M. Méndez López, G. and Peña Aguilar (2013) have shown that both negative and positive emotions play an important role in enhancing and diminishing motivation. Nevertheless, negative emotions can serve as a motivator in learners' language learning process.

2.3.2 Emotion and self-concept

Although the importance of self concept has been highlighted in the SLA literature (Arnold & Brown, 1999), there remains a lack of empirical research on this construct (Rubio, 2014). A review of the literature on the relationship between emotion and self-concept has shown that there has not been much research on it either. The relation between these two constructs has been

acknowledged in several studies (Goetz, Cronjaeger, Frenzel, Lüdtke, & Hall, 2010; Huang, 2014a; Kehrwald, 2014; MacIntyre, Mackinnon, & Clement, 2009; Mercer, 2011) in terms of a cause and effect relationship. Self-concept has been defined by Marsh and Scalas (2011) as “a person’s self-perceptions formed through experience and interpretations of one’s environment” (p. 191). Self-concept in this sense is not merely a psychological construct but is socially grounded because people’s self-perceptions emerge in interaction with others in the social environment (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2009).

Realizing that research concerning interrelations between self-concept and emotion remain largely unexplored, Goetz et al. (2010) have investigated the relations between academic self-concept and specific emotions, including enjoyment, pride, anxiety, anger, and boredom as experienced in mathematics, physics, German, and English classes. They conducted questionnaires with 1710 German high-school students to seek an understanding of the relationship between self-concept and emotions within specific domains. The findings show strong relations between self-concept and emotion in all four subject domains assessed. The results indicate that pleasant emotions have positive relationships with self-concepts, and unpleasant emotions are negatively related with academic self-concepts. However, this study was limited to students’ academic emotions from a quantitative approach. It did not explore emotion in specific contexts from a qualitative approach, which may provide a more in-depth understanding of the relationship between these two constructs.

The relationship between emotion and language learner self-concept has been confirmed in a few qualitative studies; however, the nature and direction of the relation is still not clear. Investigating how tertiary students at an Australian university construct their language learner self-concept, Mercer (2011) has analysed a number of factors and classified them as internal and external. Internal factors consist of internal comparisons, belief systems and affect. External factors are composed of social comparison processes, feedback and reflected appraisals from significant others, perceived experiences of success / failure and past experiences of using or learning the language. Mercer (2011) has recognized the link between self-concept and emotion in which the latter is likely to contribute to shaping the former. However, she comments that the nature of directionality of

such a link seems to be unclear in her research. She calls for a clarification of the precise nature of the relationship between these two constructs.

The relationship between self-concept and emotion is also confirmed in terms of past experience. Past learning experience has been categorised by Dörnyei (2014), Mercer (2011), and Ushioda (2014) as an external factor that forms language learner self-concept. In Ushioda's (2014) view, the experience itself does not influence learners' self-concept formation but the emotional and motivational dimensions of the experience do. Nevertheless, she has not elaborated on these dimensions and how they affect learners' self-concept. The students in Kehrwald's (2014) study expressed a variety of emotions when conceptualizing themselves as language learners. They drew themselves as being unhappy or sad when describing themselves as poor language learners and imagined themselves being happy, hopeful, and excited as successful language learners and users. Kehrwald's research on language learner development and learners' self-concept showed that the students referenced their both positive and negative emotions in relation to their past experiences, opportunities and challenges in language learning.

In a recent study, Miyahara (2015) has explored emerging self-identities and emotion in foreign language learning among Japanese learners. She has focused on how each of the participants construct their language learner self from their past English-learning experiences, their relationship and orientation to English, and their visions of themselves as English users in the past, present, and future. At first, they were not able to legitimize their L2 user self; but later on, when they had opportunities to become exposed to the language, they felt more confident and claimed themselves as a legitimate L2 user. The participants began to conceptualise English as a natural part of their college life and felt more confident speaking English. The feeling of confidence also helps to confirm their possible self of an English user. Emotion in Miyahara's study is considered a prominent feature in reinforcing the participants' ideal L2 selves, and hence their learning of the target language.

2.4 Emotion regulation

Emotion regulation is considered a central concern in applied settings such as educational settings (Schutz, Davis, DeCuir-Gunby, & Tillman, 2014; Shuman & Scherer, 2014). It is generally accepted that a success in emotion management can lead to a success in learning (So & Dominguez, 2005) and teaching, as well (Sutton, Mudrey-Camino, & Knight, 2009). Therefore, an attempt to regulate emotions is seen as very useful in educational settings (Shuman & Scherer, 2014). This section will provide an overview of emotional regulation and how it has been applied in education in general and in applied linguistic research in particular.

Emotion regulation refers to “the processes by which individuals influence which emotions they have, when they have them, and how they experience and express these emotions” (Gross, 1998, p. 275). It is essential to note that emotion regulation can refer to either *intrinsic processes* (i.e., a person influences his/her own emotions – regulation *in self*) or *extrinsic processes* (i.e., a person influences another person’s emotions – regulation *in other*), or both (Gross, 2010; Jacobs & Gross, 2014). In general, intrinsic processes are typically a focus of research on the adult, whereas extrinsic processes are the focus of researchers in the developmental literature (Gross, 2010).

Although emotion regulation has flourished in psychology and education, it has still been somewhat overlooked in applied linguistic research. The literature on students’ and on teachers’ emotion regulation is somewhat different. Therefore, they will be presented separately below.

2.4.1 Students’ emotion regulation

A few applied linguistic researchers have attempted to apply Gross’s (1998) model to analyse language learners’ changing emotions in their language learning trajectory and have also recognised the effective role of emotion regulation. So and Dominguez (2005) gave a complex analysis of different kinds of emotion regulation. Gross’s (1998) five conceptual categories have been identified at different points in Dominguez’s emotion and learning trajectory in So and Dominguez’s (2005) study. Dominguez, as a language learner, managed to regulate her emotions to shape the success of her learning through mental

processes. She reported experiencing negative emotions in the English-speaking environment in her early days in America. She self-regulated by simply avoiding the situations she had to communicate in English (*situation selection*). She modified the situation by changing the ongoing social environment – joining a peer group to whom she could speak her first language and simultaneously seeking opportunities to practise English. She employed rumination on her feelings as a strategy of *attention deployment*. She was aware that it took time to learn and be able to use a language and was less demanding about her accent. She began to feel more relaxed and try to find ways to improve her English. Regarding *cognitive change*, she compared her English performance with that of non-native fellow students and friends which she found was not better than hers. This realization altered her perception of her English proficiency and hence decreased her negative emotions. Dominguez repeatedly reassessed the state of her English acquisition (*cognitive change*) in order to give rise to more positive emotional responses (*response modulation*). In a word, Dominguez’s emotion regulation facilitated her English acquisition and led her to achieve her set goal.

To expand the field of emotion regulation in second language learning, Bown and White (2010) have drawn on social cognitive theory and Goetz, Frenzel, Pekrun, and Hall’s (2005) research on the *intelligent processing* of emotions to propose a self-regulatory framework. Intelligent processing refers to “using one’s cognitive abilities to perceive, reflect on and regulate emotion” (Bown & White, 2010, p. 434). These researchers conducted case studies on three students learning Russian through an individualized instruction programme at a university in the United States, to seek an understanding of how essential emotion regulation is to their learning experiences and choices. The findings show that the students had different approaches to regulate their emotions. One student employed productive strategies for emotion regulation, whereas the other two chose to sacrifice their language learning to deal with their negative emotions.

The review has so far focused on language learners and learning. Language teachers and teaching also play an important part in the current study. Thus, I will review the literature on teacher emotions and emotional labour, which is often referred as teacher emotion regulation in the following section.

2.4.2 Teachers' emotions and teachers' emotion regulation

2.4.2.1 Teachers' emotions

Many researchers and educators agree that teaching is an emotional process (Hagenauer, Hascher, & Volet, 2015; Hargreaves, 2000; Sutton & Wheatley, 2003). However, there is still a relative lack of empirical research on teachers' emotions and their emotional experiences in relation to their teaching practices (Becker, Goetz, Morger, & Ranellucci, 2014; Sutton & Wheatley, 2003), particularly in applied linguistics.

Like learners' emotions, the literature on teachers' emotions also shows a range of positive and negative emotions. Most often discussed positive emotions in teaching are love and caring (Sutton & Wheatley, 2003). Joy, satisfaction, pleasure, excitement are the most common ones also mentioned (Sutton & Wheatley, 2003). For Postareff and Lindblom-Ylänne (2011), enjoyment, and enthusiasm are associated with teaching. Teachers also show empathy and respect towards students. The most commonly mentioned negative emotions are anger and frustration (Sutton & Wheatley, 2003), and reluctance towards some teaching methods (Postareff & Lindblom-Ylänne, 2011).

Research on emotions in education indicates that teachers' emotions are closely related with teacher-student relationship and with students' behaviour and progress (Chang, 2013; Hagenauer et al., 2015; Hargreaves, 2000). Exploring emotions among experienced secondary school teachers in Australia, Hagenauer et al. (2015) found that the teachers' joy and anxiety were generated from the positive and negative relationships between teachers and students. Meanwhile, the teachers' anger emerged from a lack of discipline in the class. Moreover, the results indicated that the interpersonal relationship between teachers and students played an essential part in teachers' emotional experiences in class. Along these lines, in an early study, Hargreaves (2000) studied 53 primary and secondary school teachers and found that the students' progress and responsive and cooperative behaviour are likely to lead to the teachers' satisfaction and pleasure. On the other hand, the teachers' anger and frustration tend to arise from their students' lack of effort, lack of concentration and other noncompliant behaviour. Similar to Hargreaves's findings, Chang's (2013) study also showed that teachers'

negative emotions such as anger and frustration were frequently related to students' disruptive behaviour or lack of classroom discipline.

The above studies refer to general education. Little is known about teacher emotions in the field of applied linguistics, especially in EAL contexts. Cowie (2011) is among the few researchers who have identified a wide range of specific emotions experienced by teachers. Cowie (2011) explored the emotions that experienced EFL teachers in Japan perceived in their interaction with their students, colleagues, and other people in their teaching environment. The research was conducted with nine teachers through three 30-minute individual interviews on their life history, their description of their current teaching context, and their perceptions of the emotions they experienced in relation to their students, colleagues, and others in education. The findings showed that the teachers had positive feelings of emotional warmth regarding students. More negative emotional terms such as disappointment, anger, and frustration were expressed in terms of their relationships with their colleagues and institutions. Cowie interestingly pointed out that their anger towards students' poor behavior patterns was described as short-lived and immediately-forgotten, whereas their anger towards colleagues and institutions might result in "much more deep-seated and longer lasting resentments" (Cowie, 2011, p. 240). This was explained by the teachers by claiming that their positive and strong relations with their students created through their affection for them could probably overcome the negative emotions they had towards their colleagues and institutions. From discussions with my colleagues, I deduce that how the teachers dealt with their emotion may have impacts on their professional growth and their students' learning.

2.4.2.2 Teachers' emotion regulation - Emotional labour

Emotional labour, one component of teaching, is the way in which teachers "display or conceal their emotions" to attain institutional goals (Brown, Horner, Kerr, & Scanlon, 2014, p. 205). The literature on teaching as emotional labour suggests that teachers are expected to "mask" or "suppress" their negative emotions to act in their students' interests (Benesch, 2013; Brown et al., 2014; Hargreaves, 2000; Oplatka, 2009; Schutz & Lee, 2014, p. 173). This means that teachers need to regulate their emotion in order to express their positive feelings and hide their negative ones in most transactions with students.

Teachers' emotion regulation has attracted the attention of researchers in social psychology. Sutton et al. (2009) reviewed the literature on how teachers express their emotions in the classroom and how they attempt to modify the intensity and duration of their emotions. The review indicates that teachers' practice of emotion regulation stems from their belief that it makes their classroom management, discipline, and their relationships with students more effective. In a survey conducted by Sutton and her colleague, they found that almost all of the teachers expressed more confidence that they could express their positive emotions such as enthusiasm or enjoyment to their students but less confident that they could manage to reduce their anger or stress in the classroom (Sutton & Knight, 2006b, as cited in Sutton et al., 2009). Sutton et al. (2009) have been convinced by teachers that emotion regulation is vital for their classroom effectiveness. In their view, although all teachers can be aware of the benefit of emotion regulation, in effect, not all of them can control it. This may be due to the cultural and social contexts in which they live and work. Therefore, there remains much to learn about emotion regulation in relation to culture in other disciplines as well.

2.5 Rationale and research questions

This chapter has reviewed the literature concerned with the development of emotion research in SLA, the link between emotion and additional aspects of language learning, and teachers' emotions. The review of the literature has contributed to our understanding of the existence of a range of emotions, including both positive and negative, simultaneously in the process of language learning and language use apart from language anxiety. The review has indicated that the focus on the individualistic cognitive dimensions of emotion in a linear cause and effect paradigm has sidelined the social dimensions of emotion. Moreover, previous emotion researchers have predominantly paid attention to emotion in language classroom contexts at a specific time. Therefore, re-focusing emotion research on interpretation of sources of emotions may provide valuable insights into understanding the complexity and dynamics of emotions. Emotions may shift and accumulate over time in a wide range of contexts in learners' trajectories of language learning and use.

At this point, research on emotions has usually focused on students with little investigation of emotions among language teachers, especially in terms of their oral communication. The lack of research suggests a need for further research on emotions experienced by Vietnamese EAL teachers. Furthermore, the limited research with promising evidence draws attention to the need to conduct a study to understand the potential role of culture in influencing how EAL teachers and students in the Vietnamese context experience different emotions which, in turn, influence their English oral communication.

Thus, the main research question is:

How do Vietnamese EAL teachers and students (prospective EAL teachers) perceive the role emotion plays in their oral communication in English?

And the following sub-questions are:

1. What emotions do Vietnamese EAL teachers and students report experiencing when speaking English?
 - 1.1. What are the sources of their emotions in oral communication?
 - 1.2. How do emotions relate to specific communicative events?
 - 1.3. How have emotions affected their English speaking over time since they began learning English?
2. How do they cope when emotions affect their oral communication?
3. What are the differences in emotions experienced by Vietnamese EAL teachers and students in their oral communication in English?

Chapter Three: Research methodology and methods

Chapter 2, a review of relevant theories and research, identified gaps in emotion research literature. The gaps helped me articulate my research questions. This chapter details how the study was planned and conducted by describing the methodology and methods employed. It begins with research aims, followed by an explanation of the suitability of the interpretive paradigm for the research. A rationale for the research design is provided. The chapter then addresses the recruitment procedure, the research methods and the processes of data collection and analysis. The chapter concludes with a brief summary.

3.1 Research aims

This research aimed to provide insights into Vietnamese EAL teachers' and students' perceptions about the role of emotion in their English oral communication in the Vietnamese context. The project emerged as a consequence of my observations and my colleagues' concerns about year four undergraduates, who, despite studying English for a considerable number of years, continue to have difficulties speaking English. My concern was that emotion, a largely overlooked issue in EAL learning as Dewaele (2005) and Pekrun and Linnenbrink-Garcia (2012) state, may be an important factor in their English speaking.

To expand the investigation of emotion and language learning as embedded in dynamic social contexts, I aimed to explore the trajectory of EAL teachers' and students' emotion as developing English speakers and the influence of emotion on their English oral communication.

3.2 Research paradigm - Interpretive

Guided by the research questions (section 2.5), I wished to learn how emotion is perceived to play a role in the English oral communication of Vietnamese EAL teachers and students. To achieve my goal, I needed to gather the information from their perspectives, thoughts, feelings, and experiences in relation to their emotions in their learning and teaching contexts. An interpretive paradigm was the most appropriate approach to help me gain an informed understanding because

this paradigm is concerned with people, what they think, and how they see the world, feel about it, and act within it (Neuman, 2012; G. Thomas, 2009). The use of an interpretive paradigm is also supported by Altheide and Johnson (2011) who state that it is essential to adopt an interpretive approach to grasp the importance of the values, emotions and beliefs in empirical and theoretical research.

An interpretive paradigm is an epistemological stance in which the researcher studies how participants construct reality and interprets their acts and the world around them (Boeije, 2010; Hesse-Biber, 2010). Central to this paradigm is an attempt to contribute to an explanation of the subjective world of human experience and social reality (Cohen, Manion, & Morrison, 2011; Crotty, 1998). That reality is believed to be constructed interpersonally through meanings and understandings that have been socially and experientially developed (Creswell & Miller, 2000; Guba & Lincoln, 1994). In other words, the knowledge generated through this research inquiry is shaped from the experience and interaction of the individual participant with others and the environment. It is then constructed by the researcher and the participants through interviews and analysis (Lincoln, Lynham, & Guba, 2011). The data itself cannot convey a specific meaning. It requires some degree of interpretation. It is the researcher who constructs the meaning from his/her perception and understanding of the topic and the context of the material together with his/her background (Schreier, 2012).

The researcher who uses this paradigm is obligated to have an understanding of the social and cultural context in which the data are generated to “accurately reflect what the data actually mean to the study” (Lincoln et al., 2011, p. 113). Moreover, to retain the integrity of the participants, the researcher is required to make every effort to “get inside the person and to understand from within” (Cohen et al., 2011, p. 17). In so doing, the researcher needs to “stand in another’s [the participant’s] shoes” to understand how and why they see, feel and act as they do (Neuman, 2012, p. 49). This can be facilitated by an insider researcher who is familiar with the research site. Insider researchers are those who conduct research about and / or in their home communities, such as their own workplace, society, or culture (Innes, 2009). In this study, I benefited from my position as a former language learner and current language teacher who has an understanding of the context and culture of the research site. I believed I could construct knowledge

together with the participants and make a trustworthy interpretation of what they shared.

3.3 Research design

Research design is defined by Bryman (2008) as a framework for collecting and analysing data. This study fits in a mixed methods research design involving quantitative and qualitative approaches. Creswell (2015) defines mixed methods research as the type of research in which the researcher “gathers both quantitative and qualitative data, integrates the two, and draws interpretations based on the combined strengths of both sets of data to understand research problems” (p. 2). The value of the combination of different approaches to research is to contribute more to understanding a research problem than one form of data collection does. The combination enables the researcher to gain a fuller picture of the complex social worlds under investigation (Mason, 2006). In this sense, the quantitative and qualitative approaches do not compete, but complement each other as recommended by Hoy and Adams (2015) and Neuman (2012).

Nevertheless, this type of research design also raises the challenge of integrating different forms of data and knowledge (Mason, 2006). The integration produces tensions because the differences between approaches, especially the distinctive strengths of each approach, need to be downplayed to fit in one overarching theory to obtain one coherent world view. Mason (2006) offers the useful suggestion that researchers should think of it as ‘linking’ rather than ‘integrating’ data and methods (p. 20).

There are three basic mixed methods research designs: convergent, explanatory sequential, and exploratory sequential. According to Hesse-Biber (2010), mixed method research from an interpretive approach often employs an explanatory sequential design. In this design, quantitative data is collected first, followed by a collection of qualitative data. In the view of numerous scholars, the qualitative data helps to explain the results of quantitative data (Creswell, 2015; Creswell & Plano Clark, 2007; Creswell, Shope, Plano Clark, & Green, 2006; Hesse-Biber, 2010). In other words, the voices of the participants elaborate on quantitative findings. Thus, qualitative methods are central to the research design, and the quantitative component plays an auxiliary role. This type of research design is

referred to by Mason (2006) as a qualitatively driven approach to mixed methods research. It offers a new way of “understanding the complexities and contexts of social experience, and for enhancing our capacities for social explanation” (Mason, 2006, p. 10).

I adopted the explanatory sequential design for the current study research design; the priority was shifted to the qualitative component. This will be seen in my more in depth analysis of the qualitative data than the statistical results. There were two phases of data collection:

Phase 1: Questionnaires

Questionnaire data which were preliminarily quantitative were collected and analysed in the first phase of the research. In order to understand the teachers’ and students’ perceptions of the role emotion played in their oral communication, I needed preliminary knowledge of whether the participants were aware of the presence of emotion in their experiences of learning, teaching and speaking English. Although emotion is part of everything people do, it may not be always at the forefront of their consciousness. I also needed to know what kinds of emotions they experienced and their impacts on their English oral communication. To obtain such information, I decided to develop my own questionnaires because it was the best way to ensure that my particular research needs were adequately addressed. The results of questionnaires informed me of general trends of a range of emotions that teachers and students experienced in speaking English.

The strength of the questionnaire data was in providing an overview of a large number of participants (Dörnyei & Taguchi, 2010). However, the purview of the questionnaires would not enable me to understand the variations in people’s emotions and experiences in their process of learning and speaking English. As discussed in the literature review, emotion is complex and dynamic and therefore, cannot be explained with the use of quantitative data alone. To have a better understanding, I needed to explore in more depth with qualitative interviews and reflective journals in phase 2 based on a good grounding the questionnaire data provided.

Phase 2: Interviews and reflective journals

Interview and reflective journal data was collected in the second phase as a follow-up to the questionnaire results. The strength of the semi-structured interviews and reflective journals was its provision of detailed information about the participants' context of English language learning, teaching and speaking. I aimed to hear their views and opinions in their own words, and to learn about their experiences and feelings. From their perceptions, I had a better understanding of the bilateral relationship between emotions and oral communication and of their coping strategies in response to these emotions. The emotions were examined under the influence of cognitive, social, and cultural factors in specific communicative events and over time.

People's emotional perspectives may change over time. Their reflections on their immediate memory about recent incidents would help to understand the difference between the immediate emotion and the action that came out of it and the change of emotion later. Reflective journals, a third method of data collection, fitted this research purpose well. The participants' reflective journals contributed to completing a relatively robust picture of the teachers' and students' perceptions of the role emotions play in their oral communication.

I believed that the participants' reported perceptions in the questionnaires, their reflective journals and my interviews with them altogether helped to construct a meaningful reality of their emotions (Angen, 2000).

The next section outlines the characteristics of quantitative and qualitative research and the methods that are relevant to the present study.

3.3.1 Phase 1: Quantitative research

Quantitative research tends to address research problems requiring a description of trends or an explanation of the relationship among variables with measurable outcomes. The purpose statement and research questions need to be specific and narrow. Data is collected from a large number of individuals with instruments having preset questions and responses. Data analysis tends to consist of statistical analysis and involves describing trends, comparing group differences, or relating variables (Creswell, 2008, pp. 51-58). The researcher aims to take an objective approach. The strength of quantitative research is that it allows the study of certain aspects of a large number of cases in a relatively short time. However, it

often employs a narrow-angle lens to focus on one or a few causal factors at a time (Johnson & Christensen, 2012, p. 35). Hence, the limitation of quantitative research lies in its inability to address “how” or “why” questions (i.e., the process), and to provide information of the context in which the study is conducted (O'Dwyer & Bernauer, 2014).

Part of my study is situated in a quantitative research approach. I was interested in seeking an understanding of the perceived influence of emotions in the process of language learning and use from two large groups of EAL teachers' and students in Vietnam. The quantitative data provided me a general picture of what emotions they experienced and the relationship between their emotions and their oral performance. The following section will deal with questionnaires, which I used to collect quantitative data for the research.

3.3.1.1 Questionnaires

A questionnaire is defined as “a self-report data-collection instrument that each research participant fills out as part of a research study” (Johnson & Christensen, 2012, p. 162). Questionnaires are used to measure many different kinds of characteristics to obtain information about the participants' thoughts, feelings, attitudes, beliefs, values, perceptions, personality, and behavioral intentions (Johnson & Christensen, 2012). There are several advantages of using questionnaires. Along with the strengths mentioned above, questionnaires can be conducted with the presence or absence of the researcher with little effect on participants' responses. The questionnaire results can be quickly quantified either by a researcher or through the use of a software package and objectively analyzed. It is then easy to see more significant patterns over a wider population. Nevertheless, there are some disadvantages to using questionnaires. It is hard to tell how much integrity and thought a respondent has put in while completing a questionnaire. As referred to above, questionnaires are seen to “offer little scope for explorative, in-depth analyses of complex relationships ... of an individual life” (Dörnyei & Taguchi, 2010, p. 108). For example, it is argued by Dörnyei and Taguchi (2010) and Gillham (2007) that the preset questions and answers in questionnaires are not sufficient for understanding some forms of information such as changes of emotions, behavior, and feelings.

To collect the quantitative data for the research, I designed two questionnaires, one for teachers and one for students. The questionnaires were informed by recent theoretical and research approaches to emotion and second language learning, and were influenced by my own background in language learning and teaching. These questionnaires, which were initial and exploratory, were conducted with the whole population of EAL teachers and students in the department to inform me of the range of emotions they experienced in speaking English and their sources and influences on English communication.

However, the quantitative data was not adequate to help me understand the complex relationship between emotions and other important factors in language learning. As suggested by Dörnyei and Taguchi (2010) and Gillham (2007), interviews should be conducted to accompany questionnaire results to obtain a better understanding of the actual meaning of the responses, which were incorporated into my research design. Thus, there was a need for the complementary role of qualitative data.

3.3.2 Phase 2: Qualitative research

Denzin and Lincoln (2005) aptly describe the key features of qualitative research:

Qualitative research stresses the intimate relationship between the researcher and what is studied, the socially constructed nature of reality, and the situational constraints that shape inquiry. . . . [Qualitative researchers] seek answers to questions that show how qualitative experience is created and given meaning. (p. 10)

There are both strengths and weaknesses to qualitative research. A strength is that it enables the researcher to obtain people's firsthand experience which provides valuable meaningful data (Carr, 1994). As individuals, participants have different perceptions of reality and hence construct their social reality subjectively. Participants have freedom to determine what they see as essential and relevant for them and how to present it in their contexts (Flick, 2011). The weakness of this kind of research is that subjectivity from the researcher is inevitable. Researchers may be affected by their own perspectives to interpret and make sense of participants' experiences and the world they live in, which is expected to be

subjective. Moreover, the presence of the researcher in the process of data collection is unavoidable and hence can influence the participants' responses.

In order to understand the way the participants think about their world and how their perceptions are shaped, the researcher needs to get close to the participants to hear them talk about their experiences and/or observe them in their daily lives. The researcher also needs to establish a relationship with participants to build trust and try to “interact with the participants in a natural, unobtrusive, and non-threatening manner” (Bogdan & Biklen, 2007, p. 35). In so doing, the researcher can capture what is important in the participants' minds. The trust between the researcher and participants is more likely to make the data “honest and valid” (Carr, 1994, p. 718).

This study uses qualitative methods because it is interested in a more in-depth understanding of how Vietnamese teachers and students perceive the role of emotions in their English oral communication. Qualitative research provided me more powerful tools to get inside the participants' minds to learn about the changing emotions they experienced in the process of language learning and use, the rich sources of their emotions, and the influences of emotions on oral communication. The tools I used to collect qualitative data were semi-structured interviews and reflective journals.

3.3.2.1 Semi-structured interviews

Interviews are widely used in qualitative research as an interchange of views between the researcher and participants on a topic of mutual interest to co-construct knowledge (Kvale, 2007; Merriam, 1998; Talmy & Richards, 2010). The aim of interviews is “not merely to accumulate information but to deepen understanding” (Richards, 2003, p. 64). A strength of interviews is that the researcher can freely use probes or prompts to obtain response clarity and additional information from participants (Johnson & Christensen, 2012). Participants are invited to contribute their experiences and their own views from their particular life situations and discuss their interpretations of the world in which they live (Cohen et al., 2011; Kvale, 2007). As such, the researcher can gain rich information that other forms of data collection do not allow.

In this study, interviews were a primary data collection tool. The interviews provided me with more opportunities to enter into each participant's inner world to understand his/her perspective in more depth by asking questions. In other words, the interviews allowed me to understand the study participants' lived experience from an inside perspective, i.e., the perspective of the participants themselves (Hennink, Hutter, & Bailey, 2011). By establishing rapport and trust with the participants, I helped them to feel more comfortable speaking openly. Their stories enabled me to understand their emotional experiences within the context in which they lived, learned, taught, and used English over their lifetime.

However, there is a risk of partiality, because the researcher must interpret the information. The participants' responses might be biased by the researcher's positive or negative reaction to the content of their statements. Furthermore, power differences and / or characteristics such as age, gender, or social position can affect the way the participants approach the questions in an interview (Bryman, 2015; Flick, 2011). Their responses may be influenced by ideas about their social desirability. They may wonder which response is expected from them or which perspective they should not express (Flick, 2011). To avoid the participants' tendency to please the researcher, I learned to provide more prompts to elicit the responses that I wanted to understand to direct their conversations towards my research focus. In my analysis, I had to always remind myself of separating my experiences from the participants' to interpret the data, as a researcher rather than a colleague or a lecturer.

Another problem with interviews concerns interpreting questions. Participants may interpret questions differently from each other, or the researcher, and participants may not share the meaning of the words in the question. As such, I had to make sure that my questions were simply and clearly expressed. If their answer suggested they had not understood, I rephrased the question. I tried to be specific asking them to give examples in particular situations.

3.3.2.2 Reflective journals

The use of reflective journals as participants' personal records of their experiences is common in qualitative research. It is a way participants can talk to themselves, reflect upon, and record their responses to situations. According to Jacelon and

Imperio (2005), reflective journals are particularly useful for tracking the regular experience of a participant. A focus on emotions in recent communicative events allowed me to capture the participants' immediate and spontaneous feelings, emotional reactions and reflections on their recent experiences of speaking English. Other benefits of reflective journals are that the reflection can be recorded or written without delay and without the presence of the researcher. Hence, in my study ongoing events were not disrupted (Marshall & Rossman, 2011) and participants' "own inner world" was not interrupted by my presence (Zehm & Kottler, 1993, p. 101, cited in Shepherd, 2006, p. 335). Also, the participants could record or write their entries at their convenience.

The participants' reflective journals contributed to an understanding of the spontaneous emotions that were immediately experienced and freshly reflected on. Accordingly, I could obtain a more vivid picture, from a broader view, of the teachers' and students' perceptions of the role of emotions in their oral communication and the influences of these emotions on their oral communication from their interpretation of the context and their social relations. However, motivating participants to keep journals over time was challenging. I chose to tactfully remind the participants by phoning, emailing, or texting them. Nevertheless, I was mindful of limiting the reminders so as not to interfere their personal lives.

With my interest in how the participants gave meaning to their lives, I used thematic analysis to analyse, interpret, and link separate pieces of their experiences to tell a story of their lives. This will be discussed in the following section.

3.3.3 Thematic analysis

Thematic analysis, according to Braun and Clarke (2006), is a method for "identifying, analyzing, and reporting patterns (themes) within data" (p. 79). This method allows researchers to organize and describe the data set in rich detail. Braun and Clarke (2006) suggest six steps to guide data analysis (p. 87). As with other types of qualitative analysis, researchers need to immerse themselves in the data to familiarize themselves with it. This step involves transcribing, reading and re-reading the data, and noting down initial ideas. Then researchers produce initial

codes from the data, which includes coding interesting features of the data systematically and collocating the data relevant to each code. Coding is done according to whether researchers decide themes are data-driven (i.e., coding from the data) or theory driven (i.e., coding with specific questions in mind) (see section 3.6.4.2). The next step is searching for themes where researchers begin to analyze codes, combine them to form a theme and gather the data that are relevant to the potential theme. Researchers are then required to review themes by checking them in relation to the coded extracts and the whole data set, and generating a *thematic map* of the analysis. An ongoing analysis requires researchers to refine, define and name each theme, and consider how it fits into the overall story. This leads to the final step, the write-up of the report. The task of researchers at this stage is to tell a complex story of their data with vivid extracts embedded within an analytic narrative that surpasses data description and makes arguments in relation to research questions.

The details of the analysis process of the research will be described in the data analysis (section 3.6.4.2).

3.4 Trustworthiness of research

There has always been a concern as to how to assess the quality of research - trustworthiness (Curtin & Fossey, 2007; Kornbluh, 2015; Lincoln & Guba, 1985; Worthen, 2001) to consider the validity of a piece of research (Cohen et al., 2011). According to Jackson (2003, as cited in Curtin & Fossey, 2007), trustworthiness refers to the process of establishing the reliability and validity of research. These concepts are usually associated with evaluating the rigour of quantitative research. In a qualitative approach, trustworthiness refers to the extent to which the results are a reasonable reflection of the participants' lived experiences of the investigated phenomenon (Curtin & Fossey, 2007). Trustworthiness in qualitative research has been divided into credibility, transferability, and dependability, which Lincoln and Guba (1985) described as corresponding with the positivist terminologies of internal validity, external validity, and reliability respectively. These key terms will be discussed in the following sections to display how the rigour of the current study has been ensured throughout the research process.

3.4.1 Rigour of questionnaire data

Validity and reliability are the two criteria that positivists used to show the rigour of quantitative research. Validity mainly concerns whether the instrument can measure what it is claimed to measure (internal validity) and whether the findings can be generalized to other situations (external validity) (Burns, 2000; Cohen et al., 2011; Davis, 1992). As such, researchers need to ensure that participants understand the questions being asked and the problem being investigated so that the findings can reflect the reality. The degree of reliability of research relies on the extent of internal and external validity; the measurement cannot be reliable if it is invalid (Cohen et al., 2011). Reliability refers to the consistency and replicability over time, over instruments, and over groups of participants (Cohen et al., 2011). If two conditions produce similar findings, reliability is ensured (Davis, 1992).

A number of evaluative characteristics in quantitative research cannot be applied to judge the rigour of the questionnaire data of the current study. As stated when discussing the research design of the study (section 3.3.1.1), the purpose of administering the questionnaires in this research was to obtain a general idea of the teacher and student participants' perceptions of emotion in their context-specific settings. Despite the apparently quantitative design, the questionnaire findings were seen to be closely connected with Cohen et al.'s (2011) term *context-boundedness* in a qualitative research paradigm (p. 180). Regarding the external validity, the ability to generalize the results to the whole population is limited by my self-designed questionnaires. When designing the questionnaires I was thinking of the particular participants in the specific contexts of learning and teaching English in Vietnam. The results of these questionnaires may not be applied to other situations. Hence, generalizability is not an issue for the questionnaire data. Additionally, reliability is not an issue either. The questionnaire findings are not expected to be duplicated in other contexts and/or participants to have the same results.

However, the internal validity of questionnaire data might be improved by the questionnaire design. In this study, one of the ways to establish the validity of the questionnaire data was to take careful consideration of the language used in the

questions. It was essential that vocabulary and concept choice be within the grasp of the participants (Cohen et al., 2011). As a researcher, I had greater knowledge of the topic than the participants. I might have used some terminologies that may not have been comprehensible to the participants. Therefore, to ensure the internal validity of the questionnaires, I approached an expert on quantitative research (personal communication with Dr. Mira Peter, 2012) to check the clarity of the language and friendliness of the questionnaires after designing them. Moreover, the questionnaires were also piloted for comprehensibility with a small number of people who shared similar characteristics as the target population. They were Vietnamese teachers, some of whom were EAL teachers, who were completing their postgraduate degrees, and Vietnamese undergraduate students at the University of Waikato. Based on their feedback, several items in the questionnaires were slightly modified prior to administering them.

3.4.2 Trustworthiness of interview and reflective journal data

As mentioned earlier, qualitative researchers rely on such criteria as credibility, transferability, and dependability to judge the rigour of qualitative research. Since this study is mainly qualitatively driven, these criteria will be further discussed in this section to explain how the trustworthiness of the current research was established.

3.4.2.1 Credibility

Credibility is “the element that allows others to recognize the experiences contained within the study through the interpretation of participants’ experiences” (E. Thomas & Magilvy, 2011, p. 152). As such, credibility concerns whether the results of qualitative research are believable from the viewpoint of the research participants (Trochim, 2006). Credibility can be enhanced by such strategies as prolonging and varying time spent with the participants, refining interview techniques, reviewing the transcripts, and using the words of the participants while writing the final report.

For data collection, I spent nearly six months in the field interviewing the participants and exchanging information through emails and by telephone with them. This period of time was, I believed, adequate to build trust with the

participants. This, in turn, helped me to grasp the participants' emotional experiences in learning, teaching and using the English language.

Furthermore, credibility was also ensured during the process of data collection and analysis, and in the presentation of the findings. During data collection, I regularly consulted my supervisors on how to refine my interview techniques to probe for more information from the participant responses. The interview recordings and oral reflective journals were transcribed verbatim and the transcriptions were sent back to the participants to check for accuracy. There were some points in the first interviews and reflective journals that I found unclear when I first interpreted the data. I often took notes and had them clarified by the participants in the second interviews. In doing so, I ensured my interpretation was partly checked by the participants.

It is essential to report the participants' viewpoints, thoughts, feelings, intentions, and experiences in the research report in the way they see it as accurate. This can be enhanced by providing the participants' actual words from interviews and reflective journals in direct quotations. In this case, the audience can experience for themselves the participants' perspectives.

3.4.2.2 Transferability

This concept refers to the ability to transfer research findings or methods from one group to another or to other settings (E. Thomas & Magilvy, 2011; Trochim, 2006). In other words, transferability concerns "how one determines the extent to which the findings of a particular inquiry have applicability in other contexts or with other subjects/participants" (Lincoln & Guba, 1985, p. 290). E. Thomas and Magilvy (2011) suggest a strategy to establish transferability in which the researcher provides "a dense description of the population studied by providing descriptions of demographics and geographic boundaries of the study" (p. 153). I attempted to provide this type of rich and deep description to explain the context (see section 3.6. the research procedure). In so doing, the readers could decide how closely the research situation corresponds to their own experiences and whether the findings can be transferred (Merriam, 1998).

3.4.2.3 Dependability

Dependability “occurs when another researcher can follow the decision trail used by the researcher ... and see if results might be similar” (E. Thomas & Magilvy, 2011, p. 153). In this sense, dependability involves establishing decision rules to make sense of the results so that those concerned can agree (Burns, 2000). Thomas and Magilvy suggest several strategies, including providing a detailed description of the research methods, conducting “a step-by-step repeat” of the study, and having peers participate in the analysis process (E. Thomas & Magilvy, 2011, p. 153).

In this study, I describe the methods I employed to collect the data for the research (see section 3.6.4. Data collection procedures). During and after the data collection process, I followed Seidel’s (1998) model of noticing, collecting and thinking repeatedly, which enabled me to review, rethink and refine. On analyzing an extract of data, I frequently went back to the original version again and again to see if I made any different interpretation from the first one. During the process of data analysis, I discussed samples of my interpretation with my doctoral colleagues and also closely consulted my supervisors for critical guidance.

3.5 Ethical considerations

Social research necessitates obtaining the consent and cooperation of research participants in the institutions or organizations providing the research facilities. Participants are entitled to freedom and self-determination (Cohen et al., 2011). This means that they have the right to decide to participate or withdraw even after the research has commenced. In addition, the participants must be fully informed of the nature and results of the research in which they are involved. I made it clear to the participants how the research would be conducted, how much of their time it would take, and what the potential harm would be if participating.

Prior to conducting the research, I had obtained the permission, i.e., approval letters (Appendix M), of the Faculty of Education’s Research Ethics Committee and abided by the University of Waikato’s Ethical Conduct in Human Research and Related Activities Regulations (University of Waikato, 2016).

After obtaining the consent of the Dean of the Faculty where I conducted the research, I sent an introductory letter and information sheet (Appendixes C & D), and the questionnaires (Appendixes G & H) to potential participants via email. It explained how the research would be conducted, how much of their time it would take to complete, and how their rights would be safeguarded. Those who were willing to be interview participants returned their completed questionnaires along with their contact details. I also provided several means of contacting me if the participants wanted to discuss aspects of the research. Prior to interviewing each of the participants, I revisited the consent and asked if they were still happy to take part in the project and to sign the consent forms (Appendixes E & F) before the interview took place. All of these measures were completed to reassure the participants that their participation in the research was totally voluntary and that they had the right to withdraw from the study at any time. The procedure of collecting the data was carried out at a time that was convenient for the participants, so their classroom and daily activities were not disrupted.

In a project such as this, there was the risk that the participants, especially students, may have experienced psychological discomfort. Their responses and reactions to my questions and requests might have been influenced by our differences in status even though I no longer was in a position of power over them. In the student participants' eyes, I was not only a researcher but also a lecturer. I assured them that none of them would be disadvantaged by participating in this study. I did not have any influence on their training as at that time I was a full time student and would not be teaching them on my return.

Some participants might have been sensitive when talking about emotion, so I had to be cautious of how the participants felt and reacted to my questions during the interviews. If I sensed any discomfort answering a particular question, I would ask if they would prefer not to answer. Moreover, some participants were cautious when sensitive issues were touched on and discussed because they were aware that I would know about their vulnerabilities and sensitivities. In such cases, as Sennett (2004) suggests, I tactfully disclosed relevant information about myself first to open the discussion. Self-disclosure is believed to create opportunities for sharing ideas and information and hence deepen a relationship (Savin-Baden & Major, 2013). Several stories about my anxiety while engaging in oral

communication seemed to lessen the participants' feelings of vulnerability. Consequently, they felt more comfortable to share with me their own perceptions of unsuccessful and successful experiences. This way, I believed that I could become closer to my participants' thoughts, feelings, wishes, and desires (Merriam, 1998). Furthermore, I reassured them that the purpose of my study was to gain understandings about how we could improve the education of pre-service teacher trainees and carefully explained the strict regulations of ethical issues of the University of Waikato.

I took great care to maintain confidentiality of the data and assured them that the information gathered during the study would be kept confidential. For the purpose of protecting the participants' and the university's confidentiality, I used pseudonyms in all data collection instruments and data analysis. I was the only person who had access to the completed questionnaires, interview and personal reflection data. Any data shared between me and my supervisors were made anonymous. All the data will be destroyed after five years.

After my thesis has been submitted and examined, I will send all the participants the link to my published thesis on Research Commons of Waikato University's website if they wish to read it.

3.6 Research procedures

3.6.1 Research site

Choosing a research site which is familiar is valuable for working within an interpretive paradigm (Duff, 2008; Marshall & Rossman, 2011) because the familiarity may bring about a number of advantages. The researcher may avoid the difficulties in gaining the approval to conduct the research from the leader of the research site. More importantly, the researcher may be able to gather rich data that may assist the institution to strengthen its programme. It may be easier for the researcher to find the participants, obtain their informed consent and build relationships with them. Existing relationships with the participants may act as an advantage in the quality of the data collected (Richards, 2003). Being a familiar person can facilitate their opening up and elaborating their views. Moreover, the

researcher may easily access documents available at the research site that are useful for the research.

In concert with Duff's (2008) and Marshall and Rossman's (2011) view that researchers can benefit from a familiar research site, I decided to conduct the research at a university in Vietnam where I had experience working at as an EAL teacher. The research was conducted in the English faculty of this university with both EAL teachers in the undergraduate Bachelor of Education and EAL students in their final year of their four-year Teaching English as an Additional Language training qualification. The first two years of the qualification comprised credits in practical English skills, including listening, speaking, reading, and writing, equivalent to B2 level of the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (N. H. Nguyen, 2011). The final two years consisted of linguistics courses, including phonetics and phonology, morphology and syntax, semantics and pragmatics, and sociolinguistics, and nine courses on language teaching approaches. They were also required to complete a teaching practicum in a school. At the time of data collection from August, 2012 to January, 2013, the faculty had over 40 teachers and 175-200 final-year teacher training students.

The teachers' teaching experience ranged from one to thirty-five years. Eight had PhDs, thirty-two held master's degrees, and three were currently completing their master's course. Most had also pursued their higher education in English-speaking countries including Australia, New Zealand, and the United States. The language proficiency of all the teachers at the time of data collection was equivalent to C1 level or above of the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages.

3.6.2 Participant recruitment

Before the fieldwork, I sent the Dean of the faculty an introductory letter and information sheet (Appendix A) and a copy of the consent form (Appendix B), which she signed.

3.6.2.1 Phase 1

I used Lime Survey, available on the University of Waikato's web server to collect questionnaire data for Phase 1. I sent an email invitation to potential participants including 45 teachers and 169 students with a link to the survey

website, including an introductory letter and information sheet (Appendixes C & D) and the questionnaires (Appendixes G & H). I obtained the email addresses of the potential participants from the University Annual Handbook that was accessible to all staff. By completing the survey, they gave their consent.

3.6.2.2 Phase 2

On the questionnaire, I invited those participants who would like to participate further to provide me with their contact details. For the collection of the qualitative data, I first planned to invite six participants from each group (teachers and students) to take part in the individual interviews and reflective journals. I invited the first ten participants from each group who had returned the completed questionnaires and signalled an interest to take further part in the project. I wrote to explain this to those who were not selected.

Regarding the teacher participants, two teachers were on a short-term exchange course outside Vietnam at the beginning of my data collection. They showed a high interest in my research topic and were willing to participate in the second phase. I negotiated with them by email to conduct interviews after they returned. I encouraged these two teachers to record their immediate feelings when using English in everyday conversations for reflective journals before the first round interview.

One teacher participant dropped out immediately after my first interview with her because she was granted a scholarship to enrol in a master's degree abroad and needed more time to get ready for her journey. I deleted the raw data related to her. Nine teachers and ten students participated in the second phase.

These participants worked together and knew each other quite well. Thus, for the purpose of maintaining confidentiality and protecting their identity, a composite overview of their backgrounds rather than individual descriptions will be presented in the following section.

3.6.2.2.1 Teacher participants

The teacher participants consisted of two males and seven females. Most began learning English as a compulsory school subject from grade 6 (age 11-12) and continued to grade 12 (age 17-18), except for one female and one male teacher.

The female teacher studied English for four years, from grade 6 till grade 9 at a junior secondary school. She then studied Russian at senior secondary school (grade 10 – grade 12). The male teacher reported learning French for four years at a junior secondary school and began to learn English when he moved to a senior secondary school.

At the time of data collection, the teachers' years of teaching ranged from one to twenty-five years. One teacher gained her Bachelor of Arts in TESOL in Vietnam. Five teachers achieved their MA degrees, one of them nationally and four internationally with two years living in an English speaking country. The remaining teachers had completed their PhD and had studied abroad for over five years. All of the teachers reported living in the city since their childhood. They may have seen themselves as benefiting from favorable urban facilities and conditions for their studies.

3.6.2.2.2 *Student participants*

The ten student participants included two males and eight females. Half of them reported beginning to learn English from grade three (age 8-9) at primary school and the other half started from grade six at secondary school. As such, they had all spent eight to ten years learning English as a compulsory school subject before entering the university. Most stated that they came from the countryside and went to village schools where they had little access to modern learning facilities and learning materials. Until university, the majority did not have an opportunity to see and/or speak English to *foreigners*, a term they used for Westerners who were assumed to be English speakers.

3.6.3 Positioning the researcher

Because I conducted research at a university where I was employed, I was positioned as an insider researcher to the teacher participants (colleague relationship), but also partly an outsider to the students (lecturer-student relationship). It was possible that the data collection and interpretation process would be influenced by my familiarity with the participants' language teaching and learning contexts. An advantage of being this kind of researcher is that my relationship with my colleagues and students facilitated their forthcoming responses in our interviews.

Nevertheless, insider research also raises issues about over-familiarity with the research context and the participants (Burns, 2000) and the researcher's subjectivity (Crotty, 1998). It would be difficult to remain objective when I knew the participants as colleagues and students and the subject matter well. I had to be mindful of my own background knowledge. I had to question myself each time I made an interpretation and then checked with the participants if my interpretation was reasonable. At the same time, as an insider, I was able to empathize with them.

There was also the challenge from the participants' assumptions about my familiarity and pre-existing knowledge of the context. In these situations, I had to ask more questions to probe their own experiences. The complexity of an insider researcher required me to step back during the research procedure to make the familiar strange (Mannay, 2010) so as to have a more thorough and clearer understanding of the research.

3.6.4 Data collection procedures

There were two phases of data collection. In the first phase, the two groups of 45 teachers and 169 students were invited to complete the online questionnaires. In the second phase, ten participants of each group who volunteered completed interviews and reflective journals. The first round of one-to-one interviews was conducted with ten volunteer participants of each group (with one subsequent drop-out). After the first interview, each participant was asked to keep reflective journals for six weeks, which included at least one entry per week. After collecting the reflective journal entries, the second interview was conducted to elaborate on the first interview and reflective journals.

3.6.4.1 Data collection methods

3.6.4.1.1 Questionnaires

The questionnaires (Appendixes A and B) focused on the teachers' and students' perceptions of the role of emotion in English oral communication. They included questions on the demographic and linguistic background of the participants. The completed questionnaires provided information about the teachers' and students' perceptions of the levels of emotions in their early and current experiences

speaking English and in some specific communicative events, along with the influence of these emotions on their English speaking. They also offered insights into the teachers' and students' responses to and management of these emotions.

There were some differences between the student questionnaire and the teacher questionnaire. The student questionnaire included more detailed questions about their experiences learning English in formal classroom settings, which was their typical context for English language communication. The teacher questionnaire included questions about their experiences using English as both language learners and teachers.

The questionnaires were distributed at the beginning of the data collection period in late August 2012. I allowed one month for participants to complete them. Two weeks after uploading the questionnaires and sending the links to the potential participants, I received responses from 50% of the teachers and 25% of the students. To encourage survey responses, I sent reminders to all the participants to complete and return the survey, if they had not already done so, and to thank those who had returned it (S. J. Thomas, 1999). By the end of the questionnaire phase, I had obtained responses from 90% of the students and 100% of the teachers.

3.6.4.1.2 Interviews

There were two rounds of semi-structured interviews in the study. The first interviews were conducted after the questionnaires, prior to the first reflective journals. The second interviews occurred after the last entry of reflective journals. The main focus of the first interview was to answer the first two research questions. That is to elicit the teachers' and students' perceptions of the sources of different emotions accompanying English oral communication, what part emotions played in English language communication and how they responded when emotions affected their oral communication. The second interview was conducted to clarify the information from the first interviews and to request that participants elaborate on the information in their reflective journals.

At the beginning of the interviews I regularly asked the participants to choose the language they were most comfortable with. Vietnamese was preferred by every participant except for one teacher who chose English in both interviews. In fact, using Vietnamese may have removed any concerns the participants had about

language proficiency that might have impacted on the quality and quantity of the information they shared (Mackey & Gass, 2005). However, they may simply have felt more comfortable speaking their first language.

The interviews were scheduled at a time that was most convenient to the participants. The interview length stated in the participant introductory letter and information sheet (Appendixes C & D) was not more than 60 minutes. However, most of the interviews lasted from one to two hours depending on the participants' availability and willingness to talk.

I used an interview guide (Appendixes J & K) including introductory questions to start the discussion, a list of themes related to the research, and a set of prompts (Tolich & Davidson, 2003). With the guide, I had the freedom to maintain the flexibility of the interview by changing the sequence and forms of questions to follow up the participants' specific answers or stories (Kvale, 2007). I also "probe[d] for more information" (Mackey & Gass, 2005, p. 173) so that other important information could still arise. After each interview, I transcribed the recording as soon as possible and sent the transcript to the interviewees prior to the second interview. The transcript enabled them to review what they said and make any changes that they felt might be necessary. It also provided me the ground to prepare for the second interview.

After listening to the recordings of the first interviews and transcribing them, I formed a tentative interpretation of the data and identified the information that needed to be clarified. In the second interview, I checked my understandings of the data with participants. I also attempted to gain greater depth in the themes of the first interview. Thus, the interview schedule for the second interviews was based on what the participants had discussed in their first interview and reflective journals. However, the core focus remained on emotions in language use.

3.6.4.1.3 Reflective journals

The participants were asked to keep reflective journals, at least one per week for a total of six weeks, focusing on their emotions when speaking English. Alternatively, when they did not experience emotions that they could reflect on, but something that reminded them of previous relevant experiences, they could add more information for clarification. The data obtained from this research tool

provided clues as to possible interpretations of the participants' immediate emotions and helped me to gain greater depth of knowledge about their emotions over time, form ideas and formulate questions for subsequent interviews (Elliott, 1997; Jacelon & Imperio, 2005).

To end the first interview with each participant, I explained the procedure for reflective journals. I encouraged them to use their cell phones or other recording devices to record their feelings immediately after speaking English. The purpose of self-recording was to record their spontaneous feelings and offset any changes over time (Bamberg, 2006). The idea of self-recording was not welcome at first due to their lack of recording devices and discomfort talking to a machine. We reached a compromise that they could write each reflection and email it to me. The journal prompts (Appendix L), which included guideline questions for the participants to keep journals, were delivered to each participant as a hard copy after the first interview and also via email as a reminder. They were encouraged to send me their entry at the end of the day after they finished one, and I immediately deleted them from my email inbox and separately stored them securely. After receiving each entry, I acknowledged their contribution.

3.6.4.2 Data analysis

The data collected for the research was composed of 102 completed student questionnaires and 39 completed teacher questionnaires, 38 recorded individual interviews with ten students and nine teachers, and 74 written and 34 voice-recorded reflective journals. The interviews totaled approximately 58 hours. The majority of interview data was in Vietnamese. The majority of reflective journal data was in English. Some participants, at first, wrote in English but later switched to Vietnamese because it took them more time to write in English and their time was short. All the recorded data was transcribed verbatim. I analyzed in the original language of the responses, because by doing so I could more fully understand what the participants actually meant in that context. I only translated the selected extracts that I quoted in my findings chapters, to save translation time. To ensure the accuracy and credibility of the data, I had the translation cross-checked by a Vietnamese EAL teacher who had completed her master's degree at the University of Waikato.

Analysis of Phase 1: In the questionnaires, the closed question responses were analyzed using descriptive statistical procedures. The responses to the last two open questions were dealt with in the qualitative analysis.

The questionnaire data was processed and analyzed using the Lime Survey programme. This system filtered the data, retrieved numbers and summaries of different responses, and transferred the results into an Excel spreadsheet. I used frequency descriptions to indicate the general trend of the range of emotions that the teachers and students experienced and the perceived influences of these emotions on their oral communication. This gave me preliminary information to answer the research question related to kinds and sources of emotions.

Analysis of Phase 2:

The qualitative data from the individual interviews and reflective journals were analyzed along with the process of data collection. According to Miles and Huberman (1994), early analysis while data collection is ongoing is useful for qualitative data analysis and helps organize data for later and deeper analysis. I followed a recursive process; that is, the *notice, collect, think* process in a non-linear way (Seidel, 1998, p. 2) because it enabled me to go through the process of reviewing, rethinking and refining. I also reflected upon the data, added notes, comments and insights, and looked for emerging themes (Richards, 2003). These details became the basis for the second interviews.

The qualitative data was first analysed manually. I preferred a manual analysis because I desired to be close to the data and have a “hands-on feel” for it (Creswell, 2012, p. 240). As numerous scholars (Agar, 1980; Braun & Clarke, 2006; Creswell, 2012; Gibbs, 2007) suggest, I explored the data by repeatedly reading the entire transcript to immerse myself in the detail, aiming for a sense of the whole before separating it into parts. Each time I read I developed a deeper understanding of the information. I read the transcripts and marked them by underlining and/or highlighting words, phrases, or sentences that I thought were relevant to the major goal of the research, and made margin notes. I wrote memos, short phrases, ideas, or concepts that occurred to me, which helped in the initial process of exploring the data. I asked myself what the participants were actually talking about. Then, I segmented the text and labelled the segments with a-

word/phrase codes that described the meaning of the text segments. After re-coding the entire text of a single participant, and making a list of all codes in my codebook. I found myself lost in hundreds of pages of interview transcripts. Because of this, I decided to use NVivo 10, the data analysis software, to assist in processing the data.

I initially started with each teacher's interview transcripts and their reflective journals. My coding was based on the research questions, as well as some categories suggested in the literature on emotions in second language acquisition. To better understand the teachers' and students' emotion in language learning and speaking, coding was not analysed sentence by sentence or utterance by utterance, but an inclusive extract with some surrounding data so that the context was not lost (Braun & Clarke, 2006). After the first coding of the teachers' qualitative data in NVivo 10, I exported the nodes and extracts to the word document. I read through the conversations to check if they were relevant to the nodes I created. I double checked the nodes to reduce the number and dragged them to the appropriate categories.

Following this, I faced the dilemma of how to deal with all the themes that emerged from the data and how to link them to construct a picture of the participants' emotions when learning and speaking English. Guided by Polkinghorne's (1995) narrative analysis, I followed the procedure through which the data elements are organized into a coherent account. I synthesized pieces of data from each participant and linked them to past events from when they began learning English to the present. Three prominent themes appearing from the teachers' data were learning experiences, teaching and professional experiences, and informal interaction experiences. I was able to narrate a story of the teachers' changing emotions in their trajectory of learning and speaking English and the influences of these emotions on their oral communication by linking these themes together supported by their verbatim transcripts.

The process of analyzing the students' qualitative data was performed similarly. After the data was coded, the nodes and extracts were exported from NVivo 10 to a word document to check the relevance of the conversations to the nodes. The number of nodes were reduced and dragged to the appropriate categories. Finally,

a story focusing on the students' changing emotions in their journey of learning and speaking English at primary and secondary schools and at the tertiary level was created.

3.7 Summary

This chapter outlined the research paradigm and research design on the basis of the research aims and the research questions and discussed the procedures of data collection and analysis. Emotion in this research was not measured but investigated from the participants' perceptions of their lived experiences of learning and speaking English. A combination of methods was employed to gain a full picture of how the EAL teachers and students in the Vietnamese context perceived the role of emotion in their English learning, teaching, and speaking experiences. This study was mainly qualitatively guided to attain a more in-depth understanding from the participants' voices and reflections. Researcher-designed questionnaires, interviews, and reflective journals comprised the data collection, which was analyzed using thematic analysis. The ethical issues were also taken into consideration in the research process. The results of data analysis will be presented in the next chapters.

Chapter Four: Emotions in teachers' journey of learning and using English

The next two chapters report on the teacher and student findings of the quantitative and qualitative data collected to answer the overarching research question of the present study:

How do Vietnamese EAL teachers and students (prospective EAL teachers) perceive the role emotion plays in their oral communication in English?

In this chapter on the teacher participants, the findings relate to the questionnaire responses from 45 teachers and the nine teacher interviewees. This chapter will commence with an overview of how the teachers saw emotion as a part of their English language experiences from the questionnaire data (section 4.1). It will continue with the teachers' stories of English learning and speaking experiences extracted from interview and reflective data (section 4.2). The chapter ends with a summary (section 4.3).

4.1 Teachers' perceptions of emotion in their English language experiences: questionnaire data

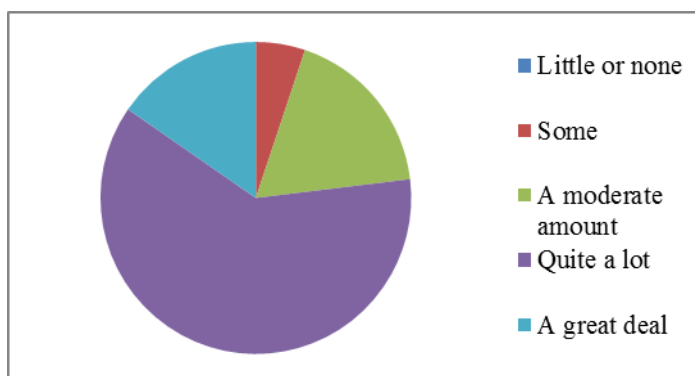
The questionnaire results show that the teacher participants responded to a large number of emotions as they all recognised them and acknowledged them as influencing their language learning. Nevertheless, they responded to these emotions in different ways. The themes of the questionnaire data were identified based on the salience of the data, including the participants' perceptions of the importance of emotion and the trends of emotions in speaking English. They are presented below.

4.1.1 Teachers' perceptions of the influence of emotions on their English speaking

When asked about their perception of the influence of emotions on their English speaking, all the teachers who answered the survey acknowledged that emotions had, to some extent, affected their English speaking. Figure 4-1 shows that a clear majority of the teachers reported that emotions influenced their English speaking

‘quite a lot’ and ‘a great deal’ (77%). ‘A moderate amount’ was selected by 18% and the rest of the teachers (5%) chose ‘some’.

Figure 4-1: Teachers’ perceptions of the influence of emotions on their English speaking



4.1.2 General trends of teachers’ emotions in their early and current experiences speaking English

4.1.2.1 Teachers’ levels of emotions in their early and current experiences speaking English

Table 4-1 illustrates the general trends of teachers’ emotions in their early and current experiences speaking English. In early experiences, the most frequently reported emotion was nervousness, followed by embarrassment and pleasure, confidence and excitement, pride, and the lowest was frustration.

The teachers’ reflections show that in their early experiences of speaking English, the teachers seemed to have experienced a higher level of positive emotions and low level of negative ones. Most teachers (82%) reported little or no feelings of frustration, and the same level of embarrassment and nervousness was experienced by half of them (49-50%). In terms of positive emotions, more than half of the teachers (59%) felt quite or very excited when speaking English for the first time. The same level of contentment was experienced by nearly half of the teachers (46%). There was not a clear trend in the levels of confidence and pride in oneself. Of the teachers who offered comments, one teacher added that although she was not exposed to the wider world of English speaking then, she was very confident with her English speaking performance. Another teacher

reported that her feelings varied depending on how early her experiences were. Additionally, one teacher felt worried speaking English for the first time.

Table 4-1: Teachers' reported levels of perceived emotions in their early and current experiences speaking English

	Early experiences				Current experiences			
	N	Little or none (%)	Somewhat (%)	Quite & Very (%)	N	Little or none (%)	Somewhat (%)	Quite & Very (%)
Content	35	14	40	46	36	0	3	97
Confident	34	32	30	38	37	0	0	100
Excited	34	11	30	59	35	0	17	83
Proud	33	24	43	33	35	6	26	68
Embarrassed	35	49	31	20	33	97	3	0
Nervous	36	50	25	25	33	94	6	0
Frustrated	32	82	9	9	33	97	3	0

In their current experiences, being confident was most frequently chosen with thirty-seven responses (100%), which was followed by feeling content, and then excited and proud. Embarrassed, nervous, and frustrated emotions received equally thirty-three responses, the lowest frequency. None of the respondents reported feeling quite or very embarrassed, nervous, or frustrated. In other words, almost all the participants felt little or no embarrassment, nervousness, or frustration.

There was an opposite perception on the levels of positive and negative emotions in their current experiences. This may be due to their high proficiency and life-long English speaking experience. Almost all the teachers felt quite and very content and confident speaking English now. Similarly, a vast majority of teachers (83%) felt quite or very excited and around two thirds (68%) proud of themselves. No one reported that they felt very embarrassed, nervous or frustrated speaking English. In addition, one teacher added that she felt comfortable and happy in her current experiences. Another teacher reported that personal emotions varied depending on what, with whom and where to speak English. Overall, the teachers'

current experiences showed the general trend of positiveness growing over time and the negative reducing – with the growth in contentment and confidence having the highest growth.

4.1.2.2 Teachers’ levels of comfort in speaking English in early and current teaching

Table 4-2 shows a similar trend seen in the previous question of a higher percentage of positive teacher emotions in their current teaching compared with early teaching. In their early teaching experiences, a small number of teachers (16%) reported still feeling not or slightly comfortable speaking English. More than a third of teachers (38%) reported being moderately comfortable and less than a half (46%) felt comfortable or very comfortable. Currently, the number of teachers who felt comfortable and very comfortable increased to 94% as they gained more experience. Only a few teachers (6%) felt moderately comfortable speaking English when teaching at the time of data collection.

Table 4-2: Teachers’ levels of comfort in speaking English in early and current teaching

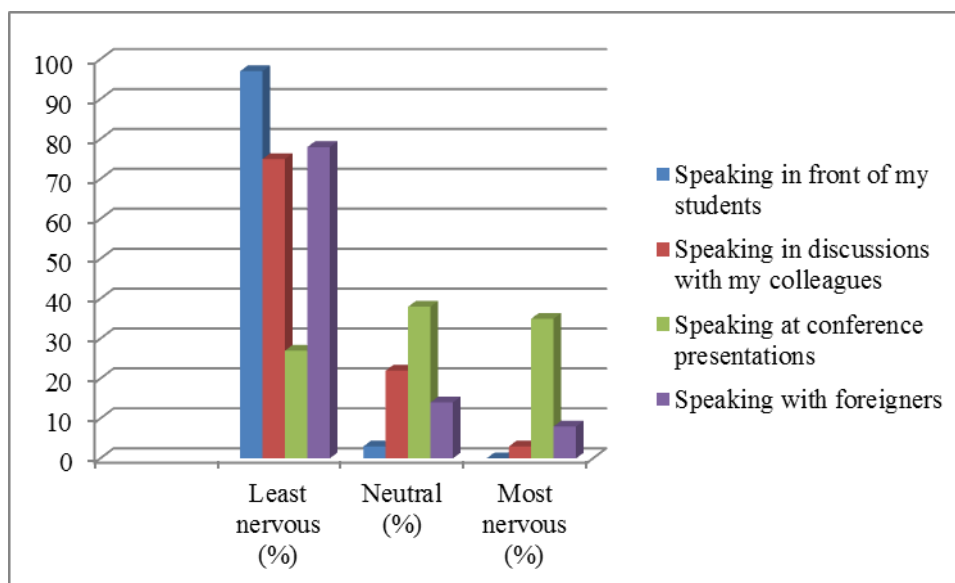
	Early teaching		Current teaching	
	Percentage	Sum	Percentage	Sum
	(%)	(% of total)	(%)	(% of total)
Not comfortable	3	16	0	0
Slightly comfortable	13		0	
Moderately comfortable	38	38	6	6
Comfortable	43		44	
Very comfortable	3	46	50	94

4.1.2.3 Teachers’ levels of reported nervousness in different contexts

The questionnaire data analysis has shown that when asked to describe their level of nervousness speaking in different contexts, ranging from speaking in front of

students, discussing with colleagues, presenting at a conference, and speaking with foreigners, the participants' responses varied. Figure 4-2 shows that the teachers were prone to feel the least nervous in most listed situations except for speaking at conference presentations. The most frequently reported context provoking the least nervousness was speaking in front of students (97%), followed by speaking with foreigners (78%), and speaking in discussions with their colleagues (75%). The results suggest that when speaking to a group of addressees they have more power and with whom they are familiar, the teachers tend to feel least nervous. It is interesting that the level of nervousness reported by the participants when speaking to foreigners and to colleagues is not much different, 78% and 75% respectively. The level of nervousness was reflected to be low in discussing with colleagues even when this type of discussion often involves academic matters. This may be partly because this group of addressees is also familiar to the participants. Although the teachers may not benefit from close relationships with foreigners, it may be assumed that the topics often talked about in conversations with foreigners are usually familiar to them.

Figure 4-2: Teachers' levels of reported nervousness for different contexts



There was not a clear trend of levels of nervousness for speaking at conference presentations. Each level of nervousness was shared by around a third of the teachers. There are many reasons which might help understand and explain this finding. One could be that these teachers did not have many and / or the same opportunities to attend and present at conferences. Those who were experienced in

speaking at conferences might have been the least nervous. Those who were less experienced or did not have a chance to present at a conference might have been the most nervous or merely neutral.

4.1.3 Reactions and recommendations

The teachers were asked about what they usually did when they felt very emotional while speaking English Q12 (N=31). A great number of teachers reported being inclined to control their feelings to keep talking. A considerable proportion of the teachers pointed out specific strategies to deal with their emotions such as taking a deep breath, smiling, using body language, thinking positively, and seeking support from a friendly audience to gain confidence. Meanwhile, others tended to adjust their speaking by slowing down or speeding up. A few teachers described feeling overwhelmed but then calmed down as they spoke, so they did not have to adjust their speech.

The teachers were asked to recommend to EAL learners what to do when they felt very emotional while speaking English Q13 (N=31). They tended to advise the learners to do what they themselves did when they experienced emotions while speaking.

In summary, the questionnaire data has shown a general picture of the teachers' perceptions of the existence of a wide range of emotions and their influences on the teachers' English speaking in their early and current experiences learning and teaching English. However, as stated in the research design (section 3.3.1.1), the tailored answers to the questionnaire questions were not able to reveal the complexity and dynamism of changing emotions. The interview and reflective data contributes to providing richer information for a more in-depth understanding of the issue. The following section presents the teachers' stories from the qualitative data.

4.2 Teachers' stories of shifting emotions in learning and speaking English: interview and reflective journal data

This section presents the emotions the teachers reported experiencing in changing contexts at home, school, and university. It then discusses their teaching and professional experiences, and communicating in informal interactions.

4.2.1 Family support

Five of the nine teacher participants reported receiving family support to learn English at an early age either through exposure to the English language at home or through opportunities to study outside their home. Parental support and resources shaped a common passion for English. These teachers acknowledged that their early emotional experiences learning English encouraged them to choose English as their university major later.

4.2.1.1 Exposure to English at home

Four teacher participants talked about their first exposure to the English language with their parents or other family members which led to an affinity for English and positive feelings about learning the language. Their experiences with their parents seemed to have provided an incentive to learn English later in their childhood studies. For example, recalling her early experiences speaking English, T3 said:

When I was a child, I used to speak a little bit of English with my father. Despite his limited ability to communicate in English, he used to teach me some phrases and vocabulary to help me speak. ... My father inspired me and I guess from there my love for English grew. And it was from that love that I became really good at English ... (T3, Interview 1 & 2)

T6 also confirmed that when she was young her opportunities to speak English with her father inspired her and established a firm foundation to become an EAL teacher. Her father was her first English teacher, a guide and a companion in her journey of learning English. She shared that she used to practise speaking English with him almost every day. She still remembered his repeated saying, that “whatever you learn, you need to say it out. Particularly with English, if you don’t open your mouth to speak, you can never speak it” (T6, Interview 1).

The importance of the family in inspiring English language learning was apparent in T10’s experience even though she grew up in the context of Vietnam liberation in the 1970s when English was not a preferable additional language to be learned at school. In our first interview, she stated that very few people studied English at that time due to the prevalence of Russian. Students had few opportunities or

encouragement to learn the English language. She reported that she loved English because she lived in an English language environment at home where every member in her family sang and listened to English songs and read English story books. Her siblings also talked to each other in English. She explained that her parents attended Western schools at a young age, so they educated their children that way (via the English language). Therefore, all her siblings loved English and chose English as their major at tertiary level.

Growing up speaking English at home was an advantage for those who were brought-up in an English-speaking family. Furthermore, those whose parents or family members could not speak English were given support to learn English outside their homes. This will be further described in the following sub-section.

4.2.1.2 Opportunities to learn English outside the home

Since the parents of some teacher participants did not know how to speak English, their parents sent them to foreign language centres. The feelings of being cared for in relation to their language learning fostered their positive emotion for English. For T4, her enthusiasm for the English language grew together with her parents' support and her teachers' ways of teaching. Recalling her first experiences learning English, T4 told me about how she perceived herself as lucky to have a "devoted father" and a "dedicated teacher". She recounted:

When I was a little girl, my father used to ride me on his bike to a foreign language centre to study English regardless of sunny or rainy days. He also looked for good books and bought them for me to study. ... Also, I was lucky to be taught by a very good teacher who succeeded in redesigning tasks in a grammar-translation based book to make them more communicative. He gave us [a] chance to practise speaking. So I learned about English speaking when I was in grade 3 or 4. (T4, Interviews 1 & 2)

In addition to the enthusiasm for English, feelings of enjoyment and happiness were also reported in T8's early learning. Like T4, T8's parents sent her to an English language centre for children to be taught by two experienced teachers when she was in grade 4. Although she could only learn single words like *book* and *boy* in every class, she said that she really enjoyed learning English at that time. She added that she remembered feeling very happy when she was granted an

award as one of the best English learners in the class at the end of the course (T8, Interview 1).

In summary, the emotional experiences linked with the advantages of receiving family support for their exposure to English in their early years disposed them positively to learning English. It may have been a force in their feeling of success.

4.2.2 At school

When the teacher participants reached the age to begin learning English formally at school, like their classmates, they experienced traditional teaching methods, such as the grammar-translation method. This meant learning and teaching English focused on reading comprehension, and completing vocabulary and grammar exercises rather than speaking. Disappointment due to traditional teaching methods was the predominant emotion for most of the teacher participants during their school days (section 4.2.2.1). However, their interest in speaking English and personal efforts stimulated them to look for opportunities to practise English outside the classroom with English speakers, which led to mixed emotions (section 4.2.2.2).

4.2.2.1 Experiencing traditional teaching methods

All the teacher participants showed their disappointment with their “minimal learning” of English at school and lack of opportunity to speak English. They all shared that they did not seem to have opportunities to speak due to the traditional teaching method, which focused on grammar and reading comprehension. Several teachers added that their English speaking in the class was just the process of initiation-response-feedback, not a communicative or interactive speaking task. T8 and T9 further commented that even in special English classes for gifted students their teachers only concentrated on writing and vocabulary, not speaking. T9 specified:

In grade 9, I started attending an English class for gifted students. For three years at senior secondary school, speaking was very limited. We were mainly taught according to the traditional teaching method. Also, we were supposed to have one period [45 minutes] for speaking per week, but sometimes none. Actually, for speaking we just copied dialogues from

Russian books written in English, then read them aloud and learned by heart. (T9, Interview 1)

Disappointment was also sensed in T5's description of English classroom interactions when she talked about her past experiences learning English at school. T5 articulated:

At secondary school, I was only taught grammar, writing and reading without any communicative interaction. "How many students are there in the class?" asked the teacher. The students raised their hands and answered. The teacher commented: "Good / bad / correct / incorrect". She didn't give any further feedback and / or activities for us to get involved. (T5, Interview 1)

The absence of speaking practice at school was confirmed in my first interview with a younger teacher who began to learn English ten years later than the other teacher participants. She revealed that her teachers still focused more on grammar. Despite being in a class of gifted students of English, T5 could only practise writing English, not speaking it. Her memories of English classes at school included winning vocabulary games because she knew and could write down more words than other students. She remembered feeling proud about that.

The English study the teacher participants could remember were grammar, reading, writing and vocabulary. However, they reported that their interest and engagement in learning the language inspired them to seek other opportunities to speak English outside the classroom. This kind of practice was widespread among Vietnamese language learners, and is described in more detail in the next section.

4.2.2.2 Opportunities to speak English outside the classroom

Although the teacher participants felt they were not given enough opportunity to speak English in the classroom, most reported seeking opportunities outside the class with tourists. This local practice took place when language learners approached English speaking strangers in the street or at tourist spots to practise English. Stepping out of their classroom world and being able to speak to native English speakers brought an excitement and other emotions depending on the interlocutors' attitude and their own personal drive.

Unlike the other teacher participants, T1 remembered feeling less fortunate than others because her parents neither could speak English nor had the time to take her to English classes. Her motivation for learning English caused her to look for English speakers after school. She narrated her story:

I had a friend whose father took her to the promenade [a tourist attraction] and to a coffee shop there where she could practise English with English speakers almost every evening. I told my parents about this but they didn't have free time to do so. Then, I asked my friends to go with me. We cycled there every summer evening, starting with very simple conversations. When I reached grade 9, I was able to speak English. (T1, Interview 1)

Despite T1's eagerness to look for those with whom she could interact and thereby practise her English-speaking skills, she said she initially felt anxious. She explained her anxiety as coming from some abrupt responses of "No" to her request to practise using English. This, however, did not discourage her, and she looked for other English speakers. She reported happiness and excitement when she talked to individuals who seemed interested in conversation. In such cases, she said she could think of many interesting topics and ideas to talk to them about. She described her experience then as being at ease, unconcerned about making mistakes due to her own strategies. She clarified:

I spoke naturally in the manner of a complete beginner. I didn't care about mistakes. I found it natural to make mistakes and to be corrected. The first thing I said to the English speakers I met was "Excuse me. I'm learning English at school and I just want to practise speaking English. So would you mind speaking English with me so that I can speak English better at my school?" Thus, whenever I made a grammar or pronunciation mistake, they immediately helped me to correct it. (T1, Interview 2)

T3 also shared her mixed feelings of anxiety and excitement when she first spoke English with a group of American students who came to her senior secondary school to visit. However, she revealed her emotions as "a little bit of anxiety and overall excitement" (T3, Interview 1). In our second interview, T3 elaborated on her mixed feelings when first speaking to English speakers. She interpreted her anxiety as associated with her image of herself as unable to communicate with

English speakers well because of a lack of vocabulary to express herself. On the other hand, she saw her excitement as stemming from her ability to use the language to communicate in real life or to apply in practice what she had learned theoretically. This is reminiscent of informal learning earlier with her father's support. T3 made use of any opportunities to improve her English.

Regardless of discomfort, the teachers continued to seek opportunities to approach English speakers as mentioned above by T1 and stated by T3 as follows:

I spoke to a lot of English speakers in the streets and at tourist places and whenever I had an opportunity to meet English speakers, I spoke English to them with daily conversational English. (T3, Interview 1)

The benefit they derived from talking to individuals outside the classroom was more confidence using the language and pride because they could use the language. Whenever they were complimented by others saying “Oh, you are really good!” and “Your English is really nice”, their pride was reinforced. They reported that a passion for English, together with pride, stimulated them to learn better and to choose English as their major at university. In other words, it was the emotional experience outside the classroom that provided these participants with a drive to learn and then go on to teaching English.

4.2.3 At university

All the teachers agreed that they had more opportunities to speak English during their university years than ever before in their English learning journey, which involved not only in-class but also out-of-class experiences. Two groups of teachers reported experiencing various emotions associated with different teaching methods and social interactions.

4.2.3.1 English in the classroom

Both the younger and older teachers talked about their English learning (when studying) in tertiary classroom contexts. For the older experienced teachers, the tertiary contexts were challenging. Though no emotion was explicitly named, these teachers signaled a feeling of disappointment through their description of the traditional language teaching methods and limited learning resources their teachers used at that time. They explained that they were not exposed to

communicative language teaching and that they had to learn English from out-of-date resources by Russian publishers. They had to manually copy the books needed for their studies. They had no Internet access then. They reported that the hardship made them value all the resources they could obtain.

By contrast, the younger teacher participants reported being more fortunate in experiencing communicative language teaching, as their teachers gradually familiarized themselves with this approach. They had more opportunities to speak English in the classroom with their teachers and peers. In this more interactive context, the participants being exposed to others' judgment and being recognized by others were linked to both negative and positive emotions. A typical example of negative emotions was T5's incidents in classes where she had to speak English. Unlike the other teacher participants who had a firm foundation of English from their childhood, T5 only learned English from grade 6 till grade 9. She then had to learn Russian at her senior secondary school (grade 10 – grade 12) because only Russian was taught there. She resumed studying English after failing to gain entrance to another university programme for three consecutive years. T5 said that her first experience speaking English was in the classroom at the university. She reported feeling under pressure and tension when she was asked to speak English in the class. Recalling this difficult time, T5 stated:

Before standing up to speak, my shirt got wet with sweat. I forgot about everything in the world, and my words disappeared. If I was prepared to say ten words, then I could remember only five or six words. (T5, Interview 1)

However, it was also from social interaction that T5 received encouragement and understanding from her teachers, which led to pride associated with a sense of acceptance, and the drive for her to study well to become an English teacher at a university. T5 stated:

Knowing that I was a poor older student who was always sitting in the last row of the class, he [one of her teachers] called me to say several English sentences during his classes. Gradually, I started speaking English. In the third year, I lifted myself to the tenth position in the class. I graduated with nearly a distinction degree because my first two-year grades were so low.

But I was highly appreciated and ranked as an excellent older student. (T5, Interview 1)

T8 reported her positive feelings interacting with teachers and friends, and being recognised and praised by her teachers. T8 recalled her happiness and pride speaking English as she was perceived to be a better student than her university classmates. She further claimed that her enjoyment in English speaking development was associated with her teachers' encouragement and recognition of her ability. In the first interview, she stated:

At university, I was kind of a rather good student. I felt cheerful whenever I spoke English, so I usually looked for the chance to speak. I also felt proud because I could speak better than my classmates. I still remember my speaking teacher [the teacher of oral English] often compared my voice with a nightingale's. I knew it was just a joke but I still felt happy. Another teacher used to ask me to read things aloud for the whole class as modeling. Most teachers encouraged me and made me feel like speaking English more. (T8, Interview 1)

4.2.3.2 Opportunities to speak English outside the classroom

4.2.3.2.1 Joining English speaking clubs

Most teachers mentioned the role of English speaking clubs in developing their speaking skills and their comfort speaking English there. They said that to provide more opportunities for students to practise speaking, their university faculties had established English clubs and encouraged them to join. They had opportunities to meet the students from other English classes and talk about their interests.

The feeling of comfort during the speaking activities in English clubs was shared by almost all teachers and is reflected in T4's statement below:

I went to every English club held in our faculty. Normally, there were some students who volunteered to be prepared and give a presentation on a certain topic and then they would be showered with the audience's questions. I also volunteered too. Sometimes we could suggest our favorite topics and discuss in pairs or groups. I spoke freely in the friendly atmosphere without

worrying about mistakes and learned a lot from the students in the upper classes and also from juniors. (T4, Interview 1)

Despite the benefit they gained from joining the club, the teachers continued to seek opportunities to speak to English speakers.

4.2.3.2.2 Speaking to English speakers outside the classroom

Apart from seeking speaking opportunities with tourists when they were school children (see section 4.2.2.2), the teachers confirmed their desire to speak English to native speakers, which became prominent when they were English students at university. Unlike their first experiences talking to English speakers when they were younger, they discussed their eagerness, excitement, and enjoyment in their description of taking the initiative in arranging to meet with some English speakers several times.

T3 actively approached English speakers on the street. She said that she normally started “breaking the ice” by asking where they came from. Then they could talk about any topic. She invited them to her house because she thought English speakers would appreciate the family life of local people, which would provide her a good opportunity to speak English (T3, Interview 1).

Using foreign English speakers to practise English was also shared by T9. However, unlike younger teachers, T9 said he did have a chance to speak to English speakers until he was a third or fourth-year student, and he really enjoyed it. He added, “Whenever I met English speakers, I used to see them a couple of times. After the first meeting, I usually asked for a follow-up at a restaurant or a coffee shop” (T9, Interview 1). He reported preparing some phrases or idioms in advance by consulting a dictionary or more experienced English learners. In his view, his preparation suggests that opportunities to be exposed to English speakers were rare. Hence, he wanted to make the most of them to improve his English.

T9’s eagerness and excitement about using English with native speakers were reinforced in T10’s experience. She said:

The year I entered the university was also the time our country began to welcome foreigners. It was valuable to meet American and British tourists.

So whenever we saw them in the street, we often “chased” them to practise speaking. Also, I joined the university tours and volunteered to guide English speakers. (T10, interview 1)

4.2.3.3 Teachers’ self-concept as successful English learners

Regardless of the teachers’ acknowledgement of the important contribution of the university environment to their English speaking, their perception of themselves as successful language learners was a significant influence on their future success.

Six of the teachers talked about their success at different stages of their English learning experiences. Four of the teachers reported attending English classes for gifted students who were selected from all the schools in the province due to their high English proficiency after several years of compulsory English study. In this environment, they were more likely to have exposure to English and to achieve more than their friends of the same age. T1 was a typical example. In our first interview, she talked about her completion of English level C, which was then the highest national English certificate, when she was only in grade 8. In the following years, she won several prizes for her English proficiency. With a good background in English at school, T1 said she was much better than her classmates when she entered the university and felt at ease learning English there.

T3 described her success in her English learning experiences in a more complex way, in relation to her pride and her personal effort. She said she felt proud of herself when she was able to use the language, which encouraged her to work harder. As a result, she received awards and prizes from the provincial or regional examinations in English, and higher marks in English examinations at school and university. Understandably, and in line with well-established educational research in this area (e.g., Mercer, 2011), this experience enhanced her self-concept and was closely linked to effective learning.

T6 attributed her success in English to the learning environment and her competition with classmates. She stated that she was selected among the best students of her school to attend the gifted English class in grade 9, and was considered the best at English in her class. However, she did not speak much English. It was when T6 began to compete with a talkative classmate that she became “talkative”.

The teacher participants who did not attend English classes for gifted students also related their accomplishment at school and university. Recalling the achievement, she gained in the first year of English at school due to parental support, T4 said, “when I reached grade 6, I was able to attend English classes for grade 9 at school” (T4, Interview 1).

The next section will present the teachers’ emotions in their teaching and professional experiences.

4.2.4 Teaching and professional experiences

The environment where these teachers were expected to use English most was their classrooms. Although they reported feeling very confident speaking English at the time of the interview, they admitted experiencing different emotions when speaking English, depending on the interlocutors, contexts, and topics. Those emotions had certain influences on their English speaking.

4.2.4.1 Classroom situations

Almost all teachers said that they experienced different and / or changing emotions when speaking English in their classrooms depending on their students’ attitudes towards learning, their degree of participation in classroom activities, and their levels of English.

4.2.4.1.1 Students’ attitudes and participation in classroom activities

All teachers stated that they were always well-prepared for their lessons before coming to class and were very “excited and enthusiastic” to convey their knowledge and understanding of the subject area to their students. Their emotions remained positive if their students cooperated and showed positive attitudes towards learning. A commitment to speak English was reflected in T3’s third journal when she was helping a group of gifted secondary students with IELTS speaking test strategies. Sharing the feeling of enthusiasm and her sense of speaking fluently, T3 narrated:

They were intelligent, eager to learn, which motivated me to speak more than I needed to. They were prompt in responding and had interesting ideas in answering my questions. So, I was excited to share with them my

knowledge and experience with the IELTS speaking test. (T3, Reflective Journal 3)

T10 felt the same excitement and confidence working with her Masters degree students. She stated in our second interview:

Last week I went to city C to teach a masters course – Teaching writing in English. ... When I was lecturing and raised several questions to check the students' comprehension, they answered my questions very enthusiastically and actively participated in the lesson just like high school students. As a result, I could speak English to them more excitedly and confidently. (T10, Interview 2)

Similarly, T4 shared her positive feelings and enthusiasm when teaching language teaching methodology to her final year students, who became involved in her lecture. She said:

After lecturing part of the lesson, I asked some questions. They volunteered to answer enthusiastically and showed their interest in the lesson. Their enthusiasm made me feel good and excited. I then expanded the lesson by further explaining beyond my planned outline. My English flowed easily. (T4, Interview 2)

Additionally, T6 recounted the impact of one student's engagement in her teaching and confirmed the influence of emotions on her oral communication. She stated:

Yesterday I taught one first-year class; a problematic student [who neither paid attention to the lecture nor participated in classroom activities] in the class volunteered to describe a picture. His change of attitude towards learning had an influence on my feelings, which made me explain more apart from my teaching plan. It's true that emotions have affected my oral communication. (T6, Interview 2)

However, the teachers' commitment often changed to resentment when their students displayed negative attitudes to learning and non-participation in classroom activities. This can be clearly seen in T3's, T4's, T7's, and T10's stories. In T3's case, she reported, in her fourth reflective journal, her initial

feeling of eagerness to speak English changed to annoyance because some of the students did not participate in the class activities after her lecture. She said she did not try to hide her feelings, but showed her anger in her speech by using words to “criticize the lazy students” in the class discussion. Three participants (T4, T7, and T10) shared similar experiences when they asked their students to read a text to prepare for the following class. This reduced these teachers’ desire to share their knowledge and understanding. T10 said, “The students ‘poured cold water’ on me”, and led to them wanting to withdraw.

Three teachers reported that negative emotions adversely affected different aspects of their English speaking. In reference to the unpleasant situations described above, they admitted that the emotion affected their fluency. For example, they reported that they did not feel like teaching, and spoke less and haltingly with a cheerless tone. They also revealed that emotion influenced the quantity and complexity of their speech. They spoke “just enough to complete” their teaching tasks. T4 clarified: “Instead of using complex sentences, I spoke with simple ones only adequate to understand” (T4, Interview 2). Furthermore, emotion also affected the quality and coherence of their speech. T10, for instance, stated that she experienced “cold feelings” of “letting it be” and did not care how expressive she should be in her speech. She asserted, “I spoke incoherently and failed to connect the ideas together” (T10, interview 2).

According to two teachers, their students’ different attitudes engendered different emotions and had various effects on their own English speaking. The students’ negative attitudes towards learning made T5 and T1 feel “upset and bored” and had a negative effect on their English speaking; T1 even switched to the mother tongue. Fortunately, they regained their excitement and fluency in speaking in response to students’ positive attitudes. This can be illustrated in the two stories told by T5 and T1 in their reflective journals. They each repeated their morning lessons in the afternoon with different students. They were able to reflect, at the end of the day, on the change of their emotions depending on their students’ attitudes and participation.

Like the three teachers mentioned above, T5 narrated a story that she entered the morning class in a good mood with the hope that she could share what she had

prepared for the lesson with her students. Her earlier enthusiasm was replaced by resentment and a perception of the students' "laziness and irresponsibility", as half of the class had not completed their homework. This affected her lesson delivery. She began to speak softly and haltingly and gave negative feedback to her students. She stated that her attitude continued in the afternoon class. However, the students' good preparation for their homework and their active participation in the lesson changed her feeling and also her English speaking. She wrote, "Their hard work made me happy again. I regained my good mood and started talking a lot. I listened to the students more and gave more constructive comments. My English speaking was more accurate and fluent" (T5, Reflective journal 1).

Similar to T5's story, T1 reported realising a clear distinction in her emotions and English when teaching the two classes on the same day. Her reported boredom in the morning class was associated with her students' disengagement. They neither answered her questions nor showed whether they understood the lesson. Consequently, T1 codeswitched – using some Vietnamese instead of English. In the afternoon class, by contrast, her students' active participation led to her excitement in speaking. She gave a specific example in which she had to use Vietnamese to explain some vocabulary in the morning class, but she was able to say everything in English in the afternoon class. Her boredom, excitement and pride could be sensed in her reflective journal.

More interestingly, at the end of her journal, T1 analysed the causes leading to the variation in her speaking. She wrote:

Whether I felt excited at speaking or not depended on the students' English levels and attitudes toward learning. I had already explained the lesson in the morning, so I had a better understanding, deeper knowledge and experience of it. Hence, I spoke at ease and more confidently in the afternoon class. (T1, Reflective journal 3)

Apart from the influence of students' attitudes towards learning and their class participation, the data also showed that these teachers experienced different emotions depending on students' competence levels. I discuss this in more detail below.

4.2.4.1.2 Students' competence levels

Despite the comfort that all teachers perceived of English speaking in the classroom, two groups of teachers reported contradictory emotions towards their students' low English proficiency. One newly graduated teacher and three less experienced teachers reported feeling safe speaking English to students with low levels of English. Meanwhile, three of the more experienced teachers discussed frustration and tension speaking to similar students. These emotions were seen to be closely linked to their teaching conscientiousness and language teacher self-concept.

Four of the teachers acknowledged feeling comfortable when talking to students with lower English proficiency. Two teachers (T1 and T8) stated that they could speak at ease because the amount of vocabulary they used in the classroom was restricted to certain topics within the curriculum that they could control. T1 added that she felt secure and stress-free speaking to students with low English levels. This feeling was likely to be associated with her secure language teacher self-concept. T1 specified:

Different from other contexts, the language used in the classroom is not so complicated due to the limited language background of our students. Because the subjects are not so superb, I seem not to have any problem speaking English to them. They can speak little English, so they can't recognize some mistakes I may make when speaking. Whatever English I speak to them they always think it is perfect, so I don't have anything to worry about. I feel secure and am not afraid of being judged. (T1, Interview 1)

By contrast, three experienced teachers expressed caution and the feeling of tension adjusting and downgrading the degree of language difficulty to assure their message conveyance. This, in turn, was reported to affect their fluency, and complexity. T7 clearly stated in our first interview:

Today our students' English level is generally very low. Teaching them has also greatly affected my English speaking. When I speak to them I don't know if they understand because they don't show any facial reactions. Even when I ask, they don't answer. So sometimes I feel the need to repeat what

I've just said or even re-explain in Vietnamese for fear that they haven't understood. That makes my English speaking non-fluent because I have to segment my utterance, part in English and part in Vietnamese. Otherwise, I'm obliged to speak in a simple and easier way. I can't speak naturally as I usually do, which affects my fluency. (T7, Interview 1)

Similar to T7's feeling, T10 reported experiencing caution speaking English with low level students, and the negative impacts of this emotion on her spoken English. T10 described a scenario:

When I ask students to do a certain task, group work for instance, after giving instruction, I realise that they don't understand, so I have to re-explain in Vietnamese. I think their major is English, so I keep speaking in English. ... Students often stutter, so I'm also influenced. Because their level is lower, when I speak I have to slow down a bit so that they can understand. This affects my fluency. (T10, interview 1)

To add to this general trend, T5 talked about her anxiety and tension using English, running a workshop with weak English primary teacher trainees. She complained about their poor English proficiency and her problem in making them understand terminology and difficult-to-explain sentences. She said she was very conscious of using very simple English that they could understand. However, when keeping eye-contact with them she noticed no signal of understanding. This directed her to simplify more and give more examples to demonstrate. She reported feeling stressed when she spoke and had to choose vocabulary that was closely related to their level and to her teaching points, which reduced her fluency (T5, Interview 2).

Despite this discomfort and frustration, most teachers reported being confident, comfortable, and safe when speaking English to lower-level students without fear of judgment. How they felt and spoke the English language when they stepped out of the comfort zone of classroom situations will be presented in the following section.

4.2.4.2 Conferences and Workshops

In addition to speaking English in the classroom, five out of nine teacher participants had presented at international conferences and all attended workshops

for their professional development. The predominant emotions most teachers reported were anxiety and caution associated with their self-concept, and their colleagues' and audiences' attitudes and cooperation. This finding aligns with the teachers' responses in the questionnaire in terms of their most nervousness speaking at conference presentations compared with other situations.

In professional activities such as conference and workshop presentations, five of the teachers reported caution and anxiety associated with their anticipation of not doing well and unpleasant past experiences with first language (L1) audience. One young teacher, by contrast, reported her eagerness linked with her needs to share and learn, and her perceptions of others' tolerance to her inexperience.

The common emotion people experienced at the conference was anticipation anxiety. By anticipation anxiety T3 meant the anxious feeling people often experience before they actually present because they anticipate that they may not perform well (T3, Interview 1).

T10 reported sensing anticipation anxiety through her physical reactions which she described as follows:

I felt as if there were butterflies in my stomach. I felt my tummy was empty as if the lower part had been cut out. My limbs were cold and trembling. I felt scared. I tried to breathe deeply to drive away my anxiety. I felt discomfort. If I didn't appear on the stage I still had that feeling. Until I came to the stage I felt as if someone stepped out not me. When I started speaking and was able to speak several sentences, I felt confident again and I didn't know when my anxiety disappeared. (T10, Interview 2)

In the second interview, elaborating in terms of her EAL speaker self-concept in the relationship with the audience, T3 stated:

When I looked at the audience, a lot of eyes looked back at me. I felt kind of doing something to be really exact, really fluent. I had to be correct in my ideas. I was afraid of speaking something wrong and it felt like not from the language, but it was just from the relationship. (T3, Interview 2)

T7 related his anxiety to his anticipation and his selection of language. These, in turn, affected his fluency. T7 stated: "I felt anxious. I wondered if I could fully

express myself and I might speak more haltingly. I needed to think more about the ideas, structures and vocabulary. I had to be very thoughtful, so I couldn't speak naturally" (T7, Interview 1).

Along the same lines, T8 also experienced anxiety when first attending a workshop with her colleagues. She feared making mistakes and the audience showing a lack of interest in her ideas. She thought her colleagues were superb (compared with her), and she admired them all. She acknowledged that anxiety ruined her memory and that her thinking could not catch up with her speech. She explained:

My mouth opened but my mind didn't work accordingly. I'd say something very silly though I'd got ready for the presentation. Before raising my hand, I started to shiver; my heart beat violently; and I almost completely forgot my points. I had three ideas, but when presenting I remembered only one and missed two. Of course I kept talking but only said what I could think of. I still felt anxious even after my presentation. (T8, Interview 2)

She reported that her anxiety remained after nearly ten years of teaching. It occurred when she spoke out in a recent psychology workshop on individual differences. Realizing that some participants' opinions in the discussion were "trivial", she volunteered to share her more focal points with them. Although she actively participated in the conversation, she reported experiencing anxiety. "I was very anxious then. My speech sounded like crying. I couldn't say much. I could neither expand nor explain my idea" (T8, Interview 2).

T8 interpreted her anxiety as being associated with her desire to perform at her best, being afraid of not being able to achieve it, and having a low self-image. She claimed:

First, I thought I wished to work well and I was afraid I couldn't do it well, which made me feel the most anxious. Second, I was concerned about what people thought about me. I thought I was not good at speaking and afraid of being judged. They might say: "Ah, this person is not good. She can't speak fluently and her vocabulary is not rich." I was kind of anxious about being judged. (T8, Interview 2)

In addition, a few teachers talked about their anxiety mixed with frustration due to a lack of positive engagement from Vietnamese conference attendees. T9 discussed this:

I feel extremely anxious at the beginning of a conference presentation, especially with the presence of Vietnamese people at international conferences because they tend to be negatively critical. They usually focus more on what people miss rather than what they can achieve. For example, in the last CamTESOL conference, I felt much more anxious when seeing a great number of Vietnamese people there. It was good to be challenged but their challenge was put forward negatively and unreasonably. Their challenge was unscientific and destructive. I brought that stereotype with me to the conference, so I generally felt anxious. (T9, Interview 1)

T9's reaction to presenting at a conference with a Vietnamese audience was shared by T10:

In a conference, if there are many Vietnamese people, I don't feel as excited as talking to many native English speakers because questions from the Vietnamese are usually very challenging. Normally, I have already presented some points but they didn't pay attention. Then they raised questions as a challenge, which is not very constructive. Not all but most of the audience brings about such a feeling. (T10, interview 2)

T10 attributed the challenging phenomenon to the skeptical personality, sense of superiority, and lack of research background of most Vietnamese audience members at the conference.

Unlike the more experienced teachers, T1 acknowledged that her young age was an advantage for her when attending conferences. Along with her young age, her perceived low self-image in comparison to her colleagues and peers led to her comfort speaking English. T1 stated:

I feel very eager and hardly anxious when I present or have any ideas to share at a conference. On the one hand, because of the seriousness of the conference, I'm well-prepared. On the other hand, because I am young and the people around me are mostly doctors [PhDs], I think they will be

tolerant if I make mistakes. My purpose of attending conferences is to share and to learn. (T1, Interview 2)

All of these participants associated their emotion with their self-concept as a language teacher and language speaker in relation to their colleagues and peers.

4.2.5 Informal interactions

In addition to the formal settings in classrooms, conferences and workshops, the teachers engaged in informal English interactions in which they communicated mainly with English speakers. Their experiences took place in local and overseas settings.

4.2.5.1 English in local settings

4.2.5.1.1 Communicating with strangers

Several teachers reported different emotions when speaking English to strangers; namely, those they met for the first time. Anxiety was prominent in T8's and T9's experience. T9 connected his anxiety with his self-concept as a language speaker. He stated, "I'm anxious if what I say can be understood and perceived and if my voice and presentation are comprehensible" (T9, Interview 1). He stated further, that since he had not known the strangers before, he found it hard to "break the ice" and hence would speak haltingly. He concluded, "I generally feel more anxious with strangers" (T9, Interview 2).

Similarly, T8, who did not talk to English speakers when she was in school, claimed that she did not feel confident communicating with English speakers. She had the feeling that she was by nature not compatible with Westerners and that Westerners did not like her. She compared herself with a snail that retreated into its shell. She said she felt intimidated, uncomfortable and not open talking to strangers, not only English speakers but also Vietnamese people. She confessed that her conversations with strangers sounded diplomatic, superficial and insincere and that she usually tried to avoid communicating with them (T8, Interview 2).

T1, who had tried many ways to practise speaking English with foreign visitors to her hometown in her early years, in contrast, reported feeling very confident and comfortable talking to strangers. She said she saw no barriers between herself and them. Unlike T8 and T9, T1 could "break the ice without any fear and start a

conversation with strangers, both local and international, faster than with acquaintances” (T1, Interview 2). Moreover, T1’s comfort and confidence speaking to unknown people were also reflected in her second journal. The enjoyable atmosphere with social activities at a Halloween celebration led to speaking English comfortably without fear of negative evaluation. She wrote:

Many games were organized and English was the medium of communication. Various kinds of people came and no one knew each other, so there was no fear of being judged. I found it more comfortable to speak English here than in the classroom. I learned that it created a real English speaking environment and everybody could speak English more naturally, cheerfully and excitingly. (T1, Reflective Journal 2)

4.2.5.1.2 Communicating with English speaking friends

Earlier in section 4.2.2.2, in the context of speaking English outside the classroom, talk with English speaking friends and tourists was discussed. Two prominent emotions, excitement and anxiety arose. These emotions changed when they became language teachers. Three of the teachers reported their feeling of enjoyment, happiness and pride in addition to their comfort and confidence when communicating with their English-speaking friends in local settings. T1’s experience talking to [name], a volunteer American teacher at her university, provides an example. T1 reflected:

I found it interesting to be able to communicate in English with an English speaker. She came from a different country but I could talk a lot with her. It was great fun. Besides life issues, [name] and I could discuss English learning and teaching at university. I felt happy because I could talk not only to Vietnamese people but also to English speakers comfortably. If I hadn’t learned English, my chance of communicating with English speakers would have been limited. (T1, Reflective Journal 3)

In our second interview, T1 told of a similar experience talking to a friend from Australia. It occurred at a party with some University Z leaders who could not speak English. They showed their admiration when seeing her speak confidently and naturally. “Some teachers approached me to ask how I could speak English so well,” she said. Her belief was that her happiness and pride emerging from their

compliments inspired her to speak with “more gestures and high voice” which enhanced her speaking (T1, Interview 2).

Like T1, T3 enjoyed a family dinner with a British volunteer working in her city. She wrote:

I was happy to talk to him in a friendly atmosphere; we had great fun. The topic of his culture shock in Vietnam made us laugh. I talked more and shared more as I also experienced culture shock in other countries. (T3, Reflective Journal 4)

Her comfort in speaking English to this English speaker was associated not only with feeling “equal”, as she clarified in the second interview, but also with the informal situation and an interesting topic to share.

In the following story, T8, who did not like talking to English speakers, reported that she felt confident and could make jokes and talk a lot when she was liked and accepted by others. She described a recent dinner with her colleagues and a workshop master trainer, a British Council employee, whom she was seated beside. They ordered chicken and he happened to pick up the chicken tail meat, which people often do not like to eat. She joked that the British Council had not trained him thoroughly or taught him good observation skills so that he could spot the tail meat immediately. She reported that everyone burst out laughing. Talking about the influence of emotions on her English speaking, T8 concluded:

When I felt confident and other people seemed to be interested in what I was saying, I could make jokes and talk a lot. ... Once again, I see that my emotions and mood have affected my English speaking. When I’m happy I can think of many interesting ideas and topics to share and talk about. And when I’m sad or bored, I don’t know what to say. (T8, Reflective Journal 5 + Interview 2)

4.2.5.2 Overseas experiences

During the period of data collection, T9 and T10 were staying abroad in an English speaking country, so many of their reflective journals were related to their overseas experiences. Many emotions emerged in their everyday English speaking.

4.2.5.2.1 Communicating with friends

While staying abroad, T10 had several opportunities to meet with her friends. It was clear that in her two reflections on these experiences in home settings, she had contrasting emotions associated with her English speaker self-concept in relation to her friends. In the first setting, she wrote that her friend was a Chinese Vietnamese who came to Australia at the age of five and spoke English like an Australian. She reported feeling comfort and pleasure associated with being a competent English speaker and with sharing common knowledge with her friend in an informal situation. T10 reflected:

We talked about immigrants' life and work in Australia, then about our common friends. That might be the reason why I felt quite comfortable talking to her and I felt really happy to give a good impression on her that my English is very good. (T10, reflective journal 5)

T10's comfort and pleasure talking to her Chinese Vietnamese friend in the first setting was replaced by a challenging feeling and fear of evaluation when speaking to her Vietnamese friend in the second setting (T10, Reflective journal 7). T10 was invited to her friend's house for lunch and introduced to her Australian husband and their daughter who, like the father, sounded very Australian. It was a pleasant surprise for T10 that her friend had become Australian in her accent and the expressions she used after a few years studying in Sydney and working in Melbourne. T10 reflected on her emotion speaking to her friend at that time as follows:

Talking to her was a bit challenging to me as I kept wondering how she would evaluate my English. It was really hard to express but the feeling came whenever I talked to her rather than to her husband. In other words, I was more confident talking to the Australian than to the Vietnamese whose language acquisition seemed very good. What a strange feeling! (T10, reflective journal 7)

4.2.5.2.2 Everyday communication

In their daily conversations, T9 and T10 admitted still having difficulties and experiencing various emotions talking to native English speakers. In her second reflective journal, T10 reported experiencing comfort talking to the colleagues

working in the same office with her. Since it was her first week at University K, they introduced themselves and talked about their work there. She wrote, “I felt quite at ease talking to these people,” especially when they showed their interest in learning about her experience as a visitor there. Nevertheless, whenever listening to them talk to each other, she acknowledged that she began to feel like an outsider and a bit uncomfortable about joining their conversation (T10, Reflective journal 2).

More interestingly, T9 reported experiencing a variety of unpleasant emotions speaking English in everyday conversations. Recalling his difficulty and embarrassment, guilt and awkwardness in ordering fast food, T9 explained:

There were different types of hamburger. I needed to look at the menu for a long time. I didn't know what to order and sometimes I didn't pronounce the name of the dishes correctly. I felt more embarrassed and guilty when other people were waiting behind me. Also, I felt awkward because they might think that this person had never ordered in his life. I could actively talk to the waiter / waitress but I could hardly answer their questions. I still feel embarrassed. (T9, Interview 2)

Shame, guilt and disappointment were the other emotions T9 reported experiencing in another setting when talking on the phone about household utilities such as electricity, water and gas. He stated that customer service officers normally spoke very quickly and he could not understand them, especially those with an Australian accent. He explained his complicated emotions:

I felt ashamed if I asked them to repeat the questions again and again, and guilty if they had to speak very slowly so that I could understand. It was over at last, but I felt terribly disappointed because I could not speak well in such a simple situation. (T9, Interview 2)

4.3 Summary

In summary, the quantitative and qualitative findings show that the teacher participants reported experiencing a wide range of emotions throughout the process of learning and using English. Their emotions were experienced, accumulated, and shifted across multiple contexts over time since they began

learning English. In each context, the teachers had both positive and negative opportunities to learn and use English in interaction with others and hence experienced different emotions toward the language. Their emotions fluctuated throughout their journey associated with their interpretation of their interactions and relationships with others.

The teachers' stories indicate that the teachers felt emotionally engaged in learning and speaking English with a majority of teachers having advantages and resources from parental support regarding the English language in their childhood. Their positive early experiences seemed to lead to positive disposition to learning English, which established an emotional foundation for them to keep learning English and become successful language learners and teachers.

Mixed emotions of anxiety and excitement were reported in relation to their opportunities to access native English speakers and a sense of being accepted and sometimes rejected by speakers of the language. Shifting emotions were also reported along with feelings of being valued and belonging, being recognised above the others and being positioned higher than the others. There were also complex nuances of emotional experiences closely linked with their English teacher and speaker self-concept and L1 cultural values in teacher-student and peer relationships. These emotions were accumulated throughout their life along with opportunities and positive reinforcement of their use of English along the way. Although not systematically reported by the teacher participants, emotions were, to some extent, seen to affect some aspects of their English speaking.

Chapter Five: Emotions in students' journey of learning English towards becoming language teachers

This chapter presents the story of changing emotions in the student participants' journey of learning English towards becoming language teachers. The findings of this chapter rely on 102 students' questionnaire responses and 10 student interviews. Like Chapter Four, this chapter begins with an overview of the student participants' perceptions of the importance of emotions in their English speaking. It then describes general trends of a variety of reported emotions in early and current English speaking experiences, in both classroom and out-of-classroom contexts. Some comparisons between the students' and teachers' perceptions will be made. The questionnaire findings will be explained in more depth using the students' stories from the interview and reflective data. The chapter closes with a brief summary.

5.1 Students' perceptions of the role of emotions: questionnaire data

5.1.1 The influence of emotions on students' English speaking

The students' responses to question 5: *To what extent do you think emotions have influenced your English speaking?* show that a clear majority of students (76%) agreed that emotions had influenced their English speaking a great deal while a small proportion of them (1.2%) stated that emotions had hardly affected their speaking. These figures indicate that, like the teacher participants' perceptions of the influence of emotions (77%) (Figure 4-1), the student participants also acknowledged the importance of emotions in their English speaking (76%). In other words, it can be inferred that emotions played a role in both the teachers' and students' English speaking.

5.1.2 Students' reported perceptions of types and levels of emotions in their early and current experiences speaking English

Table 5-1, below, shows positive emotions were reported more frequently than negative ones. However, the reported levels of emotions varied depending on each emotion and their years of learning and speaking English.

Table 5-1: Students' reported levels of perceived types of emotions in their early and current experiences of speaking English

	Early experiences				Current experiences			
	N	Little or none (%)	Somewhat (%)	Quite & Very (%)	N	Little or none (%)	Somewhat (%)	Quite & Very (%)
Content	82	32	30	38	78	8	23	69
Confident	81	44	26	30	79	9	21	70
Excited	82	16	29	55	77	3	17	80
Proud	83	49	24	27	78	18	41	41
Embarrassed	80	17	28	55	78	51	36	13
Nervous	80	26	28	46	77	57	30	13
Frustrated	80	39	28	33	76	65	22	13

More than half of the students (55%) reported feeling quite and very excited and the same number embarrassed, and 46% of them experienced strong levels of nervousness when they first spoke English. Approximately half of them felt a little or not confident (44%) or proud of themselves (49%). There did not appear to be a clear trend of reported levels of being content and frustrated in the participants' early experiences speaking English. Each level was experienced by around a third of the students. In addition to the listed emotions, some added that they felt eager, worried about grammar, pronunciation, and vocabulary, bored, a little afraid of not being understood, disappointed, stressed, uncomfortable and shy.

Regarding their current experiences, the great majority of the students reported that they felt quite excited and very excited at speaking English (80%). The number of students who reported being quite and very content and confident increased from around a third in their early experiences (38% and 30%, respectively) to over two thirds in their current experiences (69% and 70%, respectively). More than half to nearly two thirds of the students who responded to this question felt no or a little embarrassment, nervousness, and frustration speaking English currently (at 51%, 57%, and 65%, respectively). A fair number

of the students (41%) felt somewhat proud of themselves and the same percentage felt quite and very proud. Additionally, several students provided their comments. One student reported still being worried about grammar, pronunciation, and vocabulary; some found it interesting, free and natural to speak English.

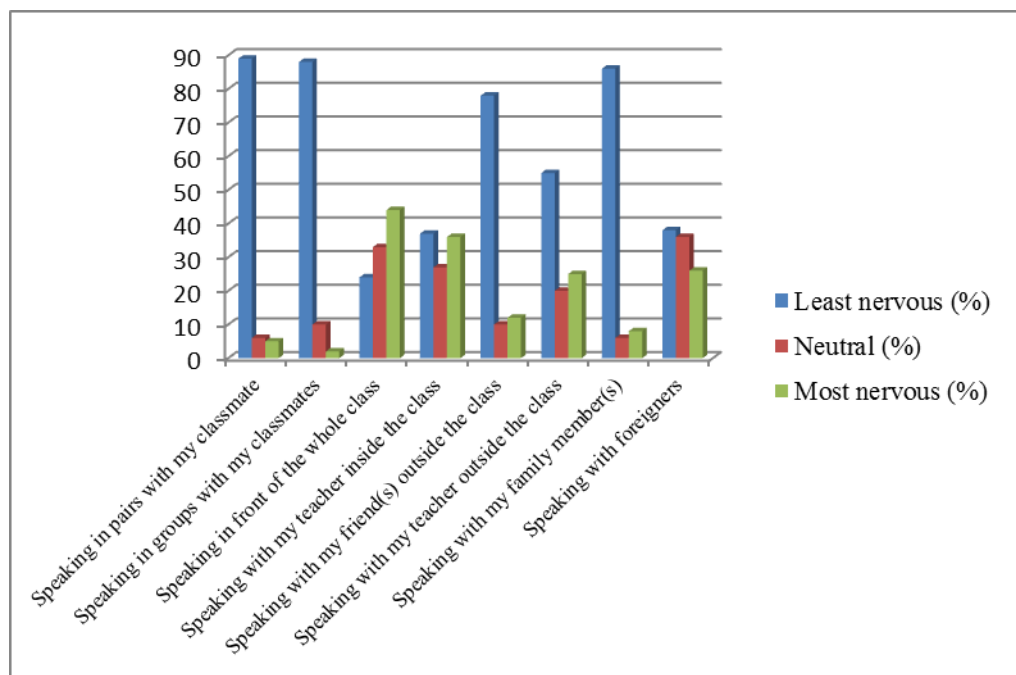
A comparison can be made regarding the teachers' and students' reported levels of emotions in their early and current experiences of speaking English (see Figure 4-1 and Figure 5-1 respectively). Both the student and teacher participants reported experiencing a wide range of emotions. Nevertheless, the levels of emotions were different between the two groups in their early and current experiences. More students tended to feel higher levels of negative emotions than the teachers in their early experiences speaking English, and more teachers had higher levels of positive emotions. This difference may stem from their English learning background, their linguistic competence, or their passion for the language. Currently, the emotions were distributed at the extremes of high positive and low negative emotions for both teachers and students with the teachers' distribution being even more extreme. What can be inferred from this difference is that the teachers may have matured along with their teaching experiences, which would make them feel positive and confident, and help them drive away the negative emotions while speaking English. Alternatively, having reached a higher level of English proficiency may also influence their perceptions. Noticeably, there was not much difference in the number of students (80%) and teachers (83%) who reported to be excited at speaking English currently. For the students, this is possibly because there might be a small proportion of students who felt so nervous, embarrassed and frustrated that they did not find it exciting to speak English. Regarding the teachers, perhaps some had numerous opportunities to be exposed to the English language environment, for example, using the language for their profession. Therefore, speaking English could be considered as a task, not necessarily an excitement. It may also be that the notion of *excitement* at speaking English would be an exaggeration.

5.1.3 Students' reported levels of nervousness for different contexts

Figure 5-1 indicates that a majority of students felt only slightly nervous in most situations. The situations which the students reportedly found the least nervous

were speaking in pairs with a classmate (89%), in groups with classmates (88%), with family members (86%), or with their friends outside the class (78%). The situations which were reported to make between a third and nearly half of the students feel most nervous were speaking with the teacher inside the class and speaking in front of the whole class (36% and 44%, respectively). Seemingly, in the formal classroom contexts, the students were inclined to feel nervous because of being watched and evaluated by their teachers and peers. There was no prominent trend for the reported levels of nervousness speaking with foreigners.

Figure 5-1: Students' levels of reported nervousness for different contexts



5.1.4 Effects of emotions on English speaking in specific communicative events

Table 5-2 summarises the responses to both possibilities of knowing and not knowing the answer. For Q9a, if the students know the answer, there was a clear difference between the number of responses selecting positive emotions (sixty-one to sixty-nine responses) and negative emotions (thirty-seven to forty-five responses). More respondents experienced positive emotions than negative ones if they knew the answer. The feelings of pleasure, excitement, confidence, and pride in themselves made them want to speak more, which was reported by a large percentage of students (79%, 77%, 74% and 69%, respectively). Even though they knew the answer, a considerable number of students still felt frustrated, nervous,

and embarrassed (37, 44 and 45 responses, respectively out of seventy-three students who answered this question). In fact, these feelings prevented them from speaking. Around half of the students (48%, 52% and 53%, respectively) who experienced these negative feelings found it hard to continue speaking and about a third (38%, 39% and 31%) felt they ‘could not speak’.

Table 5-2: Students’ reported feelings when being called by the teacher to answer a question and the effects of those emotions on their speaking

	Know the answer				Don't know the answer			
	N	I want to speak more (%)	I find it hard to continue speaking (%)	I cannot speak (%)	N	I want to speak more (%)	I find it hard to continue speaking (%)	I cannot speak (%)
Content	66	79	18	3	45	18	51	31
Confident	69	74	25	1	44	25	50	25
Excited	62	77	16	7	42	24	45	31
Proud	61	69	21	10	35	17	54	29
Embarrassed	45	16	53	31	55	13	38	49
Nervous	44	9	52	39	54	13	39	48
Frustrated	37	14	48	38	43	14	37	49

For Q9b, if the students do not know the answer, the responses for choosing negative feelings were slightly higher than those for positive ones. When they experienced embarrassment, nervousness, and frustration, around half of them (49%, 48% and 49%) reported they felt they ‘could not speak’ and more than a third (38%, 39%, and 37%) found it ‘hard to continue speaking’. Even when the students felt content, confident, excited, and proud of themselves, more than half of them (51%, 50%, 45%, and 54%) still found it ‘hard to continue speaking’, and less than a third (31%, 25%, 31%, and 29%) even ‘could not speak’. One student added that she did not like the teacher and her friends to laugh at her answer.

For the questions related to communicative events, including Q10 (working in pairs with another student), Q11 (participating in a group discussion), Q14 (speaking with friend(s) outside the class), Q15 (speaking with their teacher

outside the class), Q16 (speaking with their family member(s)), and Q17 (speaking with an English speaking foreigner), the students reported a wide range of emotions, and more positive emotions than negative ones in almost all situations. The results indicated that positive emotions, especially pleasure and excitement, stimulated the students to speak more, and that negative emotions prevented them from speaking English, as would be expected. Despite negative feelings, a larger proportion of the students reported finding it hard to continue speaking other than being unable to speak. This might mean that they still tried their best to communicate their message. Hence, their communication may not have broken down.

5.1.5 Reactions and recommendations

Q19 (N=57). The students were asked to share how they responded when emotions affected their oral communication. Their responses can be grouped into two main categories: either negative or positive. Around a fifth of students (19%) reported keeping silent or just smiling when they felt very emotional, which would hinder their oral communication. The majority of students reported controlling their feelings and always trying to keep talking to secure communication. They employed such strategies as taking a deep breath, thinking positively, seeking support from a friendly or imagined audience, and adjusting their speaking. Most of the students in the latter group appeared to experience positive emotions that inspired them to speak more. Apart from this, a small number of students responded by reacting physically, for example, closing their eyes, scratching their heads, or holding hands together. These physical reactions did not seem to imply either hindrance or enhancement to their speaking.

Q20 (N=55). The students were invited to advise EAL learners what to do when they felt very emotional while speaking English. In general, the students' advice was, to some extent, similar to what they did to overcome difficulties in their oral communication when they experienced emotions. Most of the students recommended that EAL learners should, first, be well-prepared for what they would talk about; second, adopt positive thinking; third, try to control their feelings by breathing deeply, keeping calm, relaxing, or being confident; and finally, do their best to speak out what they have in mind. In so doing, they would

be able to overcome some of the negative emotions which might hamper their speaking to continue their communication.

Referring back to the teacher participants' reactions and recommendations (section 4.1.3), there are some similarities. Although the teachers were more experienced in using and speaking the language than the students, both the teachers and students seemed to share the same emotional reactions. They also made similar recommendations for EAL learners who were very emotional while speaking English. In a word, despite proficiency and length of time learning a second language, some reactions appear widespread.

In summary, the questionnaire data has provided the students' perceptions of the role emotions played in their English speaking experiences. However, the relationship between emotion and language use is still embedded in a straightforward cause and effect paradigm. The students' stories of their emotional experiences from the interview and reflective data may help to explain the complexity and dynamics of emotions associated with the changing contexts and social interactions with others. The following section will draw on the qualitative data to present the students' stories of shifting emotions and their role in learning and speaking English.

5.2 Students' stories of shifting emotions in learning and speaking English: interview and reflective journal data

The students' interview and reflective journal data shows that their emotions varied in different settings where they learned and used English. This section will be structured around those settings. Unlike the teacher participants, the students did not report parental support for learning English in their early years. They all reported beginning to learn English as a compulsory subject at school. Negativity, uncertainty, and lack of interest in learning English during school time will be presented in section 5.2.1. Section 5.2.2 will deal with a wide range of emotions the students reported experiencing inside and outside the classroom at university.

5.2.1 Learning English during school time

The participants' stories in the interviews suggested that most of them experienced an uncertainty, and a lack of interest and engagement in learning

English during their school years. This section will describe their emotional experiences in changing contexts from early to late English learning experiences during school time.

5.2.1.1 Early English language learning experiences

As mentioned above, all the student participants of the qualitative phase began learning English as a compulsory subject at school. The emotions they reported experiencing in their early English language learning process were negativity and uncertainty associated with their teachers' teaching methods. All of the students stated that when they first commenced learning English they were too young to realise the significance of learning this language. They were not influenced or guided by their parents and their language teachers.

S10 specified, "at that time, we didn't know anything. We considered English as normal as any other subject. We repeated and jotted down whatever words the teacher told us. No one showed us how to learn English effectively" (S10, Interview 1).

Describing her English learning experience at primary school, S5 noted her lack of interest linked with an almost mechanical approach to learning.

What we learned for three years at primary school was some vocabulary such as *apple, orange, banana*, and some other simple words. Our English classes were often observed by other teachers. Thus, our teacher often repeated what she had taught in the previous lessons. We had already known the answers to all of her questions. So there was nothing interesting. What I can remember about learning English then is we were given a kind of fruit as a prize when we could pronounce the name of the fruit correctly". (S5, Interview 1 & 2)

Similar to S5, S1 revealed her negativity: "After three years learning English at primary school, I still did not know anything about English" (S1, Interview 1). With the same uncertainty about the language, S2 explained:

In grade 6, when I started learning English everything seemed to be very vague. I learned it without any application or purpose. Generally speaking, I

was unable to “absorb” any English in Grade 6. I was one of the weakest students in terms of English in my class then. (S2, Interview 1)

5.2.1.2 Exposure to English in the classroom at secondary school

The students reported the same negative experiences learning English in secondary schools as occurred in primary schools. Their lack of interest and engagement was associated with the language teaching methods their teachers implemented.

All of the students reported that the focus of English lessons at secondary school was predominantly grammar and vocabulary. Their negativity towards English was apparent through their use of some words with negative connotations such as *chỉ* which means *just* or *only* and *không bao giờ* which means *never*. For example, S3 said, “My teachers just taught me how to use grammatical points exactly. So, I could master grammatical points and vocabulary” (S3, Interview 1). Other students confirmed in our first interviews that they were only taught grammar, and nothing inspired them or made them excited in English classes. The long period of learning English at school was considered by S2 as a “process of accumulating grammar, structures and vocabulary” (S2, Interview 1).

Negativity was also apparent in the students’ stories about their opportunities to be exposed to spoken English inside the classroom. All the students reported seldom being exposed to spoken English in their English classrooms because their teachers spoke Vietnamese most of the time, even when giving simple instructions. S3’s disappointment could be detected through her description of her English class, as follows:

Although the structure of a lesson in an English textbook was composed of listening, speaking, reading, and writing, our teacher omitted speaking, listening and writing. She only picked up reading, though very superficially. She often asked us if there was any new vocabulary in the text. When we pointed the words out, she gave us their meanings in Vietnamese without any further explanation. She mainly focused on grammar points. All of her teaching and explanations were carried out in Vietnamese and we also answered her questions in Vietnamese. She never paid attention to speaking. (S3, Interview 1)

Once again, these negative responses suggested the students' lack of interest and engagement in the language classroom, and it seemed that they did not have any opportunities to speak English in class. This type of experience was common to all of the students of this study, and seemed to be caused by a focus on examination preparation. S2 explained that the long-lasting focus on grammar, structures and vocabulary in secondary school was controlled by examination-oriented language learning and teaching. Speaking and listening skills were not assessed in any English examinations.

However, three students (S4, S5 and S10) reported enthusiastic teaching from several teachers who provided them with opportunities to practise speaking English in their senior secondary school years. Nonetheless, speaking was defined by S5 as saying aloud individual sentences students composed after learning a grammar point rather than communicative language teaching. S5 added that speaking was then expanded to role-play or presentation on a prepared topic (S5, Interview 1). This meant that speaking was not completely excluded from secondary classrooms but was highly controlled. According to these students, the introduction to speaking caused them anxiety instead of excitement or enjoyment. S4 clarified that not being familiar with English pronunciation prevented them from opening their mouths to speak. She stated, "We usually felt very anxious when it came to speaking" (S5, Interview 1). Alternatively, they fell into the habit of reading aloud what they had written, which was then criticised by their teacher.

Despite receiving encouragement from their teachers, these students tended not to adapt themselves to speaking practice. They reported being interested in reading. S5 clarified in the second interview:

When I was at high school, some time was allotted to English speaking per week, but not much. I was a bit naïve about the importance of speaking, so I only enjoyed reading. For example, if I had a reading today, I'd like to read the text aloud again after coming home. In my spare time, I enjoyed reading prose texts loudly. (S5, Interview 2)

Perhaps any lack of success they felt as language learners was less apparent in the so-called receptive skills, and hence they may have been freed from the concern of loss of face.

5.2.1.3 Exposure to English outside the classroom

In spite of their negative experiences learning English in school, five of the students pointed out that they had passion for English and were determined to learn more English outside the classroom. They reported this as due to factors such as their parents' support, their admiration of a teacher or their personal effort. These students stated they had a love for learning English from an early age. However, they may have thought they were supposed to proceed with their description of what they had learned or experienced during their school time, so no detail of their passion for English was further given in the interviews. In S3's case, she merely found it "interesting yet strange to be able to speak another language apart from my first language. Thus, my love for English developed over time" (S3, Interview 1). Like other students, S9 said she had a passion for English at an early age and dreamed of becoming an English teacher since she was a little girl. She reported having more opportunities to practise English with foreigners than other students in her school because her parents managed a travel agency serving domestic and foreign tourists when she was in grade 5. She felt that despite this she did not make use of the advantages because her anxiety caused her to freeze.

For some students, their love for English grew when they received support from their parents to learn English outside the classroom. Their passion came from their admiration of other people or pride in themselves when they were complimented by others. S1 and S5 agreed that they were fortunate to have parents who sent them to extra English classes or to a language centre. S1 explained her story of when her strength in English was recognized and how she fell in love with the language.

I thought I was very weak at English. So during the summer vacation of grade 8, my parents hired a final-year EAL student, like me now, to tutor me. She encouraged me by saying, "When I was at your age, I was much weaker than you. But now I can become your teacher. If you try your best, I believe that you'll be successful." I made gradual improvement in English after being taught by her and perhaps that began to shape my love for English. One year later, I attended an English class at a foreign language centre where I was taught by a recently-graduated teacher who knew

everything and could express herself in English very fluently. I enjoyed learning with her and gradually saw my progress. Within two years I was able to finish my English certificate – level C. (S1, Interview 1)

Similar to S1's enjoyment, S5 told of how she enjoyed learning English in a self-organised group with the guidance of an enthusiastic newly-graduated teacher. S5 stated:

It was just a summer extra class at home but we were so excited that we were always very well-prepared before coming to this class. We used to look up the dictionary for new words and we competed with each other to see who knew the most. As a result, our English vocabulary was rich. (S5, Interview 1)

Her passion guided her to learn more English at a language centre when she was in grade 7. Her reported excitement was linked with how classmates saw her language performance. Recalling her early experience, she stated:

The language centre was very far from my place, a 20-minute-cycling distance. I biked there every Tuesday, Thursday and Saturday afternoons after class. The teacher taught us all the English skills and had many games for us. What inspired me more was when I opened my mouth to speak, the older students in the class uttered, "Very good! She speaks so beautifully." This made me feel more excited. I always looked forward to those days so that I could come to the class and never missed one. (S5, Interview 1)

For S1 and S5, their love for English drove them to become more interested and engaged in learning English, particularly in terms of mastering grammar points and sentence structures and enriching their vocabulary. However, speaking English appeared not to be prominent in their English learning experiences during their school life.

Unlike other students, S2 stated that she had a love for English in her early years which gave her a strong determination to learn and speak the language. Her first experience of English exposure was in Grade 3. She reported that she happened to learn about English through an English song she heard, which had an impact on her later language learning. She explained:

My uncle used to listen to the music by Westlife [an Irish boy band]. I didn't know any English then, but I sang along and my incorrect pronunciation of some words in the song *My love* has accompanied me until the present time. Though now I know how to pronounce those words correctly, I still uttered similar sounds but not those exact words. It is due to this imitation that my listening skill has improved. (S2, Interview 1)

Despite her eagerness, when she officially began learning English at school, she experienced uncertainty with the subject, as presented earlier in section 5.2.1.1. She perceived herself as one of the weakest English students in the class. Nonetheless, she reported that her love for English stimulated her to study harder after her first year of learning English at school. S2's success led her to be included in the group of gifted English students of her school. By the end of grade 7, she won the third prize in a provincial English examination, which further encouraged her to continue studying English. During the last two years at her junior secondary school, she was taught English among the members of the English gifted group, but "the teaching focus was still grammar and vocabulary" (S2, Interview 1). The milestone that she considered the most important for her was when she attended an English oratory contest at the end of grade 8. She proudly explained her achievement:

I was selected as the last of the ten winners in the oratory contest. Among the ten I was the only student who came from the outskirts of the city where English was very strange then. I was certainly not as good as my urban friends in terms of speaking. It was fortunate that I was taken as one of the ten key members of the English club and had many opportunities to speak to English speakers. I became an amateur tourist guide when I was in grade 9, and sometimes worked as an interpreter for volunteer doctors and the Red Cross organization that had established a relationship with my school. (S2, Interview 1)

According to S2, in spite of coming from the countryside where people have fewer opportunities to access favourable learning conditions and facilities, her success inspired her to study harder to find a place for herself. She specified:

We were just little girls then, so we were very envious. I was slightly discriminated against by my urban friends because of my village background. I had the feeling that I needed to prove that I would be able to speak English equally well as them in the long run. On the one hand, I felt inferior because I was not as good as others. On the other hand, my self – ego felt the need to prove that although I lived in a remote area, I could also speak English. The conflicts in my thinking pushed me forward, not preventing me. (S2, Interview 1)

Moreover, she reported attributing her achievements to her determination and boldness when she first exposed herself to English. S2 recalled her first experiences:

At first, I spoke [in English] alone at home. I had a desire to speak and practise English. I spoke anywhere and any time when I was cleaning the floor, washing the dishes, or in the bathroom. I spoke so loudly that my mother asked me to stop because she was afraid that our neighbours might think that I had mental problems. I didn't mind. I was very happy when I was able to open my mouth to speak English. I knew that I made mistakes, but I didn't care. I spoke out what I thought in my mind. What I did was connecting words together and producing the language to convey my message. I wasn't worried about grammatical mistakes, sentence structures or anything else. (S2, Interview 1)

In addition to her love for English and her determination to learn the language, S2 stated that she owed her success in speaking English to her carefree approach to making mistakes.

In summary, many of the students, despite reporting having a passion for English, tended to be greatly influenced by the traditional teaching method that did not give them an incentive for full engagement in the learning process during school. By contrast, a few students who were inspired by their parents, other important persons, and their self-perception attempted to learn the language to be successful. Accordingly, their emotions emerged and shifted together with others' compliments. The relationship between learning English at university and their

emotional experiences and learning progress will be presented in the following section.

5.2.2 Learning English at university

All the students made distinctions between learning English at school and at university. At school, they mainly learned English grammar and vocabulary, and developed their reading skills. At university, they were taught four English skills separately, and actively sought opportunities to speak and practice speaking English inside and outside the classroom. They felt that they did not learn much English at school. S1 stated, “I have really learned English for these three or four years now” (S1, Interview 1). Although three students had mentioned having opportunities to speak English during school, all of them still acknowledged that they started speaking English when they entered the university. As S2 remarked, “At university, I really learned speaking. I spoke a lot for the first two years and I used all chances to speak [English]” (S2, Interview 1).

5.2.2.1 Exposure to English inside the classroom

In the classroom contexts, the students reported constantly interacting with their teachers and peers in their process of learning English. Different emotions were generated by the way the teachers and friends treated them in particular situations. They were also associated with the students’ social and cultural backgrounds and their perceptions of themselves.

5.2.2.1.1 Emotional experiences in interaction with teachers

All of the students reported experiencing excitement, anxiety, and sometimes shame at their first stage of speaking and learning English at university. However, anxiety was the most prominent emotion the students discussed.

Talking about the first experience being taught by an English speaking teacher and speaking to her, S3 stated:

At university, I was taught by a foreigner [a volunteer English speaking teacher] and had opportunities to speak English. I felt very excited and interested in speaking at first. But later on, I felt anxious. (S3, Interview 1)

Like S3, S4 and also others who came from the countryside reported feeling “anxious” being taught by an English-speaking teacher.

That was the first time I studied with an English speaker. I had never seen a foreigner in the countryside before. I felt really anxious. I was afraid that she wouldn't understand me. We differed in the way of talking, and especially when she asked me questions, I even felt more anxious. (S4, Interview 1)

When talking to Vietnamese teachers, the students also experienced the same feeling of anxiety. This anxiety was described as being associated with transition from rural to urban areas, from high school to university, and different relationships between teachers and students.

S1 stated, “at university, when the teachers talked and asked me questions in English, I felt a bit scared and anxious” (S1, Interview 1). Similarly, S6 told of her anxiety in the first interview:

I felt very anxious for the first few days. I was scared of being looked at by my teachers. Also, I was afraid that they wouldn't understand what I said. I was so worried that I didn't say anything. I always hid myself whenever I saw them. (S6, Interview 1)

S5 attributed her anxiety to the distance between teachers and students. She explained:

At high school, an English teacher taught us for the whole year, so we had a great deal of time - from four to five periods per week - to work with the teacher. At university, we also meet with each teacher once a week, though for a shorter time - two periods. Moreover, a class is so crowded and the teachers have to teach so many classes that they can't remember who is who. Thus, there is hardly a closeness between teachers and students at university. At high school the teacher is very close to students, so we feel less anxious. (S5, Interview 2)

Most students tended to feel more stressed when speaking English to their teachers and answering their questions because they felt the teachers were always assessing them and easily recognized their mistakes. They said they had to think

of selecting appropriate vocabulary and structure to produce grammatically correct sentences when talking to their teachers. Furthermore, they wanted their teachers to see them in a positive light regarding their progress. “I’m more concerned about accuracy when talking to the teachers,” S5 said in our second interview. In the interactions with the teachers in the classroom, the way the teachers treated the students played a role in constructing their emotions. The teachers’ criticism or encouragement is apparently linked with the students’ negative and positive emotions. These emotions in turn affected the way the students perceived themselves in relation to the teachers and their peers.

The students reported that their teachers’ encouragement had a positive emotional impact which stimulated them to fully engage in speaking activities. S3, who perceived herself as always feeling less confident and uncomfortable speaking English in front of the class, reflected on her engagement in difficult English content thanks to her teacher’s encouragement.

Today my teacher was so happy and friendly. She encouraged us to learn with her sweet words and a lot of smiles. I felt eager to come up with some interesting ideas and felt at ease to contribute to the lesson several times. I liked the way the teacher gave compliments and her smiling. I had more courage and happiness to contribute in the class and I spoke quite loudly, clearly and exactly. (S3, Reflection 6)

Similarly, S5, in her fifth reflection, reported comfort associated with her “friendly” teacher. She wrote:

The teacher was very cheerful and flexible. She always encouraged us to raise our ideas without criticizing the mistakes. All ideas were welcomed. Her gentle smile always spread while she was listening to students’ answers. She also asked more questions in a gentle way to help us express all we thought about the problem. Her teaching style made me feel comfortable when studying as well as offering the ideas. Therefore, I felt free to speak and wanted to speak more in her class. (S5, Reflection 5)

In contrast to the positive impact of their teachers’ encouragement of the students’ speaking, the students stressed that their teachers’ criticism drove away their excitement to speak English. Although the students reported admiring their

teachers for their wide knowledge and commitment to their teaching profession, several students blamed them for being too demanding. These students agreed that whenever they made any mistakes, their teachers criticized them, which made them feel stressed, nervous, and disappointed. Moreover, they blamed themselves for not meeting their teachers' expectations and hence felt ashamed. As a result, these emotions hindered their eagerness to participate in the classroom speaking activities.

S1 showed a sense of resentment in her voice when she discussed her teacher's criticism during a presentation, even though it occurred one year earlier. After pronouncing the word *analysis* incorrectly, whenever she made the same mistake, the teacher shouted from the back of the class to correct her immediately, which S1 struggled to immediately correct. "This made me lose confidence and also lose face," she stated. S1 reported feeling so "disappointed and angry" that she could not speak as well as usual and omitted several parts from her script in order to finish her presentation as soon as possible. She emphasized that this experience exerted negative influences not only on her English speaking at that time but also on later events. S1 said that she tended to avoid speaking in other classes because she was afraid that other teachers might treat her in the same way.

S3 shared her bitterness at receiving criticism from her teacher when she incorrectly pronounced a word.

Unfortunately, my teacher asked some students a question but they couldn't answer it. She called me suddenly. I was always afraid of being suddenly called. I could answer this question but I made a mistake in pronouncing the word *pearl*. I knew this word but I by chance pronounced it in a wrong way. My teacher uttered, "I'm so shocked at your pronunciation. I can never imagine a fourth year student doesn't know this word". She spoke in a negative way that made me feel discouraged. I was so sad that I couldn't think of any other ideas for the next questions. I was obsessed by that mistake and my teacher's words. I felt at a loss speaking English then. (S3, Interview 2)

In S10's case, the teacher's criticism upset her so much that she lost her courage to volunteer her ideas even though the answers were already given in the textbook (S10, Reflection 1).

5.2.2.1.2 Emotional experiences in interaction with highly proficient students

Most students reported feeling anxious when speaking to more fluent students though half of them experienced mixed feelings of anxiety and enjoyment when learning from them. S3 stated:

I'm afraid that my English is weak and my teachers and friends cannot understand what I say. I prefer to speak to "normal students" [average] so that I'll have a chance to speak. I feel stressed when speaking in front of highly proficient students. (S3, Interview 1 & 2)

S4 added:

I felt anxious when working in a discussion group with good students. I tended to agree with all of their opinions. Although I had had my opinions, I was afraid that I didn't speak English correctly, so I didn't dare to say them out. We took their opinions as the whole group's. We'd rather not argue against them." (S4, Interview 1).

In our second interview, S4 elaborated on how anxious she felt when speaking to highly proficient students.

I think teachers may tolerate the mistakes we make, but not our friends. They are so good and still young. They are not like our teachers who have the obligation to listen to us and correct our mistakes. They [students] mainly evaluate our way of speaking when we communicate with them. Therefore, if we don't speak well, they'll have a different view on us. (S4, Interview 2)

S5 had the same view as S4. She stated that she had the feeling of being inferior and under pressure that prevented her from speaking when talking to more fluent friends. Together with the sense of inferiority and pressure to perform, S5 felt stress and anxiety. She was afraid that her mistakes would easily be discovered by her peers. However, she revealed that her anxiety was later replaced by her enjoyment. She reasoned that she could learn a great deal from more proficient

friends. Moreover, talking to them urged her to think of “good ideas” to match theirs so that the conversations went smoothly. Consequently, her confidence in speaking increased. She told of the advantages she could take from talking to highly proficient students.

They used up the discussion time in the group very effectively. Sometimes they encouraged me and created favourable conditions for me to speak. I could think of many ideas to answer their questions and speak better. I tried my best to understand them and make them understand me. One day, we had a speaking period with the topic ‘family’. The teacher asked us to go around the classroom to interview our classmates. After collecting the information I only remembered or was impressed by the conversations with the highly proficient students because I thought carefully and tried to understand them and talk to them in such a way that they could understand me. I was interested in talking to them so I could remember. (S5, Interview 2)

S5’s reported enjoyment was also shared by S6, S8, S9 and S10.

5.2.2.2 Exposure to English outside the classroom

The interview and reflective data showed that the students’ dominant emotion of anxiety in the classroom was gradually replaced by excitement and an awareness of the significance of being able to speak another language. This inspired them to seek more opportunities to speak to English speakers outside the classroom. They reported taking the initiative to enhance their English by meeting foreigners at tourist spots (section 5.2.2.2.1), joining English speaking clubs and chat rooms (section 5.2.2.2.2), and becoming volunteer tourist guides (section 5.2.2.2.3).

5.2.2.2.1 Meeting foreigners at tourist spots

All the students reported seeking more opportunities to practise English with foreigners outside the classroom and experienced a range of emotions. S4 talked about her change of emotions from anxiety to excitement but could not explain the reason for that change. S4 stated:

At first, I felt scared when seeing English speakers. After the first semester of the first year, whenever I saw them I always rushed forward to talk to

them. I didn't know why I suddenly felt excited and interested in talking to them. (S4, Interview 2)

In contrast to S4, S3 told of her disappointment when she encountered the reluctance of some English speakers. S3 stated:

My friends and I sometimes went to Trang Tien Bridge [where tourists often walk] or the park to meet and talk to English speaking tourists. Unfortunately, some of them were not very friendly. We could exchange some simple information about our names and nationality, and then said goodbye. (S3, Interview 1)

However, like T1 (section 4.2.2.2), S3 insisted that she did not give up. She looked for other opportunities and her confidence increased together with her effort. S3 described her later experiences:

Later, when I saw English speakers in the park or in the street, I came up and said hello to them. We talked to each other for a while and could understand each other quite well. It was the exposure to the English speakers that made me more confident, which enabled me to think of ideas and vocabulary to express myself. (S3, Interview 2)

5.2.2.2.2 Joining English speaking clubs and chat rooms

The most common ways of coming into contact with English speakers the students reported was joining English clubs and online chat rooms. They acknowledged gaining confidence and experiencing enjoyment and comfort participating in these speaking activities. S4, for instance, told of the change of her emotions from anxiety to enjoyment and confidence gained which facilitated her speaking.

My classmates and I joined an English club organized by the manager of a hotel who desired to create favorable conditions for the students in the area to have a chance to communicate with native English speakers who stayed in his hotel. For the first time, I felt very anxious speaking English there though around me were non-English major students coming from other universities. I was under pressure perhaps because I wanted to show that I was an EAL student and also because I didn't know about the English level

the people I was talking to. I was wondering if they could understand me or not. In fact, the people there were very friendly and showed their interest in my self-introduction, which made me feel confident and speak better in the following session. I felt more interested in participating in this club and no longer felt anxious. (S4, Interview 1)

S7 expressed his enjoyment and comfort speaking English in an English club he created with his friends as follows:

Today I had a talk with my friends in our English club. We intended to meet to discuss our presentation for tomorrow only. But after our discussion, we all felt excited at speaking English. So we started talking. Each of us presented the topic of our interest. Everyone spoke at ease. Perhaps like my friends, I didn't have any pressure, so I could speak very fluently and comfortably. (S7, Reflection 6)

S2, who had many opportunities to use English after she won a prize in an oratory contest (section 5.2.1.3), also acknowledged her feelings of enjoyment in joining an English class. S2 said:

I started joining an English club established by people who needed to practise English for IELTS exams. We met with each other once a week to talk [speak English] over a cup of coffee. We all actively took part in the discussions. They were so interesting that I hardly missed any. Since then, I gradually participated in more social activities and practised speaking English more. (S2, interview 1)

As an alternative means of seeking English speakers, S6 and several other students attended chat rooms to build up confidence. S6 stated:

I joined an online Skype programme organized by some overseas Vietnamese which aimed at teaching English for Vietnamese people. I visited this program almost every day. When I went back home from school, I opened it and listened to them speaking even when I was having lunch or dinner. They helped us practise conversational, presentation, and even reading skills. After joining it for one year, I felt much more confident. My pronunciation and speaking skills have improved a great deal. I found it interesting and very useful. (S6, Interview 1)

5.2.2.2.3 *Becoming volunteer tourist guides*

All the students stated that they volunteered to work as tourist guides for foreigners who came to Vietnam as visitors or official guests. As in other settings, these tour guides also reported experiencing a range of emotions with the visitors. S7 told of his feelings of discomfort and diffidence associated with lack of knowledge that hindered his speaking:

Once we met two foreigners and they asked us to be their tour guides to the Citadel [where the royal family lived]. Because we didn't have much knowledge of that place, we spoke haltingly. I didn't know why I couldn't say fluently even some simple sentences such as when it was built. I spoke English badly then, used a lot of body language or wrote down some words for them to understand. I felt ashamed [it occurred six months before data collection]. (S7, Interview 2)

Similarly, S4 reported experiencing a lack of confidence when speaking to an English-speaking visitor who came to a conference at her university where S4 worked as a host assistant. She was uncertain if she understood the visitor properly. She described her tension and embarrassment when she talked to the visitor.

She said she'd like to see a [inaudible sound], but I couldn't catch what she said. So I felt very nervous while she was very excited. She said she had seen it in Japan but hadn't in Vietnam. I asked her what she was talking about. She said 'puppet show'. I was wondering what it meant, so I couldn't catch what she said after that. I was so scared then. I didn't know how I should answer her. I then thought I should focus on 'this puppet show'. So I asked her if she liked to see a puppet show in Hue. She said I was talking about it and asked where she could see it. I think when we are so nervous or scared we should focus only on the key words or the main ideas of the sentence. (S4, Interview 1)

In our second interview, S4 elaborated on her reaction and reflection in the embarrassing situation, stating:

My mind became empty. I felt scared but I still tried my best. I looked at her with begging eyes, "Please repeat, I couldn't understand." I felt scared

because sometimes I might misunderstand what she said and reply inappropriately. This might make her think that I didn't respect her. I would appear to be ridiculous. I think I'd rather say nothing. I would feel ashamed if I answered wrongly and led the conversation to nowhere. (S4, Interview 2)

S5 reflected on her mixed feeling of embarrassment, happiness and pride when being able to speak English to help two foreigners when she worked as a volunteer at an international festival in her area. She wrote in her reflection:

On the first day of the festival, my group and I were assigned to be on duty at Hue citadel. While on watch with other friends, I heard someone call my name. I turned back and saw some of my group members talking with two foreigners. It seemed that they needed some help, so I approached to help them. A young western man holding a map asked me the way to the stage where the opening ceremony was held. At first, I felt quite embarrassed because a lot of volunteers and policemen were standing around us. I quickly calmed myself and pointed at the map to show them the direction. The short conversation ended with the grateful thanks from those foreigners. Actually, I was very happy at that moment because I had just done a useful thing by using my English. Besides, other volunteers and people there looked at me with respect, which made me feel proud of myself a lot. (S5, Reflection 1)

There were different attitudes about her English performance depending on the role played by others in the immediate context. Although she admitted that she was not very concerned about accuracy when speaking to native English speakers, she still considered speaking English accurately in the presence of non-English major Vietnamese students to confirm her positive EAL learner and speaker self-concept.

5.3 Summary

The findings from the quantitative and qualitative data show that, similar to the teachers, the students also reported experiencing a wide range of emotions throughout their journey of English learning and use. However, they showed a picture of change distinct from the teachers. The students' stories suggest that

they did not really feel emotionally engaged in English speaking. Their emotional disengagement was due to the negativity and uncertainty associated with traditional pedagogical practice. It may also be related to the relative disadvantages in their social background and a possible absence of parental promotion of learning English in their early years. Anxiety was the dominant emotion the students reported experiencing across contexts in social interactions with their teacher, peers, and native English speakers.

Some evidence in the data also highlighted a change of emotions in relation to the feeling of being valued, a sense of recognition and admiration, a passion for English, strong determination and personal effort. These emotions were described to play an essential role in determining the success in some students' English learning and speaking.

The presentation of information about the students' exposure to English outside the classroom indicates that the students have actively sought opportunities to learn and practise English. The exposure has moved them forward from being English learners to being English speakers. This process has shown shifting emotions from predominant anxiety to a wide range of emotions associated with informal settings, imagined interlocutors' attitudes and students' English learner and speaker self-concept. These key findings together with the teachers' will be further discussed in the following chapter.

Chapter Six: Discussion

My research began with a problem stemming from my personal and professional experiences; that was why Vietnamese language learners were unable to communicate orally in English effectively despite studying English for many years. I wished to understand how Vietnamese EAL teachers and students perceived the role of emotions in their English oral communication. I initially posed the research questions from a paradigm of oral communication in relation to anxiety (Elaine K. Horwitz et al., 1986; Subaşı, 2010; Woodrow, 2006). The main research question of the study was: *How do Vietnamese EAL teachers and students (prospective EAL teachers) perceive the role of emotion in their oral communication in English?*

As the literature suggests, research has begun to look at other emotions than anxiety. In the previous chapters, the quantitative data confirmed the importance of a wide range of emotions in the participants' early and current experiences of speaking English. However, it did not show much about where the emotions came from. Moreover, the quantitative findings reflected the traditional cause and effect relationship between emotion and the participants' English speaking. The qualitative findings, however, add considerable depth and complexity to understanding emotion in language learning across changing contexts. For that reason, this chapter will discuss the qualitative findings in light of relevant theory and literature. The qualitative findings build on the recent emotion theorising of applied linguists like Bown and White (2010), Swain (2013) and Ushioda (2009), for example. Bown and White (2010) call for theories that see "emotions as integral to the interpersonal processes that create the learning context moment by moment" (p. 441).

As noted in Chapter 2, in a discussion of motivation and emotion, Ushioda (2009) calls for a person-in-context relational view. Similarly, Swain (2013) argues "that emotions are interpersonal, not private (intrapsychic) events. Emotions are socially and culturally derived and, along with cognition, they mediate learning" (p. 196). Imai (2010) and Miyahara (2015) also argue that emotion plays a mediating role in language learning as opposed to a direct cause-effect role.

The qualitative data of this study show how emotion plays out in relational contexts, shedding light on the kinds of relational factors involved in language learning and use. The findings suggest a number of major interconnected themes related to participants' shifting emotions about English language and learning. They are issues of belonging, acceptance, recognition and respect, agency, positioning, cultural traditions and values.

These themes appear repeatedly across the different contexts of language learning identified previously, namely, family, school, out-of-school, tertiary and professional contexts. Importantly, these various environments were more than just settings for the language learners in each case. They constituted active formative forces in the emotional lives and responses of the learners, helping construct self-concept, language learning success, perceived standing in different communities, and relations with others.

One dominant feature that stands out in the English language learning lives of the participants seems to be a tension between acceptance and rejection or exclusion from significant parties around them, depending on the particular context. This tension becomes apparent in the participants' reported interactions with fellow students and teachers and native or fluent speakers of English.

Experience of acceptance and exclusion are subject to issues of a sense of belonging to a particular community, perceived recognition and respect from others, gaining a sense of agency in language learning, positioning by the participants or being positioned by others, social interaction, self-concept, face and cultural values.

These issues were interwoven with emotion in each context. They were not all apparent in every context but were altogether important factors for emotion and language. The interweaving of emotions and these factors through the participants' experiences, interactions, and relationships with others in each context will be discussed in the following sections.

It should be noted that many of the discussion points do not apply to all participants but are salient and theoretically interesting. They deserve attention and analysis which applied linguists can then draw on to look for relevance in

their own work. These points are tentative but I see them as distinctive enough to merit further investigation.

It is unfortunate that there was not much evidence from the data on how the participants coped when emotions affected their oral communication. Therefore, the second research question regarding emotional self-regulation was not dealt with in this study.

6.1 Family contexts, belonging, and Vietnamese family values

For a number of teacher participants, early childhood marked their first exposure to the world of English; that is, a world which includes a wide range of contexts, both local and global, where English is used for various communicative purposes. Through pleasurable activities with their parents, these teacher participants became exposed to an English speaking world where they interacted with their parents to learn and communicate in English prior to school. There was a strong association between these participants' sense of belonging in the family and positive emotion about the English language. They also saw English users as part of a pleasurable social world. This association provided an emotional momentum for learning English.

T10's English experience of reading and singing with her parents and siblings when she was very young was an illustration of a sense of being valued and belonging. Her memory of her parents' support, though decades ago, showed that she felt cared for, valued, and worthy, all of which were reflective of the "essence of sense of belonging" (Strayhorn, 2012, p. 56). T4's story was another illustration. She spoke of treasuring her father's care and support, taking her on his bicycle to a language centre despite severe weather and taking the time to practise English with her. This suggests that she felt worthy of love and care conveyed by her father. T8 in the current study also talked about the enjoyment and happiness about learning English when her parents sent her to an English centre in grade four. It was not just being with them, but something special they did for her by sending her to a language learning centre to be taught by two experienced language teachers. Though the positive feelings T8 reported were experienced in the language classroom, it is necessary to acknowledge that they were closely associated with her parents' care for her and her language learning.

These participants' experiences are reflected in Baumeister and Leary's (1995) hypothesis of belonging. These theorists maintain that a sense of belonging is dependent on both long-term stable social bonds and frequent positive interaction with others. Further, as Baumeister and Leary (1995) state, people have a need to belong; changes in their sense of belonging may shape their emotion. Baumeister and Leary (1995) have pointed out that satisfaction of people's universal need to belong leads to a wide range of positive emotions including "happiness, elation, contentment, and calm" (p. 508). Their view appears as well in more recent research, where a sense of belonging is seen to "yield an affective response" (Tovar & Simon, 2010, p. 200). Such features of belonging are evident in the above teachers' reports of close, regular familial contact, which was consistently positive, and associated with the English language.

In writing about adolescents at school, Goodenow (1993) refers to the sense of belonging as "students' sense of being accepted, valued, included, and encouraged by others (teachers and peers) ... and of feeling oneself to be an important part of the life and activity" (p. 25). While Goodenow was referring to the school context, the same sense of being valued and encouraged can be applied to the family context for the participants in this study.

In Vietnam, parental care and support has been considered a cultural value linked with people's emotional life. The family is often mentioned in Vietnamese literature as the first school where children learn the first lessons and parents are those who "grow the seed of love among their children", an image that is culturally important. Parents' care and support in Vietnam have been compared to the image of storks that work very hard day and night to find food to support their children (V. S. Le, 1993). The teacher participants spoke very appreciatively of parental care and support. For example, T4's father provided time, money, and energy to support T4's English learning. As such, he cared for his daughter, valued education, and particularly, language learning. His support was remembered with her sense of gratitude, which may have contributed to her strong emotion about her parents' love and hence linked to her emotion regarding English and language learning. The teachers acknowledged that it was these emotions that, in their words, "developed" and "nourished" their "passion" for English, and "established a firm foundation" for them to become EAL teachers.

6.2 English as a school subject, classroom interaction, anxiety and self-concept

In the English language classroom, the student and teacher participants' emotions reflected their perceptions and experiences of formal English language learning. Experiences of English as a traditional school subject, as an inclusive classroom community, and / or as a site of challenges to self-concept evoked diverse emotional responses.

6.2.1 English as a school subject

Both the teacher and student participants' reported negative emotions towards traditional English study at secondary school, which may be linked to their perceptions of English as a school subject rather than a world of social engagement. For most of the participants, English was perceived as a subject to learn that involved memorisation of grammar rules, preparation for examinations and being tested, which was not different from learning other subjects. There was minimal interaction or communication between teachers and students despite the national directive to use communicative language teaching techniques in Vietnamese schools. The way English has been traditionally taught, involving learning skills, grammar points, and a system of rules, has been widely criticized in favour of communicative language learning approaches (V. C. Le, 2011; V. C. Le & Barnard, 2009; Tomlinson & Dat, 2004). In second language teaching circles, learning an additional language should be different from learning other subjects because of its social nature and cultural factors in relation to learners' self-image, identity, and attitudes toward the language (Dörnyei, 2005; M. Williams, 1994; Yoon, 2008). The social nature of the study participants not only as language learners but also as real persons in the classroom contexts (Ushioda, 2009) was not taken into consideration in these traditional classrooms, which may have negatively affected their language learning and generated negative emotions.

Despite the students' emotional disengagement in language learning associated with their perception of English as a school subject, their goals to pass examinations motivated them to learn English. As stated by several language educators, the requirement of English as a compulsory subject was the main motivation for learners to learn English (V. C. Le & Barnard, 2009; Warden &

Lin, 2000). In effect, the student participants had no other choice. That they had to pass English examinations motivated them. In particular, they needed to pass the university entrance examinations with a great deal of grammar, vocabulary and reading comprehension to become EAL students. One student reported that “We only learned grammar then. Every student wanted to learn as much grammar, structures, and vocabulary as possible in order to do tests well and pass the exams” (S2, Interview 2). Thus, the motivation for them was more inclined to passing the exams than learning English.

In earlier theories of motivation, their goals would be seen as extrinsic: “performing a behaviour as a means to an end, that is, to receive some extrinsic reward (e.g. good grades) or to avoid punishment” (Dörnyei, 1998, p. 121). Yet, Dörnyei’s (2009) motivational self system may offer a fuller explanation that could be related to emotion. Passing examinations may have ultimately related to ought-to self of learning English and being successful. This is closely linked to the students’ face and also their family’s expectations and obligations, which is particularly salient in some Asian contexts (Dörnyei, 2014). Magid’s (2009) study of middle school and university students from mainland China shows that family, face, responsibility and pressure are the major issues to account for the motivational role of the Chinese family. Chinese students have to study well because of their family’s name and value.

The discussion on Chinese family’s expectations resonates well in the Vietnamese culture. In this particular situation, the participants were motivated to perform well to pass examinations not only because of themselves but also because of their family. They and their family would lose face if they failed. Thus, it was their face, which implies ought-to self, and their family obligations that motivated them. This placed a large amount of emotional pressure on them.

6.2.2 Shifting emotions and classroom interaction

Teaching reforms that aimed to promote classroom interaction generated anxiety associated with a sense of losing face among students. The change in the Vietnamese pedagogical practices in which English teachers introduced speaking components to language classrooms moved them closer to a social English classroom context. It was a classroom-based English context that included

interaction between teachers and students along with evaluation. Different from the traditional grammar-based teaching method, these teaching reforms could have been expected to bring about excitement and enjoyment and to move the students toward an interactive classroom English world. In effect, three student participants who talked about their teachers' attention to speaking reported that they did not become more engaged, but anxious about the English language. Contrary to an expectation that the students should be more engaged and happier in the class, this engagement was also subject to anxiety because of their teachers' evaluation. Previous research (e.g., Gregersen & Horwitz, 2002; Subaşı, 2010; K. E. Williams & Andrade, 2008) also identified the causal relationship between fear of evaluation and anxiety. However, these researchers did not analyse the relationship in much depth or place it in a specific relational context to see how emotions shifted in the same kind of context. The study participants' anxiety could be interpreted as being linked to their face, in the sense of losing face when they exposed themselves and were evaluated in front of their peers.

The preservation of face (see section 1.2.5), and its loss with the aims of communicative language teaching approaches, has contributed to this emotional response experienced by the student participants. Preserving face is an important characteristic in Asian cultures in general and in Vietnamese culture in particular. People try to avoid the loss of face at all costs (Ferraro, 1994) because as Borton (2000) has pointed out, losing face is "unbearable" in Vietnam (p. 24). These student participants seemed to be concerned mostly with their social face and hence relational self. When they spoke in front of their teachers and peers, they may also have felt embarrassed and vulnerable for fear of negative evaluation. Their concern about face guided their thinking and behaviour in their classroom. Therefore, although they criticized the traditional language teaching method for not offering them opportunities to speak, they were hesitant to participate when their teachers gave them a chance to speak. It impacted negatively on their future perceptions about learning English when they were exposed to methods more conducive to learning English as social communication.

The students' sense of self could be threatened depending on how well they could perform. The findings in section 5.2.1.2 indicated that the student participants' sense of self was threatened by their limited speaking ability on display to their

teachers and friends in the classroom. The teacher's critical comments contributed to their threatened sense of self, which in turn negatively affected their engagement in language learning. The students continued to view English as a school subject and simply completed the speaking tasks to fulfil the duty of a learner, but without genuine engagement. This was illustrated in the way S10 and other students treated speaking by "writing down our ideas and looking at the notes to read". Their performance could be understood as a coping strategy to save their face in such a way that reading from the notes would have sounded fluent and helped them avoid pronunciation mistakes in impromptu speaking. It is likely that their concern for loss of face may have made them feel more anxious. This finding is an advance on previous research that conformed to a traditional cause and effect paradigm in terms of fear of judgement and anxiety mentioned earlier in this section. It adds to this causal relationship an explanation for the shift of the participants' anxiety to a higher level of anxiety when they linked emotion with their face in interactions with their teachers and friends in specific classroom contexts.

For several student participants, a change in learning contexts led to shifting emotions regarding learning English associated with their self-concept in relation to others. A language learning centre where learners could improve their communicative skills as described by S5 in section 5.2.1.3, offered the learners more opportunities to interact with teachers and peers. These learning settings moved the learners away from English as a school subject and closer to an interactive English speaking world. It was a more positive world that associated English with social communication with teachers and peers in a less formal classroom context.

6.2.3 Emotion, changing sense of belonging and self-concept

A change in the student participants' sense of belonging shifted their emotions and self-concept. The change occurred in the interactive classroom settings at a language centre where the students felt the sense of belonging associated with their teachers' and peers' recognition. This change was particularly noticeable in S5's case, who first felt she did not belong to the language classroom community at the language centre. For her the centre was associated with the feeling of

inferiority and anxiety since she was from the countryside. However, her feeling changed when complimented by her teacher and classmates for her English performance. She felt accepted by the class. It was the compliments rather than English that made her feel comfortable and gave her a sense of belonging. Her strong sense of belonging resulting from this recognition shifted her emotions from anxiety to “pride and excitement”. The shift also affected her language learner self-concept. Her self-concept moved from that of an inferior language learner from the countryside to a successful language learner who could participate in the language activities as well as other more proficient and “town” students, in her view.

This finding aligns with Garrett and Young’s (2009) study of the first author’s affective responses to classroom foreign language learning. Garrett reported feeling uncomfortable speaking the language in front of her peers. However, when she contributed in a collaborative speaking activity in class, her emotion shifted from anxiety to comfort and pride. Garrett’s emotion shift was seen to be associated with a change in her sense of belonging as part of a group in the language classroom. Like Imai (2010), Garrett and Young have moved away from the traditional paradigm and explored emotion in relational learning settings. They align with mine. The interpretations of Garrett’s and S5’s experiences indicate that the sense of belonging appeared to have an important influence on the learners’ emotion and self-concept, and consequently kept them engaged in language learning and language use.

Although this finding emerged for only one participant of the study, it highlights the role of the sense of belonging in people’s changing emotion and engagement in language use. It is worthy of exploring in further research.

Emotion about the English language in the relational contexts of classroom life can also be interpreted in relation to positioning theory. Although positioning theory is not a major part of the applied linguistics literature on emotion, it is relevant here because it helps to explain two participants’ shifting emotions associated with their sense of belonging and where they stand in relation to others. According to positioning theory, people position themselves in relational contexts by undertaking actions towards others to cope with the circumstances they find

themselves in (Harré, Moghaddam, Cairnie, Rothbart, & Sabat, 2009; Langenhove & Harré, 1999). Positioning in this sense can be positioning oneself or positioning by others. An important element of positioning theory is that it occurs discursively, as meaning negotiated through interaction. Pavlenko and Blackledge (2004) have extended positioning beyond the original focus on conversation to “all discursive practices which may position individuals in particular ways or allow individuals to position themselves” (p. 20). The concept of positioning enabled me to make sense of the participants’ changing positions in social interactions.

Two student participants provided examples of people who positioned themselves in new educational contexts since they were from the village, as presented in section 3.6.2.2. S2 began attending an English speaking club located at a children’s centre in an urban area. S2 and S5 (discussed above) reported anxiety and feelings of inferiority in the new language learning contexts. They believed they were positioned socially more as village girls and initially accepted that positioning. However, when they performed well and were recognised by the teacher and classmates, they gained a sense of belonging and recognition. They attained a new sense of themselves, an improved language learner self-concept. In performing well, they were positioned by others more favourably. They were then able to reposition themselves as successful language learners. This is clearly illustrated in S2’s story that her need to prove she could “speak English equally well as others” stimulated her to practise English at all times. The act of repositioning themselves distinguished them from disaffected students who were not interested in English as a school subject. Simultaneously, it shifted their emotions from negative to positive “pride and happiness”. These emotions, together with a heightened language learner self-concept stimulated the students to participate in the English speaking world. As Kayi-Aydar (2014) states, positioning itself can lead to more and better language acquisition and participation experiences.

Favourable positioning by others did not necessarily generate positive emotions. Instead, it often shifted emotions from positive to negative, associated with Dörnyei’s (2009) ought-to self. In the school context, positive positioning of students was displayed through teachers’ positive evaluation. For one participant,

T6, when she looked back at her learning experience as a secondary school student, she felt both positioned favourably and also constrained. In grade 8, her teacher's compliments about her good English at first made her proud. But later, they evoked tension despite the praise. She continued to feel that she ought to be and remain "perfect". Being positioned positively by others drove T6 to perform really well in the classroom to fit with the ought-to self she needed to achieve. T6 perceived herself as being valued, and she wished to achieve the self that she believed she ought to be. The awareness of achieving her ought-to self made her feel constrained. Pride arising from the teacher's compliments was replaced by tension. This participant's tension seemed to be generated from her perception of the responsibility she needed to take for her teachers' compliments. This made her feel the need to be more careful and accurate while speaking to prove that she deserved their compliments. Moreover, face also played a role here. The awareness of preserving the face of a good language learner in front of her classmates contributed to her tension.

Looking at T6's experience from this perspective offers a fuller explanation of the outcomes, both expected and unexpected, in the straightforward cause-effect paradigms of emotion research. It suggests a complex picture involving dynamic relationships within a setting, shifting sense of self at the fore, and shifting emotion and attitude about the language learning experience.

6.3 Out-of-school contexts, agency, excitement and anxiety

Stepping out of school contexts, the participants found themselves in an English speaking world where they could engage with native and non-native English speakers. Access was contingent on their own agency, and in some encounters they met with rejection. In other settings, however, acceptance and opportunity were less risky. In this world, there appeared to be a mixed emotions of anxiety and excitement arising through the participants' agency and consequent sense of acceptance and belonging .

In discussion of this phenomenon, I draw largely on Duff (2012), who defines agency as "people's ability to make choices, take control, self-regulate, and thereby pursue their goals as individuals leading, potentially, to personal or social transformation" (p. 417). In this sense, learners have the power to take action in

their learning contexts in pursuit of their goals, which enables them to position themselves. van Lier (2008) emphasizes agency as action, that is, something that students *do*, rather than *possess* (p. 171). This sense of agency helped to account for the study participants' initiatives to approach people whom they had not known before. They left the classroom to look for English speaking tourists in the street or at tourist sites to ask to practise English with them. T1, for example, exercised agency to approach tourists in her city, opening her conversations with a carefully prepared memorized text that preserved her negative face. T1's agentive action, use of English, and her successful interaction with tourists helped confirm a positive language learner self-concept.

For teachers who reported receiving support from the tourists, agency was associated with both anxiety and excitement at the prospect of possible rejection and of new accomplishments and social contact in an English social world. Successful interactions with tourists further helped to drive their agency. At the same time, the feeling of being able to use the language with native speakers and the need to establish a relationship with others in the English speaking world beyond the classroom also led to their excitement and moved them ahead. Their decisive action and the recognition from English speakers contributed to reinforcing the participants' sense of acceptance and hence their positive emotion toward the language.

There may have been a risk about acceptance in this out-of-school context as well. Some of the participants reported being rejected with abrupt unfriendly "no" from a number of tourists. This may be because it was not entirely socially acceptable to access strangers in the street. This local practice in the Vietnamese context, where tourists were stopped while travelling, must have seemed strange to English speakers and might have been perceived as dangerous by the tourists. Thus, it was not welcomed by all. However, these participants persisted, and their agency was bolstered by each successful encounter.

English clubs and work as tour guides were other contexts with purposeful communicative events in which the teacher and student participants interacted with both English speakers and peers. These settings led to a range of emotions associated with their sense of acceptance, and belonging in interaction with

others. To a large extent, emotion in these contexts confirms the findings of the theorists initially cited in this chapter. That is, emotion, for many language learners, is not internally fixed, but is closely tied to shifting relational contexts over time.

Many of the students' experiences showed that the presence of peers in their communicative events partly challenged and partly promoted their English speaking, which affected the complexity of their emotion. The emotional shifts were particularly salient in S4's story about her presentation in an English club (section 5.2.2.2.2) and S5's reflection on her experience in supporting English speaking tourists as a volunteer tour guide (section 5.2.2.2.3). Initially, they experienced anticipation anxiety in relation to peers and peers' expectations regarding their high proficiency as EAL students. This expectation may have caused tension among the participants when their speaking ability was to be displayed in front of their peers. At the same time, they also experienced anxiety associated with the need to be accepted as a member of the English speaking group they joined. However, once they were accepted, their anticipation fell away. The data shows that when they spoke English and received friendly peer support, the participants' emotion changed positively.

The current study saw a shift in the participants' emotion from anxiety and tension to enjoyment and confidence aligning with a shift in their sense of belonging and acceptance by others. Thus, attending English clubs regularly and becoming members of tour guide groups led to positive attitudes and motivation toward language engagement.

6.4 Tertiary contexts: classroom interaction and the sense of value

In the tertiary classroom settings, a wide range of emotions were associated with the language teaching methods, classroom interaction, and the sense of value as well. During the data collection, the teachers spoke of their past experience of language learning during university years. However, the experience of tertiary language learning was current for the students.

6.4.1 The teacher participants

Two groups of teachers, younger and older experienced teachers, briefly talked about their English learning experience in tertiary classroom contexts. Their various emotions were linked with the change in teaching methods from the teacher participants' own teachers, their sense of value and their face in classroom interactions.

For the older experienced teachers, disappointment arose from the challenging tertiary contexts. They reported that their teachers used traditional language teaching methods and that they had limited learning resources (see section 4.2.3.1). Despite the difficulties they encountered, these experienced teachers did not reflect on their past learning experience with traditional language teaching as negatively as the students (section 6.2).

The difference between the teachers' and students' emotional responses can be explained partly by the teachers' favourable disposition to English prior to or during their school years. This can be interpreted by Dörnyei's (2009) motivational self system, which identifies the role of past experience in motivation. As well, Ushioda (2014) argues for the cumulative motivational effect of language learning experiences that are likely a mixture of positive and negative. Findings from the current study attest to several of these teacher participants' early family and school support for English as providing a positive emotional foundation that motivated their "love" for English. Early recognition and respect from classmates and teachers for one teacher participant also provided an emotional impetus for future English language learning. Both of these examples, discussed earlier, illustrate emotion related to Goodenow's (1993) definition of belonging as a "sense of being accepted, valued, included, and encouraged by others" (p. 25)

The younger teachers reported being fortunate to benefit from communicative language teaching, which led to more opportunities to speak English in the classroom. In this more interactive context, the interactions between students and teachers and peers generated shifting emotions associated with their sense of value and face.

This context may have been at times fraught with having to display a knowledge of English and led to negative emotion. A typical example was T5's incidents in classes where she had to speak English. Unlike the other teacher participants who had a firm foundation of English from their childhood, T5 resumed learning English to become an EAL teacher after discontinuing another academic study direction. She reported feeling under pressure and tension when asked to speak English in class. Her negative emotion was closely linked with her face, especially when she perceived her English proficiency low and herself older than her classmates. Vietnamese cultural values may have played a role in her anxiety. It is generally expected in Vietnam that older people should be more knowledgeable than younger ones. Therefore, to be respected by her younger classmates, T5 felt the need to perform well. Her consciousness of needing to do well in front of her younger classmates was likely to increase her tension which caused her performance to deteriorate. However, it was also from the classroom that she received encouragement and understanding from her teachers, which brought about a sense of value and acceptance and the drive for her to study well to become an English teacher at a university.

Different from the experienced teachers discussed above, the younger teachers made use of their own teachers' application of the new teaching methods, communicative language teaching, and more available learning resources. Some reported their positive feelings when interacting with teachers and friends, and being recognised and praised by their teachers.

6.4.2 The student participants

For the student participants, the relational context with teachers and peers led to a fluctuation of emotions as it did for the teacher participants – a tension between exclusion and inclusion. The feeling of anxiety, for example, was closely linked with the students' threatened sense of belonging. Originating from the countryside with a relative lack of resources and relatively lower standards of living than urban areas, they at first did not feel they belonged to the university community. In those rural areas, they had little exposure to English outside of school. Anxiety was reported along with their transition to a new environment with new and strange teachers and friends whom they considered completely different from

their teachers and friends at school. Some reported feeling “scared” when asked questions and looked at by their university teachers. S3, S4 and S6 shared their apprehension at not being understood or accepted as a legitimate member of the class because of their limited knowledge and incorrect pronunciation.

Throughout the university years, the students’ emotions regarding English altered along with a change in their sense of value in the classroom context along with their teachers’ criticism and encouragement. Half of the students reported stress, frustration and resentment arising from feeling inadequate and unworthy in the group they belonged to, particularly one teacher’s criticism in front of the class, which threatened S3’s sense of value and consequently paralysed her speaking ability at the time. By contrast, teachers’ recognition and encouragement changed the students’ emotion to a positive one. S3’s emotions, for example, changed from anxiety to happiness, excitement and comfort associated with the teacher’s compliments and acceptance. Overall, teachers’ smiles, encouragement, tolerance of students’ mistakes and welcoming their ideas brought about a sense of value and belonging, which caused them to become more engaged in the university-based English world.

To this point, the interpretation of the relationship of the participants’ emotion and language learning apparently aligns with the earlier research in looking at the positive and negative effect of emotion on language learning and use. Moreover, the current study is also supported by previous researchers (Price, 1991; T. T. T. Tran et al., 2013; K. E. Williams & Andrade, 2008; Yan & Horwitz, 2008; Young, 1991) who highlight the teachers’ attitude towards the learners’ pronunciation and performance, characteristics, and manner of error correction as contributing to their stress. However, this study provides a deeper understanding of the dynamic relationship between the participants’ emotions and their sense of value and face in changing contexts. Importantly, like Bown and White’s (2010) study found, it shows how emotion is not solely a fixed cognitive trait but integral to relational contexts.

6.5 Professional contexts, tension and comfort, and cultural values

In this section, I revisit classroom settings and expand it to professional activities including workshops and conferences from the perspectives of the teacher participants. In these settings, much of their work involves classroom management, interaction with students and colleagues, and oral presentation activities in both in and out of class contexts. The teacher participants' reflections on their current experiences may suggest that they experienced fluctuating emotions associated with their language teacher and user self-concept, relationships with students and colleagues, and Vietnamese cultural values.

6.5.1 Student-teacher relationships: Emotions, self-concept and cultural values in classroom contexts

There was a complex relationship between language teacher self-concept, Vietnamese cultural values, and teachers' expectations from students in classroom contexts. This relationship was closely linked with the teachers' fluctuating emotions which affected their language performance.

In Vietnam, the nature of teaching as conveying knowledge to students requires teachers to be knowledgeable and resourceful, which is considered to reflect the value of teachers. Moreover, as discussed in section 1.2, Vietnamese teachers are considered more powerful in teacher-student dyadic relationships and are highly respected. In this research, the teacher participants' perceived value in cultural hierarchical contexts, their possession of higher knowledge and their deserved respect compared to students reflected a positive teacher self-concept. Their devotion to their work is acknowledged more generally in the literature on teachers and emotion (Uitto, Jokikokko, & Estola, 2015), maintaining that teachers spend a great deal of time and effort on their teaching profession. They expect their commitment to be recognised by their students and others. The teachers in this study aligned to this quality. They reported preparing their lectures well to share the knowledge they possessed with their students.

The way the teachers committed themselves to their teaching profession can be linked to their ought-to teacher self-concept which is not different from Dörnyei's

(2009) ought-to self in his L2 motivational self system (see section 2.3.1). Their reason for their investment in their job can also be interpreted as a way of avoiding negative outcomes, which also reflects their value. In the current study, the teachers' ought-to self-concept not only applied to motivation but also to emotion. These teachers reported experiencing "excitement and enthusiasm" associated with their expression of their expertise which showed their confidence to their students and was also a reflection of their positive self-concept.

However, the teachers' emotions fluctuated according to their enhanced or threatened self-concept along with their students' participation. In response to the teachers' "excitement and enthusiasm", their students "showed their interest in and actively participated in" their lessons. In their view, student participation implied their appreciation of the teacher's work and hence enhanced their teacher self-concept. The emotions could be interpreted as emerging from their positive self-concept enhanced through positive interactions with their students. This result aligns with Hargreaves's (2000) research on teachers' perceptions of their interactions with students. Looking at the issue among primary and secondary school teachers, Hargreaves also found that the students' progress and responsive and cooperative behaviour were likely to contribute to the teachers' positive emotions.

The teachers' enhanced self-concept led to them becoming more positively emotionally involved in teaching and speaking English. All the teacher participants reported they went beyond their lesson plans to provide the students with knowledge. Through their positive interaction with students and the positive engagement of their students, their English "flowed easily" (T4, Interview 2) (section 4.2.4.1.1).

By contrast, student disengagement appeared to threaten the teachers' self-concept and evoked emotions of resentment. This emotional shift was associated with the traditional cultural value of respecting others. Six out of nine teachers stated that their commitment to the teaching profession and to students was sometimes repaid by their students' disengagement. These teachers reported their anger and frustration when their students did not engage with class activities (section 4.2.4.1.1). When the students were noncompliant, the teachers perceived

themselves as disrespected, not considered important, and hence, perceived their self-concept to be challenged.

Other research on teacher emotions (Hagenauer et al., 2015; Hargreaves, 2000) has reported similar findings on student disengagement. These researchers, from Western cultures, have also found that the teachers' anger and frustration tend to emerge from their students' "laziness", lack of concentration and discipline, and other inappropriate behaviour. They identified a straightforward link between teacher emotions and students' disengagement but they did not explore further. In the current study, analysis from the Vietnamese cultural lens has indicated that students' disengagement was perceived as a threat to the teachers' language teacher self-concept associated with their negative emotions.

The discussion so far has contributed to expanding Mercer's (2011) finding of the possible link between emotion and self-concept. As reviewed in sections 2.3.2, Mercer (2011) has seen emotion as an internal factor in language learner self-concept. She has tentatively concluded that emotion may play a role in forming self-concept, and she acknowledges that "there may be a close relationship between self-concept, affect and motivation, although, at present, research appears to be unsure about the nature or directionality of such a link" (Mercer, 2011, p. 118). From the teachers' perspectives, the current study has also indicated that teacher self-concept has a complex relationship with the teachers' emotion additionally in relation to Vietnamese cultural values, motivation to engage as teachers and students' engagement or disengagement in classroom activities.

Moreover, traditional Vietnamese cultural values also helped to explain why a few teacher participants tended to display their negative emotions to their students. The power differential between teachers and students is a universal issue. However, it is more salient in the Vietnamese context because of the hierarchical culture (see section 1.2.4). According to research on teachers' emotional labour (section 2.4.2.2), teachers are expected to regulate their emotion so as to express their positive feelings and suppress their negative ones in most exchanges with students (Benesch, 2013; Brown et al., 2014; Schutz & Lee, 2014). In this study, two teachers reported that they showed their anger and frustration by criticizing students' "laziness" and scolding them. These teachers' acts went beyond the

common expectations outlined in the literature. The teacher participants' emotional reactions may be related to the hierarchical distance between the teacher and students in Vietnamese culture that allowed them such liberties with students. A lack of emotion management may have had negative impacts on their teaching and English speaking. For example, three teachers reported that they only taught to fulfil their professional duties, spoke haltingly, or switched to L1.

In summary, although Western research has also shown similar contextual emotional responses, teacher emotion and self-concept in these teaching contexts may be strongly shaped by Vietnamese cultural expectations.

There was a clear link between the teachers' emotion and their self-concept in relation to their perceptions of their language ability. The teacher participants perceived themselves as being fluent and competent English speakers or language users which was associated with their classroom comfort. All of them stated that they could speak English with ease and confidence as they were conscientious about their use of English. Hence, the teachers' comfort was seen to generate from their positive language teacher and speaker self-concept. This link is consistent with previous research on the relationship between emotion and self-concept (Goetz et al., 2010; Goetz, Frenzel, Hall, & Pekrun, 2008; Mercer, 2011). For example, Goetz et al. (2010) investigated the relationship between learners' academic self-concept in four subject domains including mathematics, physics, German, and English and five specific emotions enjoyment, pride, anxiety, anger, and boredom from a quantitative approach. They found a strong causal relation between emotion and self-concept: pleasant and unpleasant emotions have positive and negative influences on self-concept respectively. In a qualitative study, Mercer (2011) pointed out that several participants in her study connected their successful experience with fun and pleasure in language learning. Her findings suggests a possible link between feeling competent and positive emotional responses.

The current study indicated the complex nuances of language teacher self-concept associated with negative emotion and its interrelation with the kind of students the teacher participants had. These nuances were displayed in the way they monitored their language use in the classroom. They had to adjust their speed and the

complexity of their word choice to fit their students' levels. This in turn influenced their self evaluation as English language speakers. Most experienced teachers reported tension speaking to low level English language students. This tension emerged from their concerns about whether the instruction and knowledge they conveyed could be comprehended by their students.

Moreover, the feeling of tension was also linked with their sense of professional responsibility, and their ability to self-monitor their language performance to meet their students' needs. When speaking to the class, they had to consider selecting appropriate vocabulary and slowing down. They worried that their students would not understand. The perceived need for adjustments intensified their tension. This tension was also associated with their perception that they were not displaying themselves as competent language teachers. This suggests that their language teacher self-concept was challenged and reshaped by their sense of teaching responsibility to their students as they monitored themselves. Their challenged self-concept consequently decreased their inclination to use English in class. More specifically, four teachers stated that they did not want to make long explanations in English and switched to Vietnamese.

Findings regarding the L1 culture, ought-to self, and past experience in one experienced teacher's reported tension and a young teacher's comfort are worthy of deeper analysis. As discussed earlier, the Vietnamese hierarchical culture generated negative emotions among some teachers and exacerbated their display of negative emotional reaction to their students. Moreover, the cultural value of respecting teachers and viewing them as "the embodiment of knowledge" (T. C. L. Nguyen, 2005, p. 2) also affected the two teachers' self-concept and their contrasting emotions. The difference in emotions of T1's, the young teacher, and T6's, the experienced teacher, speaking English to their students can be seen in their stories. As stated earlier, T1 talked about her comfort: "Whatever English I speak to them [her students], they always think it is perfect, so I don't have to worry about anything. I feel secure and am not afraid of being judged" (T1, Interview 1). T1's comfort speaking English to her students may have arisen from her perceptions of her students showing deference to her and not challenging her status as a teacher or her English speaking. By contrast, T6 reported experiencing tension when speaking English to her students. She commented, "Although the

students do not voice their comments, it does not mean that they have no evaluations on us. We should keep our self-image in front of them” (T6, Interview 2). Unlike T1, T6 was cautious about establishing a good image of a language teacher self, which implies ought-to self-concept, in front of her students. It was the cultural value of respecting teachers that forced her to perform her best to deserve her students’ respect.

T1’s and T6’s emotional responses seemed to contrast with previous research on teachers’ development. Investigating university teachers’ professional growth, Åkerlind (2003) found that teachers experienced an increase in their development not only in their knowledge and skills, but also in comfort and confidence with teaching. But in this study, reported comfort was experienced by a young inexperienced teacher, whereas tension was reported by a teacher of fifteen-year teaching experience at the time of data collection. The possible interpretations for T1’s comfort and T6’s tension can, on the one hand, relate to the L1 culture as discussed above. On the other hand, the interpretation can be traced back to their past language learning experiences which are also discussed by Ushioda (2014) as historical experience and social and cultural encounters. In her motivation and L2 learning timeline, Ushioda highlights the importance of past and ongoing experiences in the process of L2 learning in the sociocultural environment.

An illustration of Ushioda’s views about experience can be identified in T6’s data. T6’s caution and tension seemed to follow her throughout her process of language learning and use. She reported experiencing caution in different contexts with different people. This constraint was expressed by T6’s tension and caution arising from having to live up to her secondary school teacher’s compliments (discussed in section 6.2). In this particular context, the social face of a language learner needed to be respected. Now, as a teacher she still felt tension because of the ought-to language teacher self that she believed she needed to achieve. This tension may have arisen from Vietnamese cultural expectations of teachers as an “unquestionable source of knowledge” (T. Q. T. Nguyen, 2015, p. 203). Whatever emotions (positive or negative) this teacher experienced, these emotions inspired her to speak English well to maintain her self-concept as a respected teacher.

T1's comfort may be linked with her opportunities in the past and her perceived low self-image in social interactions with her colleagues. The opportunities she took to initiate access to English speaking tourists when she was young helped to build up her confidence and her comfort as a language user. Moreover, as an inexperienced teacher, T1 had less reservation than others in expressing and constructing herself as a comfortable language user. It is generally accepted that inexperienced teachers may feel the need to perform well to earn others' respect. This is likely to lead to tension and caution associated with their ought-to self. However, for T1, her perception of her low self-image as an inexperienced teacher in comparison with experienced knowledgeable colleagues released her tension. This is illustrated by her statement that, "because I am young and the people around me are mostly doctors [PhDs], I think they will be tolerant if I make mistakes" (see section 4.2.4.2). Hence, she felt comfortable.

In summary, these findings confirm the link between emotion and self-concept pointed out by previous research (e.g., Goetz et al., 2010; Mercer, 2011). Moreover, the study contributes to providing an understanding of the complex relationship between two contrasting emotions, comfort and tension, and changing teacher self-concept in relation to the teachers' teaching responsibility, L1 culture, and past experiences.

6.5.2 Collegial relationships: ought-to self, L1 culture, teachers' emotion and language performance

The data from the teachers' professional activities outside classroom contexts makes prominent two points: 1) an expanded role of emotion in Dörnyei's (2009) L2 motivational self system regarding ought-to self, and 2) the association of emotion and culture and its influence on language performance. Although the findings for each point are from one participant each, their significance to applied linguistics deserves an analysis and further exploration.

The predominant reported emotions in professional out-of-class contexts were anxiety and tension, seen to be related to an ought-to *language speaker self*. I use this term to refer to the attributes that speakers / users believe they ought to possess to protect their self-image to promote their language speaker self-concept. The findings from the current study can contribute to understanding Dörnyei's

notion of self in relation to emotion as well as motivation. His model indicates that achieving ought-to self is a motivator for learners to work well. However, the findings of the current study show that it is not necessarily the case when emotion is taken into consideration. The emotion arising from the challenges of ought-to language speaker self may hinder the speaker from performing well.

This view can be illustrated by T8's experience of presenting a discussion point at a workshop with English speaking experts and her colleagues. According to her, her colleagues were not very good at English and respected her as a highly proficient English speaker. It was her perception of others' respect for her that made her aware of performing well to live up to their expectations. This awareness led to T8's tension and anxiety associated with maintaining her self-image in front of others, that is her ought-to self in light of the social pressure coming from the workshop setting. However, as she elaborated on this point in the second interview, the social evaluation from her colleagues increased her anxiety, which in turn prevented her from speaking. This is illustrated in T8's statement that "I was very anxious then. My speech sounded like crying. I couldn't say much. I could neither expand nor explain my idea" (T8, Interview 2). This example shows that the way emotions figure in ought-to self can play an important part in learners' language performance, which can serve to elaborate Dörnyei's (2009) L2 motivational self system.

Language adjustments required for cultural appropriateness played a part in the teachers' speaking English and in turn affected their emotion. The difference between the address terms in two languages is challenging for Vietnamese EAL learners. In English, *you* is used to indicate anyone to whom one is talking. But in Vietnamese, different address terms are applied to addressees based on age and relationship with the addresser (see section 1.2.2). Furthermore, in communication, Vietnamese people are expected to use politeness determiners or particles *đạ* and *thưa* [i.e., *yes* in a respectful manner and *please*] to show politeness to older people, which may create tension in speaking English. Moreover, in ethics lessons at primary school, each Vietnamese student is taught to obey and respect older people, positioning them as superiors. These cultural values can become a barrier for Vietnamese language learners. T3 expressed such

concerns about speaking English to her Vietnamese teachers. They caused her discomfort regarding appropriate language choice.

6.6 Summary

In summary, this discussion of key findings in the current study has indicated that, in the shifting contexts of the participants' journey of language learning, a number of factors figured importantly in their emotion regarding the English language and learning. A dynamic interplay of emotion, motivation, cultural values and expectations, relationships, and recognition from others were apparent throughout the study. Vietnamese culture played an essential role in shaping their emotion. Their shifting emotions were associated with their self-concept in relation to their sense of belonging and acceptance. They were linked with their agency in seeking opportunities to practise English and affirm their speaking ability and their acceptability to native English speakers. The relationship between teachers, students and peers in the classroom and the importance of teachers' and peers' favourable responses may have encouraged them to perform better and participate more in a broader English speaking world and to confirm their position as competent English teachers and English users.

Chapter Seven: Conclusion and Implications

The previous chapter discussed the major findings in relation to the participants' changing emotions throughout their journey of language learning and language use. This chapter concludes the thesis by highlighting the contributions of the study, followed by an acknowledgement of the limitations of the research. It then suggests theoretical and practical implications for emotion research and pedagogies of EAL teaching and learning. The chapter closes with an outline of some recommendations for future research.

7.1 Contributions of the research

To add to an understanding of emotion in SLA, from an interpretive paradigm, the current study found a wide range of emotions regarding the English language and learning, which aligns with previous research in the field (Bown & White, 2010; Imai, 2010; Swain, 2013). This study has drawn on several applied linguists' attention to emotions from social, cultural and relational perspectives (Bown & White, 2010; Imai, 2010; Swain, 2013; Ushioda, 2009) and recent views on the mediating role of emotions (Imai, 2010; Miyahara, 2015). It has contributed to providing an understanding of the complexity and dynamism of emotion in changing relational contexts throughout the participants' process of language learning and language use. The study has underlined the sense of belonging, positioning and cultural values as mediators of emotion. It has further highlighted the mediating and motivating role of emotion in maintaining the participants' emotional engagement with language and language learning to confirm their position as competent English teachers and users.

Firstly, in this study, a sense of belonging played a role of a mediator of emotion in different relational contexts of the participants' language learning and use. It accounted for various and shifting emotions provoked by different experiences of belonging which in turn affected their self-concept and mediated language learning. Features of belonging such as long-term stable social bonds and frequent positive interaction with others (Baumeister & Leary, 1995) are evident in the current study through the teacher participants' close bonding and language-related activities with their parents in their early years. A "sense of being accepted,

valued, included, and encouraged” (Goodenow, 1993, p. 25) by others is also reflected in various contexts where the participants interacted with their parents in family settings, with teachers and peers in the language classrooms, and also with native English speakers in the street or at tourist sites.

As acknowledged by Baumeister and Leary (1995) and Tovar and Simon (2010), a sense of belonging may produce affective responses including positive emotions. In the current study, a sense of being valued associated with parental care and support provoked love, enjoyment, and happiness. The participants’ emotion shifted from anxiety to pride and excitement arising from a sense of being accepted as they experienced teachers’ and peers’ recognition and approval in language classrooms. Native English speakers’ willingness to speak to them in local contexts also brought about a sense of being accepted in the English world. All these experiences of belonging made the participants feel positive and valued. As a mediator of language learning, emotion mediated by a sense of belonging provided an emotional momentum for them and kept them emotionally engaged in language learning. In other words, for these participants, a sense of belonging can be seen to mediate emotion which then mediates language learning.

In this study, a sense of belonging also indicated a feeling of being an important part in the group. This feeling in turn affected the participants’ self-concept as successful language learners or speakers. It was their positive self-concept that encouraged them to perform well to maintain it in front of others. This is relevant to Dörnyei’s (2009) ought-to self that concerns personal duties and social obligation. Awareness of securing their positive self-concept and attaining ought-to self in their social group motivated them to achieve their goals and to continue being accepted and valued.

Opportunities to agentively position themselves as legitimate group members and good language learners with a positive self-concept contributed to positive emotions. These emotions mediated the participants’ language learning. Positioning, as applicable to all discursive practices (Pavlenko & Blackledge, 2004), is evident in the current study. The participants’ good performance in an informal language centre classroom, praised by their teachers and peers, illustrated taking action to cope with their situation to position themselves (Harré

et al., 2009; Langenhove & Harré, 1999). These participants could see themselves as possessing a new sense of self, that is, a good language learner recognised by others. In the local context where the participants took initiative to approach native English speakers to practise English, they sought a new position in the social English world when they successfully engaged with native English speakers. Their acceptance allowed them to position themselves as belonging to that world. Hence, they were able to enhance their self-concept. In the above mentioned situations, the participants' positioning and repositioning themselves in the relational contexts of using English with others led to emotions shifting from negative to positive.

Opportunities to position themselves could be culturally provoked in the participants' language learning context to mediate their emotion. Recent views of positioning by Harré et al. (2009) in terms of expectations, rights and duties suggest that positioning works in a particular context and is culturally influenced as well. Positioning from this perspective is closely linked to Dörnyei's (2009) motivational self system in which people need to perform well to attain ought-to self in relation to cultural expectations. This is particularly relevant to the current study in which the participants' actions and emotions are culturally affected. An example comes from the participants being favourably positioned by teachers' positive evaluations. Unlike the shift of emotions from negative to positive mentioned above, the participants' emotions shifted from positive to negative. The pride linked to being positioned as a good language learner changed to tension due to the social obligation related to teachers' and peers' expectations to deserve the good language learner attribution. Looking at the issue from the Asian cultural context, we can assume that the participants were also under pressure due to family expectations of children's high achievement (Magid, 2009). Despite the negative emotion, they were motivated to perform well to attain their ought-to self.

L1 culture is a mediator of emotions in this study in relation to the participants' self-related issues in language learning and use. As pointed out in the literature, only a few studies (e.g., Huang, 2014b; Ohata, 2005) examined the cultural aspects in exploring emotions in language learning. The current study shows that emotions were mediated by complex cultural aspects in relation to the concept of

face, ought-to self and language teacher self-concept. The concern of loss of face in Vietnamese culture often generated negative emotions such as anxiety and tension when the participants' English speaking abilities were exposed to others such as teachers and peers in classroom contexts. Unlike the traditional cause and effect in previous research, the study participants' awareness of saving face and attaining ought-to self to live up to family's and others' expectations encouraged them to perform at their best. In addition, the cultural value of respecting others shifted the teacher participants' emotions associated with their challenged or enhanced teacher self-concept in accordance with students' (dis)engagement in learning activities. In most settings, both of the positive or negative emotions the teacher participants experienced generally motivated them to speak English well to maintain a positive self-concept as respected teachers.

In summary, in the changing relational and institutional contexts, the participants' emotions changed in association with their shifting self-concept, sense of face, and L2 ought-to-self. The emotions were provoked by their experiences of belonging and opportunities to position themselves in relation with others. In all the contexts of learning and using English, the L1 culture was seen to play an important role in mediating the participants' emotions and hence their English learning and use.

7.2 Limitations

Although this study has contributed to an understanding of shifting emotions in the participants' long-life process of language learning and use, it is not without limitations in relation to methodology, researcher positioning, and generalisation that need to be acknowledged.

In terms of methodology, there were limitations in the data collection instruments. For the questionnaire data, I obtained a general pattern of the participants' perceptions of the role emotion plays in their English oral communication from a cohort of EAL teachers and students. However, useful information from the self-designed questionnaire data was limited. For example, the reported responses from the questionnaire data did not identify the sources of emotion. They did not help to explain the relationship between emotion and other important factors in language learning.

For the qualitative data, I relied mainly on the interviews as the primary data source. I managed to collect rich data from their perceptions and interpretations of their emotions in their past language learning experiences and communicative events. It is certainly valuable to see how the past experiences have been lasting in the learners' memories over time (Swain et al., 2011) through the stories told in the interviews. However, the use of retrospective accounts to explore emotion in this research could not capture the socially constructed emotions in real time.

To compensate for this limitation, I aimed to use oral reflective journals so that the participants could record their emotional responses immediately after their experience. Their information could then reflect the actual emotion at the time (Pressley & Afflerbach, 1995). Nevertheless, the method of recording themselves was new and not well accepted by most of the participants. I had to make a concession that they could choose to either record or write down their reflections as they wished. This means that their reports of emotion may have been affected by other ensuing factors. Moreover, the participants did not report simultaneously as the communicative events took place or immediately after they experienced the emotions. Hence, most of it was still retrospective. Their late reflections limited my intention of recording spontaneous emotions immediately after they were experienced to draw a distinction between the retrospective and spontaneous ones. MacIntyre and Legatto (2011) were able to capture spontaneous emotions, taking a completely different approach. They used video-recording and stimulated recall to explore moment-by-moment changes in the speakers' affective states in relation to willingness to communicate in second language. However, their shortcoming was focusing on test-based tasks in a test-like situation. They did not look at contexts and relationships in language learning and use, which are essential elements in oral communication. In a recent study, White, Direnzo, and Bortolotto (2016) successfully uncovered moment-by-moment complexities of emotions as emergent in interaction during class role-playing activities. Incorporating technology into their study design by combining videoconferencing, tutor journals, stimulated recall, questionnaires and learner diaries, these researchers provided a lively picture of the participants' performance and reactions in the actual sites of learning. They also offered access to the participants' perceptions of

particular moments and the salience of those moments for them in virtual environments.

In terms of researcher positioning, I had originally construed the relationship as an insider, but found that it was not entirely so. This relationship could have affected the information that the participants revealed to me. As a lecturer and a colleague at the research site, I had the advantage of building trust and gaining the participants' cooperation. However, there are two distinct points to consider. With the teachers, they may not wish to display weakness to a peer. To the students there is a power relationship of a teacher to a student. Hence, some information from the participants may have been altered.

Although the results of this study cannot be considered to represent all EAL teachers and students, the findings and implications may be applicable to other similar settings. Moreover, as mentioned in the discussion chapter, many of the key findings, though salient and theoretically interesting, were not apparent for every participant. However, they are distinctive and valuable for understanding the importance of some factors in mediating emotion and its mediating role in EAL learning and oral communication. Therefore, they worth investigating.

7.3 Implications

There are a number of theoretical and pedagogical implications of this study.

7.3.1 Theoretical implications

This study has contributed to providing an understanding of emotion regarding English in changing contexts throughout the participants' lifelong language learning process, beyond the language classroom. It builds on the current views that emotion is developed in social contexts and acts to mediate language learning. The study has contributed three factors to the theory of emotion in language learning: sense of belonging, positioning in relationships with others, and L1 cultural values. These factors have played an important role in the mediation of emotion and language learning for the study participants.

An investigation of emotions emerging from different experiences of belonging in language learning and use contributes to widening the literature on emotion and language learning. An understanding of how people are situated in social contexts

and the extent to which they feel that they belong to the group adds to what Bown and White (2010), Imai (2010), Swain (2013) and other researchers have established: emotion varies across changing contexts and social relationships. That is, emotion is not only cognitive and internal to the individual but also socially constructed in relational contexts. The key of social relationships in this study is the participants' sense of belonging and acceptance in interactions with others and its role in shaping emotions towards language learning. To add to Imai's (2010) first attempt to explore the role of emotion in mediating learning and development, the current study sheds light on the sense of belonging as mediating emotion which mediates language learning.

An interpretation of emotion from positioning in relationships with others, which has not been well documented in the applied linguistic literature on emotion, informs an understanding of its complexity in language learning in relation to the participants' sense of belonging, face and self-concept. The way the participants performed well in English language classrooms or out-of-class contexts were recognised by their teachers, peers, or native English speakers gave them a sense of belonging and acceptance and hence positioned them differently. Their new position as successful language learners or users in turn motivated them to perform better to maintain their positive self-concept and preserve their social face in front of others. The act of positioning and repositioning in interaction with others together with a change in their sense of belonging provoked emotional shifts from negative to positive. The awareness of preserving their face and maintaining positive self-concept led to a feeling of tension. However, this negative emotion, which is closely linked to the participants' sense of self, stimulated them to perform the best to continue repositioning themselves as good language learners and gaining a sense of belonging. In this sense, positioning and a sense of belonging may be mutually influential and become a mediator of emotions which affect language learning and use. The study offers a new way for researchers to look at the complex relationship of positioning to enhance a sense of belonging and positive self-concept, serving to mediate emotions.

The examination of emotions from a cultural lens, with little previous research on emotion, has been important for the Vietnamese participants in this study. One exception is Swain (2013), who has argued for emotion that is "culturally driven"

(p. 196). However, Swain generally links emotions with cultural goals such as reputation and independence. According to her, people learn about aspects of emotions from their sociocultural world. The current study takes a step further to provide evidence for the mediating role of L1 cultural values in shaping emotions in language learning. It provides a broad picture of how family values and expectations, the cultural hierarchical order and respect for others strongly influenced the participants' self-concept, which in turn shaped their emotions. Family values and expectations not only "nourished" the participants' affinity for the English language but also led to tension associated with attaining ought-to self to live up to family expectations. This cultural value links the participants' language learner self-concept in the classroom contexts with their face and their family's face. In this sense, the L1 culture also influenced the way the participants took action to position and reposition themselves to achieve a sense of belonging. In the teacher-student relationship, such values as cultural hierarchical order and respecting others contributed to generating contrasting emotions in relation to language teacher self-concept. These cultural values may have also allowed the teacher participants to express their negative emotions toward their students. In all the relational contexts where emotions are culturally shaped, the participants tended to adjust their language and performance that were suitable for the rights and responsibilities they were entitled by their culture.

The next section will provide implications for EAL pedagogies.

7.3.2 Implications for EAL teaching and learning

Toward the end of the research period, three student participants emailed their reflections on their research participation on emotion in language learning and use. Their comments suggest an awareness of the importance of emotion for EAL teachers. Two commented on the importance of managing their emotions to become better teachers, which had not surfaced during the data collection. Emotion management, as pointed out in the literature review on emotion regulation (section 2.4), is essential for successful learning and teaching. These participants, as prospective EAL teachers, were aware of the importance of controlling their emotion to speak English better and to be valued by others. Likewise, teachers' success in controlling themselves also benefit their students a

great deal if they take their students' emotions in language learning and their need for being accepted in language classrooms into serious consideration. However, the study findings show that the participants only considered how to better themselves as language teachers but did not think of what to do for their students.

Their comments follow:

I noticed my emotions when speaking English. Now I can partly control the influence of emotions on my English speaking. (S1, email exchange, 5/10/2012)

After participating in your research, I've been feeling far more confident speaking English. ... I realised the importance of emotions in English speaking. (S7, email exchange, 15/10/2012)

I've just finished my teaching practicum at a high school. My awareness of the influence of emotions on my English speaking thanks for participating in your research helped me control my emotions when I explained the lessons and spoke to the students. ... I succeeded in adjusting my English speaking speed and was highly appreciated by my supervisor. (S2, email exchange, 26/4/2013)

This research has shown the ubiquitous nature of emotion throughout the participants' experiences of English language learning and use. The advantageous experiences they enjoyed contributed to cumulative positive emotional attitudes toward English language learning. These dispositions arose from a sense of acceptance and belonging, positive self-concept, agentive positioning in different communities, and experiences associated with positive social interaction. The importance of such positive experiences is not new in education literature. For example, Bishop (2010) discusses the notion of belonging in terms of positive relationships between teachers and students. He emphasises "the importance of classroom relationships ... built on trust and respect which in turn lead to positive learning outcomes" (p. 59). However, this area of research and writing tends to focus on the education of minority groups, in New Zealand, with Māori students. Emotion has not received central attention.

The results of this study suggest that EAL teachers should be aware of the important need for all students to feel accepted and valued in the classroom and be

positioned as important. The students need to be consistently supported and welcomed all through their language learning experience. Although most teachers are aware of this, its importance and attention may be overlooked in the face of myriad teaching challenges. This thesis has affirmed its centrality.

The way several teacher participants reported expressing their negative emotions towards their students under the influence of Vietnamese hierarchical distance as discussed in section 6.5.1 also offers an implication for EAL pedagogies. Emotional labour theorists (e.g., Brown et al., 2014; Schutz & Lee, 2014) underline the importance of teachers' hiding negative emotions to act in the interests of their students. An example from one student participant described in section 5.2.2.1.1 can show the negative impacts of the teacher' lack of emotion regulation on the student's emotions and language participation. Although that incident occurred on just one occasion, it built up over time. In effect, it negatively influenced her English speaking from that moment and in later events. This example indicates that teachers who have power in the classroom need to manage themselves and regulate their emotions for their students' interest. Again, the implication is teachers gaining a greater awareness of the need for students' to feel accepted and valued in the classroom, and to be viewed as important. Otherwise, teachers may make their students feel worse about themselves and about language learning.

In the Vietnamese context and in many other countries, English language competency is seen as an important educational goal for the nation. Recently, attention has been placed on curriculum, teaching capacity, testing regimes, and students' cognitive attributes. Yet the social turn in applied linguistics has laid the way for growing attention to the role of emotion in language learning. This study affirms the importance of fostering positive emotions all through language learning.

7.4 Further research

On the basis of the contributions and limitations of the study, the following recommendations are made for future research.

Regarding the above mentioned limitations in terms of the methodology and methods of data collection, I did not observe what was happening to the

participants when they actually used the English language in interaction with others. This limited my understanding of how they reacted to their emotion and its influence on their speaking. Therefore, future research may benefit from a combination of these methods to have a vivid picture of the participants' retrospective and spontaneous emotions and how they influence their language learning over time.

This study contributes to an understanding of how a sense of belonging, agentive positioning, and cultural values can act as mediators of emotions, which in turn mediate language learning and use. It opens up a way for investigating other factors as mediators of emotions and how they may work in different contexts.

Given this was an initial study with the focus on oral communication, it did not investigate particular aspects of oral speech. Further studies may explore emotions in association with more multifaceted aspects of speaking in second language learning and language use.

To conclude, the current study has broadened current investigations of the role of emotion in EAL in general and in oral communication in particular. It is important for language teachers and educators to recognize the importance of emotion and pay more attention to the emotional aspects of language learning to effectively and consistently foster learning in the long and short term. I hope the current study can become a catalyst to invite further discussions on important factors as mediators of emotions which mediate language learning, which then contributes to effective learning.

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Appendixes

Appendix A: Faculty introductory letter and Information sheet

Dean's address

Dear xxxxxxxx,

My name is Pham Thi Nguyen Ai. I am currently a full-time doctoral student at Faculty of Education, the University of Waikato, New Zealand and I would like to conduct research as a requirement of my doctoral degree. I am writing this letter to kindly ask your permission to conduct the research at [name of the research site].

The title of my research is “Emotions in English as an additional language oral communication: Vietnamese English language teachers and students”. I am interested in this topic because emotions seem to be neglected in SLA research, and little or no research has been done in the Vietnamese context. Better understanding of the role of emotions in oral communication may help teachers and students to enhance their English speaking ability.

In this research, I will invite all the teachers and final-year students of the faculty to complete a questionnaire and up to six participants from each group (students and teachers) for individual interviews and reflective journals. My selection of participants will be based on their willingness and the match between their teaching and learning schedule and my data collection time frame. The data collection period will be approximately six months, be conducted outside the teachers' teaching and students' learning timetable, and be convenient to them. I will exchange emails with the participants or conduct follow-up interviews if I need to clarify their ideas. All interviews and oral reflective journals will be audio-recorded.

Teachers' and students' participation in this study is voluntary and they have the right to withdraw from the study at any time during data collection without any questions or disadvantage. If they decide to withdraw, I will immediately remove the raw data related to them. However, if they withdraw from my study after their approval of the first interview transcript and up to two weeks after their journal submission, I will retain the processed data. The data received from the teachers

and students will be confidential, anonymized and shared with no one other than my supervisors. The identities of the participants, the faculty and the university will not be revealed and pseudonyms will be provided where appropriate.

If you would like to have further information, you can either contact my chief supervisor, Dr. Judy Hunter on jmhunter@waikato.ac.nz, or co-supervisor, Dr. Richard Hill on r.hill@waikato.ac.nz, or me on atnp1@students.waikato.ac.nz. The consent form is attached here. Signing the consent form indicates your agreement to my conducting of the research at the faculty.

Thank you very much for your support.

Pham Thi Nguyen Ai

Appendix B: Faculty consent form

Research: Emotions in English as an additional language oral communication: Vietnamese English language teachers and students

I, xxxxxxxx, as Dean of the xxxxxxxx Faculty, College of xxxxxxxx, xxxxxxxx University, have been given and read an explanation of the study conducted by Ms Pham Thi Nguyen Ai. I have been given an opportunity to ask questions and have all of them answered satisfactorily.

I understand that our teachers' and students' participation is completely voluntary and they can withdraw from the study at any time during data collection. The identities of the participants, the faculty and the university will not be revealed and pseudonyms will be provided where appropriate. I understand signing this form indicates my agreement to her conducting of the research at the faculty.

.....

(Signature)

.....

(Date)

Appendix C: Participant introductory letter and Information sheet: Teachers

Dear

My name is Pham Thi Nguyen Ai. I am currently a full-time doctoral student at Faculty of Education, the University of Waikato, New Zealand and I would like to conduct research as a requirement of my doctoral degree. I am writing this letter to kindly invite you to be my participant in my research conducted at [name of the research site].

The title of my research is “Emotions in English as an additional language oral communication: Vietnamese English language teachers and students”. I am interested in this topic because emotions seem to be neglected in SLA research, and little or no research has been done in the Vietnamese context. Better understanding of the role of emotions in oral communication may help teachers and students to enhance their English speaking ability.

I will invite all EAL teachers in the faculty to be my participants for questionnaire completion and six for individual interviews and reflective journals. My selection of participants is based on your commitment to the entire study process, the match between your teaching schedule and my data collection time frame and your return of the questionnaire within two weeks. Returning the questionnaire indicates your giving consent to participating in my research.

If fully participating in my research, you will complete a questionnaire, take part in two individual interviews, and record or write at least one reflective journal per week for six weeks, which you will email to me. In such activities, you will discuss your perceptions of the role of emotions in your oral communication in English in the university context and the Vietnamese context. I will exchange emails or conduct follow-up interviews with you if I need to clarify your ideas. The data collection period will be approximately six months. Each activity will range from 15 minutes to 60 minutes, be conducted outside your teaching timetable, and be convenient to you. All interviews will be audio-recorded and your oral reflective journals will be recorded with your own cell phone. However,

if you do not feel comfortable to talk to your cell phone, you can choose to type it in your computer. I will be flexible to take notes if you find interview recording uncomfortable. We will negotiate the language, either English or Vietnamese, in which our activities will be conducted.

In my study, your participation is voluntary and you have the right to withdraw from the study at any time during data collection without any questions or disadvantage. If you decide to withdraw, I will immediately remove the raw data related to you. However, if you withdraw from the study after your approval of the first interview transcript and up to two weeks after your journal submission, I will retain the processed data. When I return the transcripts of the individual interviews and reflective journals, you can make corrections. You also have the right to refuse to answer any questions.

The data received from you will be confidential, anonymized and shared with no one other than my supervisors. The identities of the participants, the faculty and the university will not be revealed and pseudonyms will be provided where appropriate.

In case of disputes which cannot be solved by discussing with me, you can contact my chief supervisor, Dr. Judy Hunter on jmhunter@waikato.ac.nz, or co-supervisor, Dr. Richard Hill on r.hill@waikato.ac.nz.

If you would like to have further information, you can either contact my supervisors or me on atnp1@students.waikato.ac.nz. The consent form is attached here. Signing the consent form indicates your agreement to participate further in my study.

Thank you very much for your support.

Pham Thi Nguyen Ai

Appendix D: Participant introductory letter and Information sheet: Students

Dear

My name is Pham Thi Nguyen Ai. I am currently a full-time doctoral student at Faculty of Education, the University of Waikato, New Zealand and I would like to conduct research as a requirement of my doctoral degree. I am writing this letter to kindly invite you to be my participant in my research conducted at [name of the research site].

The title of my research is “Emotions in English as an additional language oral communication: Vietnamese English language teachers and students”. I am interested in this topic because emotions seem to be neglected in SLA research, and little or no research has been done in the Vietnamese context. Better understanding of the role of emotions in oral communication may help teachers and students to enhance their English speaking ability.

I will invite all EAL final-year students in the faculty to be my participants for questionnaire completion and six for individual interviews and reflective journals. My selection of participants is based on your commitment to the entire study process, the match between your learning schedule and my data collection time frame and your return of the questionnaire within two weeks. Returning the questionnaire indicates your giving consent to participating in my research.

If fully participating in my research, you will complete a questionnaire, take part in two individual interviews, and record or write at least one reflective journal per week for six weeks, which you will email to me. In such activities, you will discuss your perceptions of the role of emotions in your oral communication in English in the university context and the Vietnamese context. I will exchange emails or conduct follow-up interviews with you if I need to clarify your ideas. The data collection period will be approximately six months. Each activity will range from 15 minutes to 60 minutes, be conducted outside your learning timetable, and be convenient to you. All interviews will be audio-recorded and your oral reflective journals will be recorded with your own cell phone. However,

if you do not feel comfortable to talk to your cell phone, you can choose to type it in your computer. I will be flexible to take notes if you find interview recording uncomfortable. We will negotiate the language, either English or Vietnamese, in which our activities will be conducted.

In my study, your participation is voluntary and you have the right to withdraw from the study at any time during data collection without any questions or disadvantage. If you decide to withdraw, I will immediately remove the raw data related to you. However, if you withdraw from my study after your approval of the first interview transcript and up to two weeks after your journal submission, I will retain the processed data. When I return the transcripts of the individual interviews and reflective journals, you can make corrections. You also have the right to refuse to answer any questions.

The data received from you will be confidential, anonymized and shared with no one other than my supervisors. The identities of the participants, the faculty and the university will not be revealed and pseudonyms will be provided where appropriate.

In case of disputes which cannot be solved by discussing with me, you can contact my chief supervisor, Dr. Judy Hunter on jmhunter@waikato.ac.nz, or co-supervisor, Dr. Richard Hill on r.hill@waikato.ac.nz.

If you would like to have further information, you can either contact my supervisors or me on atnp1@students.waikato.ac.nz. The consent form is attached here. Signing the consent form indicates your agreement to participate further in my study.

Thank you very much for your support.

Pham Thi Nguyen Ai

Appendix E: Participant consent form: Teachers

Research: Emotions in English as an additional language oral communication: Vietnamese English language teachers and students

I,....., as an EAL teacher at [name of the research site], have been given and read an explanation of the study conducted by Ms Pham Thi Nguyen Ai. I have been given an opportunity to ask questions and have all of them answered satisfactorily.

I have read and understood:

- My participation in this study is completely voluntary.
- My identity and revealed information will be treated with confidentiality.
- Signing this form indicates my agreement to further participate in the study.

I understand that I have the right to:

- comment on the information up to the time I return the transcripts;
- refuse to answer any of the researcher's questions during the interviews;
- withdraw from the study at any time without any question from the researcher and without any disadvantage of any kind.

I agree to: (Please tick the box ✓)	Yes	No
• have my interviews audio-recorded;	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
• take part in the interviews twice;	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
• self-record / write my reflections for six weeks;	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
• exchange emails with the researcher and/or take part in follow-up interviews to clarify information.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

.....
(Signature)

.....
(Date)

Appendix F: Participant consent form: Students

Research: Emotions in English as an additional language oral communication: Vietnamese English language teachers and students

I,....., as an EAL student at [name of the research site], have been given and read an explanation of the study conducted by Ms Pham Thi Nguyen Ai. I have been given an opportunity to ask questions and have all of them answered satisfactorily.

I have read and understood:

- My participation in this study is completely voluntary.
- My identity and revealed information will be treated with confidentiality.
- Signing this form indicates my agreement to further participate in the study.

I understand that I have the right to:

- comment on the information up to the time I return the transcripts;
- refuse to answer any of the researcher's questions during the interviews;
- withdraw from the study at any time without any question from the researcher and without any disadvantage of any kind.

I agree to: (Please tick the box ✓)	Yes	No
• have my interviews audio-recorded;	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
• take part in the interviews twice;	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
• self-record / write my reflections for six weeks;	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
• exchange emails with the researcher and/or take part in follow-up interviews to clarify information.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

.....
(Signature)

.....
(Date)

Appendix G: Questionnaire: Teachers

EAL teachers' perceptions of the role of emotions in English as an additional language oral communication

Dear colleague,

My name is Pham Thi Nguyen Ai. I am currently a full-time doctoral student at the Faculty of Education, the University of Waikato, New Zealand and I would like to conduct research as a requirement of my doctoral degree. The title of my research is “Emotions in English as an additional language oral communication: Vietnamese English language teachers and students”.

I would like to invite you to participate in the research for my doctoral degree by completing this survey. This survey explores your perceptions of the role emotions play in your oral communication. The survey consists of four parts and will take you only 10 minutes to complete it. Please read carefully the instructions for each part. The responses will be kept confidential. The information from your responses will be used only for the research, and the results will be presented in a form from which no individual will be identifiable. Your completion of the survey will indicate your consent to participate in this research.

Thank you for your participation!

YOUR BACKGROUND

1. Gender

Female Male

2. How many years did you learn English before becoming a teacher?

.....

3. How many years have you been teaching English?

.....

EMOTIONS IN SPEAKING ENGLISH IN GENERAL

4. To what extent do you think emotions have influenced your English speaking?

Please choose **only one** of the following:

- Little or none
- Some
- A moderate amount
- Quite a lot
- A great deal

YOUR EXPERIENCES AS A LANGUAGE LEARNER AND TEACHER

5. Please rate yourself to indicate how you felt in your early experiences speaking English. Please choose response(s) only for the emotion(s) that you felt.

1 = Not at all 2 = A little 3 = Somewhat 4 = Quite 5 = Very

Please choose the appropriate response for each item:

	1	2	3	4	5
Content	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Confident	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Excited	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Proud of myself	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Embarrassed	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Nervous	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Frustrated	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Other (Please specify below)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

.....
6. Please rate yourself to indicate how you feel when you speak English now. Please choose response(s) only for the emotion(s) that you feel.

1 = Not at all 2 = A little 3 = Somewhat 4 = Quite 5 = Very

Please choose the appropriate response for each item:

	1	2	3	4	5
Content	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Confident	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Excited	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Proud of myself	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Embarrassed	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Nervous	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Frustrated	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Other (Please specify below)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

.....
7. How much did your emotions affect your decision to become a teacher of English?

Please choose **only one** of the following:

- Little or none
- Some
- A moderate amount
- Quite a lot
- A great deal

8. How comfortable did you feel about your English speaking when you first started teaching?

Please choose **only one** of the following:

- Not comfortable
- Slightly comfortable
- Moderately comfortable

- Comfortable
- Very comfortable

9. How comfortable do you feel about your English speaking when you teach now?

Please choose **only one** of the following:

- Not comfortable
- Slightly comfortable
- Moderately comfortable
- Comfortable
- Very comfortable

10. Please rank each of the following situations on the scale from least (1) to most (5) to indicate their potential for making you feel nervous speaking English.

Least nervous (1) Most nervous (5)

Please choose the appropriate response for each item:

	1	2	3	4	5
Speaking in front of my students	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Speaking in discussions with my colleagues	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Speaking at conference presentations	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Speaking with foreigners	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Other (Please specify below)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

.....

YOUR GENERAL PERCEPTIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

11. How would you rate your overall English speaking ability?

Poor (1) Excellent (10)

Please choose the appropriate response:

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10

12. What do you usually do when you feel very emotional while speaking English?

.....

13. What would you advise EAL learners to do when they feel very emotional while speaking English?

.....

FURTHER INFORMATION

I will conduct two interviews and reflective journals (one entry per week for six weeks) as part of the research. If you would like to further participate in my research, please give me your details so I can contact you. The place and date of the interviews will be fixed according to your convenience. Also, you can use your cell phone to record your journal entries to suit your own time and place.

- Name
- Email address
- Phone number

THANK YOU FOR YOUR COOPERATION!

Appendix H: Questionnaire: Students

EAL students' perceptions of the role of emotions in English as an additional language oral communication

Dear student,

My name is Pham Thi Nguyen Ai. I am currently a full-time doctoral student at the Faculty of Education, the University of Waikato, New Zealand and I would like to conduct research as a requirement of my doctoral degree. The title of my research is “Emotions in English as an additional language oral communication: Vietnamese English language teachers and students”.

I would like to invite you to participate in the research for my doctoral degree by completing this survey. This survey explores your perceptions of the role emotions play in your oral communication. The survey consists of five parts and will take you only 15 minutes to complete it. Please read carefully the instructions for each part. The responses will be kept confidential. The information from your responses will be used only for the research, and the results will be presented in a form from which no individual will be identifiable. Your completion of the survey will indicate your consent to participate in this research.

Thank you for your participation!

YOUR BACKGROUND

1. Gender

Female Male

2. How many years have you been learning English?

.....

3. Who in your family can speak English with you?

.....

4. What grade did you get in your final English speaking examination?

.....

EMOTIONS IN SPEAKING ENGLISH IN GENERAL

5. To what extent do you think emotions have influenced your English speaking?

Please choose **only one** of the following:

- Little or none
- Some
- A moderate amount
- Quite a lot
- A great deal

6. Please rate yourself to indicate how you felt in your early experiences speaking English. Please choose response(s) only for the emotion(s) that you felt.

1 = Not at all 2 = A little 3 = Somewhat 4 = Quite 5 = Very

Please choose the appropriate response for each item:

	1	2	3	4	5
Content	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Confident	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Excited	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Proud of myself	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Embarrassed	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Nervous	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Frustrated	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Other (Please specify below)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

.....

7. Please rate yourself to indicate how you feel when you speak English now. Please choose response(s) only for the emotion(s) that you feel.

1 = Not at all 2 = A little 3 = Somewhat 4 = Quite 5 = Very

Please choose the appropriate response for each item:

	1	2	3	4	5
Content	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

	1	2	3	4	5
Confident	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Excited	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Proud of myself	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Embarrassed	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Nervous	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Frustrated	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Other (Please specify below)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

.....

8. Please rank each of the following situations on the scale from least (1) to most (5) to indicate their potential for making you feel nervous speaking English.

Least nervous (1) - - - - - Most nervous (5)

Please choose the appropriate response for each item:

	1	2	3	4	5
Speaking in pairs with my classmate	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Speaking in groups with my classmates	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Speaking in front of the whole class	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Speaking with my teacher inside the class	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Speaking with my friend(s) outside the class	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Speaking with my teacher outside the class	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Speaking with my family member(s)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Speaking with foreigners	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Other (Please specify below)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

.....

SPEAKING ENGLISH IN CLASS

9a. How do you usually feel when the teacher calls you to answer a question if you know the answer? And how do those feelings affect your speaking? Please choose response(s) only for the emotion(s) that you feel.

Please choose the appropriate response for each item:

	I want to speak more	I find it hard to continue speaking	I cannot speak	Not applicable
Content	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Confident	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Excited	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

	I want to speak more	I find it hard to continue speaking	I cannot speak	Not applicable
Proud of myself	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Embarrassed	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Nervous	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Frustrated	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Other (Please specify below)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

9b. How do you usually feel when the teacher calls you to answer a question if you don't know the answer? And how do those feelings affect your speaking? Please choose response(s) only for the emotion(s) that you feel.

Please choose the appropriate response for each item:

	I want to speak more	I find it hard to continue speaking	I cannot speak	Not applicable
Content	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Confident	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Excited	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Proud of myself	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Embarrassed	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Nervous	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Frustrated	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Other (Please specify below)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

10a. How do you feel when you work in pairs with another student who speaks English better than you? And how do those feelings affect your speaking? Please choose response(s) only for the emotion(s) that you feel.

Please choose the appropriate response for each item:

	I want to speak more	I find it hard to continue speaking	I cannot speak	Not applicable
Content	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Confident	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Excited	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Proud of myself	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Embarrassed	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Nervous	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Frustrated	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Other (Please specify below)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

10b. How do you feel when you work in pairs with another student who speaks English as well as you? And how do those feelings affect your speaking? Please choose response(s) only for the emotion(s) that you feel.

Please choose the appropriate response for each item:

	I want to speak more	I find it hard to continue speaking	I cannot speak	Not applicable
Content	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Confident	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Excited	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Proud of myself	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Embarrassed	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Nervous	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Frustrated	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Other (Please specify below)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

10c. How do you feel when you work in pairs with another student who doesn't speak English as well as you? And how do those feelings affect your speaking? Please choose response(s) only for the emotion(s) that you feel.

Please choose the appropriate response for each item:

	I want to speak more	I find it hard to continue speaking	I cannot speak	Not applicable
Content	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Confident	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Excited	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Proud of myself	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Embarrassed	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Nervous	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Frustrated	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Other (Please specify below)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

.....

11. How do you feel when you participate in a group discussion? And how do those feelings affect your speaking? Please choose response(s) only for the emotion(s) that you feel.

Please choose the appropriate response for each item:

	I want to speak more	I find it hard to continue speaking	I cannot speak	Not applicable
Content	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Confident	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Excited	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Proud of myself	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Embarrassed	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Nervous	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Frustrated	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Other (Please specify below)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

.....

SPEAKING ENGLISH OUTSIDE CLASS

12. How often do you speak English outside the class?

Please choose **only one** of the following:

- Never
- Less than once a week
- Once a week
- Every two or three days
- Every day

13. How much does speaking English outside the class influence your English speaking ability?

Please choose **only one** of the following:

- Little or none
- Some
- A moderate amount
- Quite a lot
- A great deal

14. How do you feel when you speak English with your friend(s) outside the class? And how do those feelings affect your speaking? Please choose response(s) only for the emotion(s) that you feel.

Please choose the appropriate response for each item:

	I want to speak more.	I find it hard to continue speaking.	I cannot speak.	Not applicable
Content	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Confident	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Excited	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Proud of myself	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Embarrassed	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Nervous	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Frustrated	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Other (Please specify below)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

15. How do you feel when you speak English with your teacher outside the class? And how do those feelings affect your speaking? Please choose response(s) only for the emotion(s) that you feel.

Please choose the appropriate response for each item:

	I want to speak more.	I find it hard to continue speaking.	I cannot speak.	Not applicable
Content	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Confident	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Excited	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Proud of myself	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Embarrassed	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Nervous	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Frustrated	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Other (Please specify below)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

.....

16. How do you feel when you speak English with your family member(s)? And how do those feelings affect your speaking? Please choose response(s) only for the emotion(s) that you feel.

If none of your family members can speak English, please go to question 17.

Please choose the appropriate response for each item:

	I want to speak more.	I find it hard to continue speaking.	I cannot speak.	Not applicable
Content	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Confident	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Excited	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Proud of myself	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Embarrassed	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Nervous	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Frustrated	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Other (Please	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

	I want to speak more.	I find it hard to continue speaking.	I cannot speak.	Not applicable
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specify
below)

.....

17. How do you feel when you speak English with an English speaking foreigner?
And how do those feelings affect your speaking? Please choose response(s) only
for the emotion(s) that you feel.

Please choose the appropriate response for each item:

	I want to speak more.	I find it hard to continue speaking.	I cannot speak.	Not applicable
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Content	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Confident	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Excited	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Proud of myself	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Embarrassed	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Nervous	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Frustrated	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Other (Please specify below)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

.....

GENERAL PERCEPTIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

18. How would you rate your overall English speaking ability?

Poor (1) - - - - - Excellent (10)

Please choose the appropriate response:

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

19. What do you usually do when you feel very emotional while speaking
English?

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20. What would you advise EAL learners to do when they feel very emotional while speaking English?

.....

FURTHER INFORMATION

I will conduct two interviews and reflective journals (one entry per week for six weeks) as part of the research. If you would like to further participate in my research, please give me your details so I can contact you. The place and date of the interviews will be fixed according to your convenience. Also, you can use your cell phone to record your journal entries to suit your own time and place.

- Name
- Email address
- Phone number

THANK YOU FOR YOUR COOPERATION!

Appendix J: Interview schedule: Teachers

Interview 1:

Focus: The role of emotions in EAL teachers' and students' oral communication.

(Topics: Previous learning and speaking experiences, sources of anxiety / tension, kinds of emotion, cognition, social interactions, social influences, colleagues, parents, peers, positive and negative feelings and experiences of English speaking, inside and outside classroom communication, negative evaluation, self-perceived evaluation and strategies to improve English speaking skill)

- Talk about your English learning background.
- Talk about your early experiences speaking English.
- How did you feel about speaking English when you were a student?
- How do you feel about speaking English in your teaching career?
- Do you have any pressures in speaking English? (colleagues, students)
- Do you have a lot of opportunities to speak English outside the classroom environment? (professional seminar, international conferences / workshop / social life)
- Do your feelings change according to the contexts you are in and the person you are talking to (e.g. colleagues, voluntary foreign teachers, students)? How do they influence your oral communication?
- How satisfied are you with your English speaking ability? What have contributed to your success in speaking English? Do emotions play a role in your success?
- Are you aware of any nervousness among your colleagues or yourself when making presentations or using English as a foreign language in the workplace? Do you have some examples?
- Was there a time when negative emotions affected your oral communication? Could you describe that incident? (What was in your mind? What stopped you? What happened then? What did you do afterwards? Were you concerned about what people thought about you?)

- Was there a time when positive emotions affected your oral communication? Could you describe it?
- How did it affect your oral communication in the short term and long term?
- Could you share with us how you manage to deal with your negative emotions?
- What recommendations could you make to help EAL learners?

Interview 2:

Focus: A more in-depth picture of the role of emotions in EAL teachers' and students' oral communication

- Explore in more depth or elaborate on points emerging from the first interviews or noticed from the reflective journals to have a more in-depth picture. (In your journal, you mentioned Please tell me more about / Could you explain?)
- General questions:
 - How do you feel about English/speaking English?
 - Is there any change?
 - What would you recommend EAL learners to do to deal with negative emotions that hinder their oral communication?

Appendix K: Interview schedule: Students

Interview 1:

Focus: The role of emotions in EAL students' oral communication.

(Topics: Previous learning and speaking experiences, sources of anxiety / tension, kinds of emotion, cognition, social interactions, social influences, teachers, parents, peers, positive and negative feelings and experiences of English speaking, negative evaluation, self-perceived evaluation, inside and outside classroom communication, and strategies to improve English speaking skill)

- Talk about your English learning background.
- Talk about your early experiences speaking English.
- How do you feel about speaking English?
- As a final-year student, you have to make a lot of presentations in English. Are you aware of any difficulties or anxiety among your classmates or yourself when giving presentations? Could you give me some examples? What do you do?
- What are the tensions you feel before you speak? (e.g. composing sentences, figuring out what you want to say)
- Do you have any pressures in speaking English (from parents / teachers / classmates)? How do you feel if other students speak English better than you do?
- Do your feelings change according to the person you are talking to (e.g. teacher, close / casual friend, better / worse speaker of English)? How do they influence your oral communication?
- Was there a time when negative emotions affected your oral communication? Could you describe that incident? (What was in your mind? What stopped you? What happened then? What did you do afterwards? Were you concerned about what people thought about you?)
- Was there a time when positive emotions affected your oral communication? Could you describe it?
- How did it affect your oral communication in the short term and long term?

- Give an example of a time when you did very well at speaking English. What contributed to the success?
- How did you feel after that? How did that feeling relate to your oral communication?
- Do you have chance to speak English outside the class? (with friends / teachers / foreigners). Do you have more or less tension than speaking English in the class?
- I myself, as well as other EAL learners, experience a lot of tension and anxiety in speaking English. Could you share with us how you manage to deal with your negative emotions?
- What recommendations could you make to help EAL learners?

Interview 2:

Focus: A more in-depth picture of the role of emotions in EAL students' oral communication

- Explore in more depth or elaborate on points emerging from the first interviews or noticed from the reflective journals to have a more in-depth picture. (In your journal, you mentioned Please tell me more about / Could you explain?)
- General questions:
 - How do you feel about English / speaking English?
 - Is there any change?
 - What would you recommend EAL learners to do to deal with negative emotions that hinder their oral communication?

Appendix L: Reflective journal guidelines

My research aims to investigate the role emotions play in EAL teachers' and students' oral communication.

Please think about an instance of speaking English on a day this week. It is not necessary to be at the same time every week, just whenever something comes up. I would like you to focus on your feelings when speaking English. Alternatively, if you do not experience emotions that you can reflect on, but something that reminds you of previous relevant experiences, you can add more information for clarification.

You could either use your cell phone to record your reflections or write each reflection in your computer. However, please explain why you prefer to do oral or written form.

Here are some suggestions on what you will record or write:

- What happened? Where, when, and with whom were you speaking English?
- How were you feeling at the time of speaking?
- How did your emotions influence your speaking?
- How did they affect your later communication?
- How did you feel when you spoke English well / not very well?
- What did you do to cope with the feelings that hindered your speaking?

Please send me your recording or your written entry at the end of the day through email on atnp1@student.waikato.ac.nz

Thank you for your reflections!

Appendix M: Approval letters

Dean's Office
Faculty of Education
Te Kura Toi Tangata
The University of Waikato
Private Bag 3105
Hamilton, New Zealand

Phone +64 7 838 4500
www.waikato.ac.nz



THE UNIVERSITY OF
WAIKATO
Te Whare Wānanga o Waikato

MEMORANDUM

To: **Ai Thi Nguyen Pham**
cc: Dr Judith Hunter
Carl Mika

From: **Associate Professor Linda Mitchell**
Chairperson, Research Ethics Committee

Date: 2 May 2012

Subject: Supervised Postgraduate Research – Application for Ethical Approval (EDU032/12)

Thank you for submitting the amendments to your application for ethical approval for the research project:

Emotions in second language oral communication: Vietnamese English language teachers and students

I am pleased to advise that your application has received ethical approval.

Please note that researchers are asked to consult with the Faculty's Research Ethics Committee in the first instance if any changes to the approved research design are proposed.

The Committee wishes you all the best with your research.

Associate Professor Linda Mitchell
Chairperson
Faculty of Education Research Ethics Committee

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THE UNIVERSITY OF
WAIKATO
Te Whare Wānanga o Waikato

MEMORANDUM

To: Ai Thi Nguyen Pham
cc: Dr Judith Hunter

From: Associate Professor Linda Mitchell
Chairperson, Research Ethics Committee

Date: 31 July 2012

Subject: Supervised Postgraduate Research – Variation to Ethical Approval (EDU032/12)

Thank you for notifying me of the variation to ethical approval previously received for the research project:

Emotions in second language oral communication: Vietnamese English language teachers and students

It is noted that you now wish to provide the questionnaire to be given to Vietnamese ESOL students and final year pre-service ESOL teacher candidates in English, rather than in Vietnamese, as stated in your application.

I am pleased to advise your request has received ethical approval.

Please note that researchers are asked to consult with the Faculty's Research Ethics Committee in the first instance if any changes to the approved research design are proposed.

The Committee wishes you all the best with your research.

Associate Professor Linda Mitchell
Chairperson
Faculty of Education Research Ethics Committee