Exploring teachers' and students' expectations of good English teachers in Kazakhstan through narrative and metaphor analyses

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ABSTRACT

Significant roles held by a teacher in education have been emphasized for centuries. However, due to the paucity of studies in this area it is not clear what factors contribute to features of a good English teacher as perceived by participants themselves in specific educational settings. The aim of this mixed methods research is to explore university students' and teachers' expectations of good English teachers in Kazakhstan: this is arguably the first such examination within a Kazakhstani context. 299 undergraduate students and 43 university English teachers from six cities in Kazakhstan completed a metaphor questionnaire. Subsequently, narrative interviews were conducted with 100 students and 43 teachers. Drawing on this original combination of less conventional research methods, this study provides a framework to examine the scope of conceptions of EFL (English as a Foreign Language) teachers. The uniqueness of this research lies in investigating both teachers' and students' views through a combination of narrative and metaphor analyses which provide innovative methods to explore insights on the topic from participants' perspectives.

Overall, the results suggest that teachers' and students' expectations of good EFL teachers in Kazakhstan go beyond learners' academic and linguistic development. Both teachers and students perceive a good EFL teacher within complex relationships of equally important and mutually dependent cognitive, affective, social, moral and aesthetic dimensions of conceptions of a good English teacher. This multidimensional model of an EFL teacher is one of the key aspects within a proposed framework of concepts of EFL teachers. It is argued that cultures of learning in this framework underpin students' and teachers' expectations of good EFL teachers and can influence second language teacher education design in Kazakhstan. The inductively derived framework represents an EFL teacher in holistic terms: it portrays a nonconventional landscape with theoretical and practical implications rather than prescribing a fixed set of predetermined characteristics expected from EFL teachers. Such a shift in theory and practice should help gain a better understanding of EFL teachers which is likely to enhance EFL teaching and learning.

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Chapter 1 Introduction

In the last three decades much work has been done to investigate the qualities of good teachers (Mortimore *et al.*, 1988; Cooper & McIntyre, 1994; Cortazzi & Jin, 1996; Morgan & Morris, 1999; McBer, 2000; Pollard *et al.*, 2000; De Guerrero & Villamil, 2002; Murphy *et al.*, 2004; Bell, 2005; Borg, 2006; Brown, 2009; Cortazzi *et al.*, 2009; Nemati & Kaivanpanah, 2013; Arthur *et al.*, 2015; Farrell, 2016). However, conceptions of a good English teacher in non-Western contexts have been much less frequently explored. This is surprising given the enormous global engagement in English and the remarkable number of non-native English speaking EFL teachers all over the world: they comprise about 80% of all English language teachers (Canagarajah, 1999; Mermelstein, 2015). There is hardly any systematic research in the diversity of other contexts. There is only one published study on Kazakhstani learners' perceptions of good English teachers (Makhanova & Cortazzi, 2013) and the present research substantially builds on this, in breadth, in depth, and in methodology.

Surprisingly, research which explores both teachers' and students' expectations of good English teachers appears very limited (Nemati & Kaivanpanah, 2013). Prior research is mainly about characteristics of a good teacher in general, without taking disciplinary factors into consideration. Besides, previous studies in this area have been conducted at primary and secondary schools in Western contexts. More importantly, as widely recognized in current applied linguistics and second language acquisition literature, teachers' and students' expectations potentially influence their actions (Ellis, 1997; Fisher, 2017). Thus, understanding teachers' and students' expectations is important in order to facilitate better learning and teaching (Pajares, 1992; Richardson, 1996; Barcelos & Kalaja, 2003; Borg, 2018).

Despite this importance of the links between teachers' and learners' mental worlds and actions, there is a paucity of research which

investigates perspectives of both teachers' and learners' in EFL contexts. Thus, the present study intends to address these gaps and examine a 'good' English teacher as perceived by both university students and their English teachers in Kazakhstan.

Scholarly attempts to examine ideas about good teachers have been informed by various disciplines. Research on teachers historically developed with contributions from philosophical and psychological orientations in education. These aspects make a fundamental foundation of research on teaching (Floden, 2001). However, from the point of teachers' and learners' cultural backgrounds, outcomes from these disciplines might have varying strengths. As argued by Cortazzi & Jin, learning is also cultural and people from different cultural groups might learn in different ways due to cultural and educational experiences (1996; 1999). It is therefore important to study various cultural contexts because teaching was previously largely considered as acquiring a certain list of efficacy attributes which function independent of time and place (Shulman, 1986). It is hoped that data from this study will help explore the above questions, specifically in a Kazakhstani university teaching context.

The literature review shows that much focus is on policy and school improvement through drawing up lists of effective teachers' characteristics (Block, 2015). Most lists are seen as instruments of measurement in terms of strategies and techniques for teachers to follow (Moore, 2004). However, being a good English teacher is not merely having a set of requisite knowledge requirements and listed skills but "rather it involves understanding what being a good teacher really means" (Hativa *et al.,* 2001). It is important to examine these underlying meanings because commonly held ideas about good teachers can influence learner attitudes and motivation and in this sense the teacher is a carrier of educational values (Brown, 2009). Arguably, this is particularly the case for English teachers in those contexts, such as Kazakhstan, where exposure to and interaction with highly proficient speakers of the target language is restricted largely to English teachers. The English teacher might therefore be held to be a

model. This is perhaps due to these reasons: first, English teachers are not only models of the classroom language input and interaction, but, second, models of related cultures of speakers using English around the world and, third and pedagogically, models of how to learn the language and, fourth, of how to learn many disciplines and professional activities through the medium of the language, which for many is vital for further university and professional learning (Hall, 2016).

The research design of this study integrates both qualitative and quantitative methods. Most previous studies on expectations about teachers were largely concerned with cognitive representations with predetermined assumptions (Kalaja, 1995) and involved collecting data through questionnaires or interviews with predetermined questions (Wan *et al*., 2011). The present study will use such innovative research methods as narrative and metaphor analysis developed by Cortazzi & Jin: the narrated experiences of participants are analyzed for their expectations of good English teachers (Cortazzi, 1991; 1993; Cortazzi & Jin, 1994; 2001; 2006; 2012) and participants' elicited metaphors for teachers are analyzed for detailed features of their cognitive models (Cortazzi & Jin, 1999; Cortazzi, Jin & Wang, 2009; Jin & Cortazzi, 2008; 2011; Jin *et al*., 2016). Such a methodological approach to examine students' and teachers' expectations is apparently unusual for the fields of education and applied linguistics, though a recent publication does consistently link narrative and metaphor in education (Hanne & Kaal, 2019).

This study demonstrates that examining conceptions about teachers cannot be also isolated from the cultural context (Jin & Cortazzi, 1998; Woods, 1996; Borg, 2003; 2018). Based on students' and teachers' metaphor and narrative data analyses, it was possible here to identify a wide range of English teachers' perceived roles in and beyond the classroom, English teachers' and students' relationships and how various features might impact learning. It is argued that these elements form part of, and at the same time are shaped by, cultures of learning in Kazakhstan. Cultures of learning, as the evidence suggests, underpin

conceptualizations of teaching which in turn influence teachers' and students' expectations of good English teachers as significant elements of day-to-day pedagogy. Thus, all these interrelated features form a holistic framework of concepts of EFL teachers which is proposed in this study. The framework considers an EFL teacher and, consequently, the field of EFL generally, in holistic and dynamic terms as opposed to a traditional view of the teacher seen through a list of fixed and predetermined attributes.

Thus, investigating what teachers and learners expect from good English teachers in Kazakhstan is likely to have applications and implications for teaching and learning, and for teacher training and development, besides the immediate insights gained from a hitherto under-represented context in global discussions of English as an international language.

At this point it is important to make a note on key terms. Firstly, the present study focuses on a *good* English teacher not on an *effective* English teacher. These terms are often used interchangeably as synonyms (e.g. in Porter & Brophy, 1988; Liu & Meng, 2009). Due to methodological and conceptual complexities of defining good/effective teachers, good teaching has even been called mysterious (Goldhaber, 2002), or there are attempts to use other terms for good teachers. For example, Cruickshank and Haefele (2001) name good teachers in ten varying ways (analytic, quality, effective, competent, expert etc.). Furthermore, there is a viewpoint that the notion of being an *effective* teacher among other characteristics should also include *good* teaching (Porter & Brophy, 1988).

Teacher effectiveness is about measuring and evaluating specific teaching behaviors, skills and practices, whereas the concept of good teachers implies more than having a set of certain skills and requisite knowledge. The notion of good teacher is culturally constructed and therefore includes beliefs and perceptions about good teachers in a given society; crucially, these include participants' inside views and experiences (Jin & Cortazzi, 1998; Cortazzi *et al,* 2009; Cortazzi *et al*.,

2015). However, there is a fine line between *effective* and *good* because evaluation systems and teachers' characteristics are closely related (Liu & Meng, 2009: 315). Therefore, this thesis will refer both to good and effective teachers in accordance with specific cited sources.

The second term to define here is *expectations*. Following Richards (1998: 66) and Richardson (1996: 103), *expectations* in this research refer to attitudes, assumptions or propositions about teaching and learning. In this sense, expectations are also related to beliefs and perceptions (Richards, ibid) but the aim of this research is not to define constructs from the perspective of a psychological domain; rather it is to explore ideas about good English teachers held by the participants of this study and to obtain insider views, voices and values.

A final note is on the use of *Kazakhstani* and *Kazakh*. *Kazakhstani* refers to people in Kazakhstan in general. As the country "represents a true melting pot of peoples", the citizens are called Kazakhstanis in the political sense (Schreiber & Tredinnick, 2010: 93) while *Kazakh* refers to one specific ethnic group in contrast to other ethnic groups within the country.

The thesis is structured as follows: this Chapter (1) briefly shows the context and academic location of the study. It presents the significance of the study, defines the key terms, indicates an overall outcome of this research and gives an overview of the thesis.

Chapter 2 starts with considering what teaching is and the activity of teaching and purposes of university teaching because the research is conducted in the context of higher education. This discussion is followed by the review of selected empirical literature on good teachers and good English teachers. Such a review is important in order to synthesize the research outcomes on a theoretical level; this review is followed by examining different theoretical perspectives of relevant research. Theoretically, research on good teachers can be carried out in philosophical and psychological theoretical directions but investigating participants' perceptions from the theoretical perspective

of cultures of learning is additionally important to complement other perspectives for several reasons outlined in 2.6. Then, within the theoretical framework of research, the sociocultural setting of study and ELT strands of cultures of learning in Kazakhstan are discussed. Chapter 2 concludes with the research questions of the study.

Chapter 3 starts with the review of research methods in prior studies on good English teachers which is followed by a discussion of the constructivist paradigm and methodological approach of the study. In line with the constructivist approach specific linguistic, social and historical contexts are important for constructing and interpreting social actions such as teaching and learning English. Therefore, in Section 3.4 it is argued how the research methods of narrative analysis and elicited metaphor analyses capture insider interpretations about good English teachers. Then, the specific data collection procedures are described including information about the research participants, ethical considerations and analytical steps.

Chapter 4 reports the findings of research and discusses them in relation to the existing relevant literature. Based on the evidence, the Chapter concludes with a discussion of interrelationships between the two research methods of the study and shows how an integrated use of metaphor and narrative analyses can help address the research questions.

Chapter 5 assembles answers to the research questions of the study, summarizes the ELT strands of cultures of learning in Kazakhstan and proposes a holistic framework of concepts of EFL teachers based on the research findings and theoretical framework of the study. Chapter 6 concludes with contributions of the study and suggestions for further research.

As a researcher and a local Kazakhstani university teacher of English with an international outlook and cultural experience, I have found my own personal and professional conceptions of good EFL teachers challenged, broadened and deepened by both the research process

and outcomes. The multidimensional holistic model proposed on the evidence here has academic, professional and personal resonances which seem, as I believe, insightful, intriguing and potentially illuminating.

Chapter 2 Contextualizing the study through the selected literature review

2.1 Introduction

Defining a 'good' teacher is problematic due to theoretical and methodological challenges. What is meant by 'good', who defines or decides this and how do educational institutions assess, promote and develop 'good' teachers? What theory or combinations of theories or evidence should determine the defining parameters? Traditionally, theoretical underpinning of research on teachers has been informed by philosophical and psychological directions of educational research. Thus, several main conceptions about teachers have been aligned with the several paradigms from these feeder disciplines. However, more recently applied linguists call for more research on English teachers within their cultural contexts (Borg, 2015). It is important to examine expectations of good English teachers from the perspective of cultures of learning because concepts of a good teacher are socially and culturally constructed (Jin & Cortazzi, 1998) based on experiences and expectations of teachers and students in context.

This Chapter begins with a discussion of definitional complexities concerning the activity of teaching followed by the review of research on the topic of good teachers in general as well as good English teachers in particular. Outcomes of the empirical research review are synthesized on a theoretical level in the next section which introduces the theoretical framework of the present study. The chapter then concludes with the research questions based on the gaps identified in the literature review.

The present study can be located in the field of perceptions of good English teachers with the research focus on the participants' lived experiences about good English teachers explored through narratives of teachers' and students' personal experiences complemented with metaphor data about good English teachers. Therefore, this review

does not look at the literature on 1) national assessments based on quantitative student surveys, 2) national assessments based on course documentation, learning gains and limited (peer) observations and 3) quantitative research based on classroom observations using checklists. The focus of this study is on participants' expressed insider views in a bottom-up approach which is a criterion for selecting the reviewed literature in this chapter.

2.2 What is teaching?

Examining what teaching is before exploring ideas about good English teachers is important because as aptly asked by Fenstermacher and Richardson

> "it would be odd, would it not, to embark on a search for a superb example of a thing if we had no idea of the thing itself?" (2005: 190).

However, as the discussion below shows there are complex issues with examining what teaching is. Eisner (1994) defines teaching as "a set of acts performed by people we call teachers as they attempt to foster learning" and "a form of achievement directly related to learning" (p.159). Recognizing a seemingly obvious relationship between teaching and learning, a frequently asked question in research is whether a teacher can justifiably be considered to have taught something, if a student has not learned what the teacher had intended to be learned (Fenstermacher, 1986). In Dewey's view, learning does not take place in this case because "teaching is like selling……you can't have a sale unless someone buys …, you haven't taught unless someone has learned" (Dewey, 1910, quoted in McKeachie *el al*., 1994: 313). From the point of semantics, buying and selling are complementary, however, in teaching and learning the element of change is different. In this regard Fenstermacher (1986) believes that the relationship between teaching and learning is not causal and this relationship is ontologically dependent because learning often happens after teaching. Furthermore, there is an agreement in literature that "the

purpose of teaching is learning" and evidence from research suggests that if teaching is good enough then students show better learning gains (Stronge *et al*., 2007:168). But what is considered "good enough teaching"? This question has long puzzled educational philosophers. John Dewey (1909) and William James (1977) believe that good teaching is both an art and a science. Educational researchers argue that teaching is a science in its attempts to "establish empirically the most efficient and effective ways of attaining certain goals" (Pring, 2000:31). From this perspective, evidence-based teaching uses research outcomes to inform pedagogy. On the other hand, teaching can be viewed as an art in its approach to "question the dominance of any one view of the world" (Pring, 2000: 110). In this respect, teaching is multifaceted and, therefore, it is open to different interpretations. Arguably good teaching gives learners a sense of ways to interpret the world which is an art because of varying contextual factors, different settings and different learners. All of these variables call for teachers' artistic sensitivity and craftsmanship (Fenstermacher, 1986).

However, teaching should not be considered solely as an art or a science and there is not a single agreed paradigmatic view (Shulman, 1986) but rather teaching could be a combination of its many facets.

According to Fenstermacher & Richardson (2005) good teaching has the following components: "the logical acts of teaching" (activities such as demonstrating, explaining, and correcting), "the psychological acts of teaching" (motivating, encouraging, rewarding), and "the moral acts of teaching" (exhibiting and fostering honesty, courage, and fairness). Furthermore, there must be "willingness and effort by the learner", "a social surround supportive of teaching and learning" and "opportunity to teach and learn" (Fenstermacher & Richardson, 2005: 190). Wechsler & Shields (2008: 5) develop this viewpoint by adding that teaching occurs in a supportive environment "where teachers work as part of a professional community within a workplace that fosters continuous learning on the part of children and adults". Good teaching involves not only teachers but all the members and constituents of teaching and

learning social discourses. From this angle, teaching involves the professionalism of individual teachers, the community of learners as well as teaching colleagues, and arguably technical and administrative staff who support teaching through their institutional roles. At least for children, parents and caregivers at home are or should be a part of the learning environment supporting teaching activities.

It follows from the above discussion that teaching is not as straightforward as might be expected by outsiders. On the contrary, there are reasons to believe that teaching is a complex activity. Adding to this complexity, Labaree (2000) thinks that teaching is currently influenced by the current phenomenon of marketization in society and the following factors defining business industry as client cooperation, a compulsory clientele, emotion management, structural isolation and chronic uncertainty about the effectiveness of teaching and accountability related to targets and ever-rising standards all make teaching challenging especially in higher education as will be shown in the next section.

2.2.1 University teaching

As this study is conducted within a university setting, it is important to consider purposes of university teaching. Fundamental purposes of university teaching emphasize the importance of higher education beyond intellectual growth. As early as in 1644, the scholar and poet John Milton (1644/1951) argued that university education must be comprehensive, addressed to the physical, intellectual, aesthetic, moral, and religious faculties. Similarly, Cardinal Newman (1906:173) posits that universities should aim at 'cultivating the public mind' and promoting students' 'freedom, equitableness, calmness, moderation, and wisdom'. These seminal ideas remain significant towards the end of the 20th century despite the tensions in identifying universally accepted views about the aims of university education (Warnock, 1989). For example, Allen (1988) looked at university goals by examining several hundred UK university mission statements. The analysis suggests that besides students' cognitive development, universities aim at emotional

and moral development, aesthetic sensibility and creativity, developing practical competence and citizenship values. Clearly, such a broad view of education widely agreed, irrespective of subjects taught, requires highly professional and motivated teachers. However, the current challenges to meet these goals include assessment and accountability demand; pressures on staff for research, teaching, administration and fund raising; national policies and university autonomy; university expansion and competition, marketization and other factors.

The above, although they may seem fundamental features of university education and good teaching, have varied in different social and historical contexts and therefore they likely receive different national emphases in policy and professional practice. In the case of Kazakhstan, higher education is undergoing dramatic changes during the transition period of the country's socio-economic development (McLaughlin *et al*., 2014; Kerimkulova & Kuzhabekova, 2017): Kazakhstani higher education became a part of the Bologna Process in 2010 following the officially announced transition from former Soviet collectivist and centralist university policies to the decentralized one (Sagintayeva & Kurakbayev, 2015). Thus, in order to examine expectations about good English teachers in Kazakhstani universities awareness of contextual factors are important for a better understanding of the research participants' views.

2.3 Overview of research on good teachers

The purpose of this section is to provide a historical evolution of research on good teachers which is important for identifying gaps in the existing literature. In choosing studies for this analysis I searched for published work and doctoral research theses on characteristics/qualities of good/effective teachers but not specifically on EFL teachers because systematic research on good English teachers has emerged much more recently in comparison with longer traditions in general education (Park & Lee, 2006). This literature search was conducted electronically using databases. Thus, 107 published studies carried out between 1962 and

2018 and 21 doctoral theses conducted since 1997 have been identified as relevant and are listed in Appendices 1 and 2.

An overview of research on good teachers shows that, traditionally, teachers (and learners subsequently) seemed to be considered as some vessels to be filled with a set of technical skills. Although a more humanistic view towards teachers was called for some decades ago (Korthagen, 2004), this direction is largely missing in current research on teachers (Borg, 2013). Thus, based on the review of published and unpublished research (Appendices 1 and 2), the following points can be made in relation to future directions of research on perceptions of good teachers. There is a need to consider teaching beyond a measurable activity; rather teaching should be seen as an enactment of teachers' beliefs (Freeman, 2018; Borg, 2013). These assumptions currently guide much of the research in teacher cognition and teacher education. Teachers' mental lives should not be overlooked to address some of the challenges considered in Section 2.2. Equally important are learners' beliefs, awareness of which is likely to promote better learning (Kalaja & Barcelos, 2003). Furthermore, if teachers' and learners' views are examined in relation to broader sociocultural contexts, such a research perspective is likely to contribute to better understanding of what it means to be a good teacher in a specific context. The literature review suggests that previous studies on perceptions of good teachers have largely been conducted in Western contexts at primary and secondary levels of schooling. There are few studies on good university teachers and even fewer within EFL contexts. Furthermore, prior research is mainly about characteristics of a good teacher in general; however, it is clear that in some features at least specific disciplines likely highlight particular characteristics as seen in research on good English teachers in the next section.

2.4 Review of research on good English teachers

The preceding section outlined a historical development of research on good teachers to set a scene for the review of the studies on English

teachers in order to establish the current state of scholarship on good English teachers which is the focus of this thesis. Thus, the present section maps the current trends in research orientations on good English teachers in order to identify likely gaps in the existing literature.

As noted, there is the paucity of studies on good English teachers. Out of 107 studies on good teachers conducted since 1960s (Appendix 1) only 14 systematically examine features of good English teachers. This is partly due to the fact that empirical research on foreign language education lags behind educational research and traditionally it was viewed as an intuitive undertaking rather than one informed by rigorous approaches (Park and Lee, 2006). This gap is being addressed with an increasing current interest in various educational settings and contexts with different groups of participants, as summarized in Table 1.

Context	Sample	Most expected attributes	Source
Japan	135 university students	Technical knowledge	Hadley & Hadley, 1996
South Korea	169 high school teachers and 339 high school students	Technical knowledge	Park & Lee, 2006
Hong Kong	4 university teachers	Pedagogical skills and personal qualities	Tsui, 2009
Iran	215 secondary school teachers	Pedagogical skills	Khojastehmehr & Takrimi, 2009
Thailand	400 university students	Pedagogical skills	Wichadee, 2010
Iran	59 English language university teachers and 215 learners of English (university, high school and	Interpersonal skills and pedagogical skills	Shishavan, 2010

	language institutes)		
Iran	120 university students 16 university teachers	Pedagogical skills	Ganjabi, 2011
Turkey	998 university students	Interpersonal skills	Çelik *et al.*,2012
Turkey	365 primary, secondary school students	Pedagogical skills and interpersonal skills	Koc, 2012
Iran	100 university students, 50 language teachers and 20 university professors	Personal qualities and interpersonal skills	Nemati & Kaivanpanah, 2013
Cyprus	129 high school students	Interpersonal skills and pedagogical	Kourieos & Evripidou, 2013
Kazakhstan	105 undergraduate students	Technical knowledge and pedagogical skills	Makhanova & Cortazzi, 2013
Turkey	Six administrators of private language courses	Personal qualities and pedagogical skills	Erbay *et al.*, 2014
Iran	393 university students	Personal qualities, interpersonal skills and pedagogical skills	Cortazzi *et al.*, 2015

Table 1 **Studies on good English teachers**

As seen in Table 1, emphases in expectations of good English teachers vary from one context to another. In general, research evidence suggests that an English teacher can be characterized from different angles including personality traits, teaching methodology, classroom behaviour/management and teacher-student relationships (or

combinations of these). These features are similar to the detailed list suggested by Brown (1994) but his were not derived from empirical studies. Brown synthesizes the characteristics of good language teachers in terms of technical knowledge, pedagogical skills, interpersonal skills and personal qualities. Therefore, the findings of the studies in Table 1 are grouped according to the categories of the Brown list. As pointed out by Cortazzi *et al*. (2015) such a list of qualities of good English teachers will obviously include the mentioned features. However, as Table 1 shows, contextual or cultural features may vary and each feature may be realized in different ways culturally. Table 1 shows contextual variation but also apparently common features. However, 'personal qualities' or 'pedagogic skills' may in themselves vary greatly in expectations in different cultures because of different traditions, educational socialization and ideas about language and communication.

Thus, more research is necessary to examine how the Brown list might be different or have similarities in other contexts. Furthermore, being a good English teacher is not merely having a set of requisite knowledge and skills but "rather it involves understanding what being a good teacher really means" (Hativa *et al.,* 2001). Hence, it is important to examine teachers' and learners' beliefs about a good English teacher.

As seen in Table 1, good English teachers are investigated from two broad perspectives: 1) from those of research participants (learners, teachers, principals and parents) 2) and in relation to teachers of other subjects reviewed next.

2.4.1 Good English teachers as perceived by learners

This body of research includes views of learners in specific contexts which look at differences and commonality of learners' perceptions in different cultural contexts. As shown in 2.4, research on good English teachers is limited, so the discussion also looks at studies on good teachers in general as perceived by learners to identify some general strands of relevant research.

The paradigm shift towards social theories of learning in the field of education during the last decades has led to researchers' increasing interest in learners' views about good teachers. However, until the end of the 1990s books which explicitly focus on the learner did not mention learners' ideas about teachers (Naiman *et al.,* 1996) or did not include questions about teachers in questionnaires for learners (Cohen, 1998; Cohen & Macaro, 2007). This noticeable gap on learners' beliefs about teachers is being addressed more rigorously in recent educational research (Richter & Herrera, 2017; Cortazzi & Jin, 1996; 2006; Cortazzi *et al*., 2009; 2015; Kutnick & Jules, 1993; Littlewood, 2000; 2001; McCargar, 1993).

In relation to the above research into good English teachers, studies indicate that besides subject specific knowledge and skills, other aspects such as pedagogical knowledge, socio-affective skills, personal and interpersonal characteristics need to be considered. Thus, a good English teacher is perceived by Cypriot learners as friendly and supportive with a good command of English and the ability to conduct interesting lessons (Kourieos & Evripidou, 2013).

Learners' expectations of good English teachers can be represented within a cultural model of teachers' core characteristics as in a metaphor-based study of the good English teacher in Iran (Cortazzi *et al.,* 2015). The analyses of students' metaphors and explanations, crucially given by the learners to their own metaphors, show that dimensions which emerge from students' data could be different and include cognitive (sharing knowledge and developing students' skills in English), affective (showing care and kindness), aesthetic (showing beauty), moral and spiritual components (Cortazzi *et al*., 2015: 134). The findings suggest that good EFL teachers in Iran ideally possess all of these dimensions simultaneously and furthermore the field of EFL can be considered in more holistic terms to include these dimensions (ibid) thus providing a deeper understanding of cultures of learning with further implications for research and teaching and learning.

Despite an increasing interest in learners' beliefs about a good English teacher, learners' views in many contexts are still to be heard and there are countries which are still unexplored: Kazakhstan is among them. As the exploratory research by Makhanova & Cortazzi (2013) indicates, the Kazakhstani learning context is particularly interesting because it bears features of previous Soviet influences, besides (for many) influences from Islam and from sources within the local ethnic diversity. In the case of ELT these are variously combined with 'traditional' and contemporary ideas about the nature of language, second language learning and roles of English (and therefore how to learn).

Furthermore, it is essential to explore learners' views in relation to those of teachers and other participants in educational processes which is the theme of the next section.

2.4.2 Good English teachers as perceived by teachers and other participants in educational processes

The preceding section discussed literature devoted to learners' perceptions about good English teachers. Since the focus of the present study is both learners' and teachers' expectations of good a English teacher, this section looks at research on commonality and differences in views about good teachers from learners, teachers and other members of educational discourse.

In her survey of 457 foreign language teachers, Bell (2005: 267) has found that there is a disagreement among the participant teachers' beliefs over fundamanetal areas of FL teaching and learning. It is suggested that "a study that would compare and match teacher and student belief systems would be another step in explaining effective foreign language teaching behaviors". Similarly, Plonsky and Mills (2006: 66) argued that there is a need for exploratory studies in which teachers have opportunities to know more about their learners' perceptions of teachers and common teaching practices. However, relatively few studies explore both teachers' and learners' views about good teaching practices (Brosh, 1996; Levine, 2003; Schulz, 1996;

2001) and even fewer look at EFL teachers' and students' expectaions at the university level.

Brosh (1996) compared Israeli students' and language teachers' expectations. Through questionnaires and interviews, the study found that the following ranked perceptions are the same for both groups: 1) *adequate command of the subject matter*, 2) *the ability to transmit knowledge which is easy to understand and remember* (Brosh, 1996: 129). However, the results reveal that teachers and students may have different perceptions in relation to teaching skills and interpersonal attributes. As argued by Gibbs (1995:24) it is not surprising as learners are likely "to believe completely different things about what teachers ought to be doing". Learners' perceptions are different perhaps due to the following reasons. Firstly, learners' world experience and experience of educaional learning might not be the same as those of teachers because teachers are likely to have more advanced evidence-based and critical thinking. Secondly, teachers' perceptions could be also based on experience within different contexts while training and during post-qualifying period. Besides, teachers are informed by research about teaching, pedagogy and what makes good teachers, whereas learners are not likely to have had this experience.

Differences in teachers' and learners' views about good teachers are also demonstrated in an American study of university students' and teachers' perceptions of effective foreign language teaching (Brown, 2009). Brown made use of Bell's (2005) questionnaire and applied a 24-item Likert-scale response research instrument. The study, quantitatve in nature, revealed discrepancies between teacher and student perceptions in such FL pedagogy aspects as target language use, error correction, and group work. The students preferred a grammar-based approach while their teachers favored communicative teaching. The findings suggest that there is a need for FL teachers to seek out their learners' perspectives and to engage them in discussion about the rationale behind specific instructional strategies (Brown, 2009:46). Furthermore, it is argued that mismatches between students' and

teachers' expectations can potentially lead to the discontinuation of learning (Brown, 2009; Horwitz, 1990; Kern, 1995) implying the need for further research in this area.

Other studies compare teachers' and learners' expectations of effective Engilsh teachers in various educational settings and cultural contexts: in secondary schools in South Korea (Park & Lee, 2006) and Saudi Arabia (Badawood, 2016); in primary school in Poland (Werbinska, 2009) and in higher education in Iran (Nemati & Kaivanpanah, 2013). As most such studies, these researchers apply either a single research method (ranking scale/closed-response questionnaire) or multiple instruments and mixed methods (questionnares and interviews).

Given the demonstrated mismatches in teachers' and learners' perceptions of good English teachers, researchers suggest teachers and learners need to become more aware of each others' beliefs, thus leading to mutual benefits from articulating cultures of learning. This can be used as an analytical tool to study the perceptions about good teachers (Jin & Cortazzi, 1998; 2002; 2013). Although such research expands our understanding on how teachers' and learners' ideas about good teachers might be different, we still know very little whether teachers and learners from other contexts agree or disagree (and to what extent) on what makes good English teachers. The literature review shows that currently there are no accounts of such research on Kazakhstani teachers and students. This study intends to address this gap.

Literature which compares learners' perceptions with other members of educational discourse communities appears to be even more limited. For example, there are significant differences in how good language teachers are perceived by students and school principals in Estonia (Oder, 2008). Unsurprisingly, students perceive a good language teacher as a kind person, while principals expect good subject specialists, which reflects more professional views about teachers. Such differences in expectations among students, teachers and principals suggest that there is a need for all participants to articulate

their perceptions to each other and reflect on all of them, which in turn might help raise awareness to facilitate learning. Also of interest is what parents expect from good teachers since parents choose teachers and schools for their children based on their perceptions. Parents' views are in most cases influential in students' choice of unviersity and discipline for study, especially in those contexts where parents finance high fees. However, parents' views seem as yet virtually unexplored. In this regard Liu & Meng (2009) conducted an interesting study to compare teachers', students' and parents' expectations of good teachers in China. The research instruments included an open-ended quistionnaire to list the best thing about school administered to 480 elementary school pupils and 360 parents and interviews with 60 elementary teachers on charactersitics of the "ideal teacher". The study revealed that all the three groups of participants seem to agree that good teachers in China should be knowledgeable, patient, responsible, with flexible teaching methods. These findings are consistent with those of other studies on good teachers in China (Cortazzi & Jin, 1999; Cortazzi *et al*., 2009; Lingbiao & Watkins, 2002). Findings revealed no statistically significant differences among teachers, learners and parents on attributes of good teachers except for one characteristic "*Demonstrate the ability to communicate with students effectively*". Secondly, parents and students (but not teachers) listed students' high test scores as very important. Given the exam-driven nature of schooling in China this expectation was not surprising (Liu & Meng, 2009; Lingbiao & Watkins, 2002). Perhaps teachers did not report test scores as important as students and parents did, arguably, because teachers consider that there are other factors (students' efforts, parental support) which greatly influence students' test scores (Liu & Meng, 2009). The study also reveals challenges teachers face in Chinese and other contexts when teachers are mostly judged by students' achievement results (Korthagen, 2004).

More innovative ways of data analysis are applied in a research study which compares attitudes of Chinese kindergarten learners towards

learning English and those of their parents (Jin *et al.,* 2016). The study findings demonstrate that parents' views impact their children's perceptions. Furthermore, there could be similarities and differences between urban and rural participants. Through the combination of questionnaires, elicited metaphor analysis and narrative exploration the research shows that Chinese young learners are, "overall, active, engaging, positive and enthusiastic towards learning English" (ibid: 43). However, the metaphor and narrative data indicate that the young leaners may also experience both positive and negative feelings due to memorising English words (ibid). This study has contributed to our understanding about Chinese English learners and their parents' impact on English learning. It has shown that a combination of conventional and innovative methods including metaphor and narrative analysis enables for more depth of data.

To sum up this section, in the existing empirical literature, attempts are made to examine ideas about good English teachers from the perspectives of many stakeholders including those of teachers, students, parents and principals. However, because of the limited research, it is problematic to draw conclusive points as to how the research outcomes can facilitate better learning or teaching of English.

2.4.3 English teachers and teachers of other subjects

Another strand of literature on good English teachers looks at how English teachers might be different from teachers of other subjects. This body of literature is important to consider because as suggested by Porter & Brophy (1988) depending on the content to be delivered, teachers' thoughts and behaviour differ significantly across subject disciplines.

What makes the field of foreign language education unique from other fields is that foreign language teaching includes the presentation of input via the very subject under examination – a foreign language - unlike other subjects taught in learners' native language thus making an FL classroom qualitatively distinct (Brown, 2009: 47). Or as Hammadou & Bernhardt (1987: 302) put it "in foreign language teaching the medium

is the message”. This suggests that EFL teachers are likely to possess at least some qualities which are different from teachers of other subjects. Park & Lee (2006) argue that the uniqueness of foreign language education is in its “subject matter, pedagogical knowledge and socio-affective skills”. A similar view is supported by the research findings of Borg (2006) who studied the opinions of 200 practicing and prospective language teachers in relation to distinctive characteristics of language teachers. The findings suggest that the following features make language teachers different from teachers of other subjects: the nature of the subject, the content of teaching, the teaching methodology, teacher-learner relationships, and contrasts between native and non-native speakers as presented in the diagram below. Although his study is not specifically on EFL teachers but on language teachers in general, Borg calls for a need of defining language teachers' characteristics “with reference to specific contexts rather than globally” (2006: 3). Traditionally, EFL teaching methodology has been promoted from Western contexts as a mainstream framework which may or may not fit with non-Western EFL contexts in terms of good teacher conceptions (Floden, 2001; Le Ha, 2004). Therefore, awareness of local perceptions of teaching constitutes a rich source of data for teacher education and training programs (Borg, 2006). Therefore, it is important to study what makes EFL teachers distinct in specific contexts, especially in some unexplored contexts such as those in Kazakhstan.

The chart below summarizes Borg's (ibid) argument in relation to differences between English teachers and teachers of other subjects.

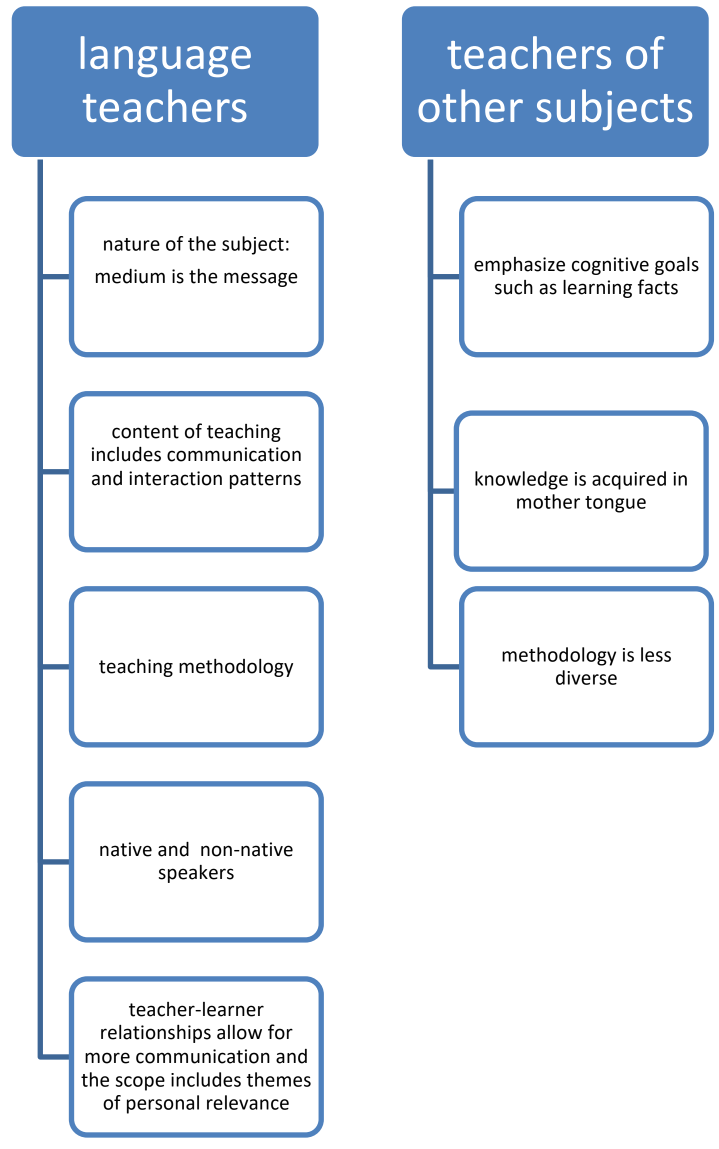


Figure 1 **Differences between language teachers and teachers of other subjects according to Borg (2006)**

As Figure 1 shows, language teachers have more characteristics compared to teachers of other subjects. Although there is not much empirical evidence to confirm this proposition, it implies not only the need for further research on EFL teachers but also to pay more attention to each aspect of language teaching to form a holistic picture of what it means to be an EFL teacher. Since English is increasingly becoming an international language, EFL teaching is arguably different in essence from teaching other subjects because it is influenced by social, political, psychological, and practical values that are beyond the

control of the teacher and language program planners (Brosh, 1996) and has wider international and intercultural features.

This section has identified some key features which make teachers of English different from teachers of other subjects. As illustrated, the nature of EFL has important implications for both teachers and learners of English.

2.5 Theoretical perspectives on good teacher research

As demonstrated in 2.3 and 2.4, there is an increasing interest in how and how well teachers should be doing their work. In this ongoing debate of what is expected from teachers, the educational research has been traditionally informed by philosophical and psychological orientations and more recently by cultural perspectives.

The discussion below largely relates to the concept of *teacher* in general education because in applied linguistics more robust consideration of what second (or foreign) language teaching entails was recognized only in the late 1990s (Woods, 1996; Freeman, 2002) compared to educational literature on teachers which dates back to 1930s (Getzels & Jackson, 1963). This could be a reason for a limited number of specific studies in applied linguistics compared to research on teachers in general.

2.5.1 Philosophical perspectives

The earlier history of philosophy arguably originated under the influence of educational questions (Dewey, 1909). Dewey suggested that philosophy might be defined as the general theory of education (Dewey, 1916/1963). Philosophically, ideas about teachers and teaching were revealed in search for answers to such questions as *How can real teachers become ideal? Who is an ideal teacher?* (Cohen, 1969; Moore, 1977; Peters, 1981) These questions have guided different philosophical orientations including the objectivist, subjectivist and reflective practitioner approaches reviewed below in relation to the topic of good teachers. Such a discussion seems important because

intellectual gains of philosophy informed educational research and, therefore, the concept of good teacher should be also considered from this angle for a deeper understanding of educational research perspectives on the concept of the teacher.

a. The Objectivist approach

In objectivist philosophy, the question of "who is an ideal teacher" should provide a clear-cut objective knowledge base (Edwards *et al*., 2005). Accordingly, "such a knowledge base would provide a firm foundation for clear-cut unconditional statements about teacher knowledge and a justification for a single and unchanging national curriculum for teacher education" (ibid. p.45). Identifying such knowledge originates with Plato who argued for an objective world with objective knowledge. However, philosophers have not succeeded to conclusively demonstrate that the knowledge-base of any field may be objective and unchanging (ibid). It seems hardly possible to provide a single unambiguous answer to a problem because epistemological relativity allows for interpretive standpoints in research (Robson, 2002).

In teacher education literature, the objectivist conception of knowledge is arguably realized in the form of a national curriculum, e.g. in the UK, which prescribes that for students (and therefore for teachers) there is a clear-cut body of knowledge whose acquisition is demonstrated through appropriate performance indicators (Edwards *et al*., 2005). The objectivist approach has been the basis for competency-based teacher education which defines a public standard for teaching as a framework for teacher education with explicit objectives and assessment criteria (van Huizen *et al*., 2005). As a result, "the focus has shifted to a technical and rationalist approach which concentrates on 'what works in the classroom" (Arthur *et al*., 2015: 8). Effective performance in the daily practice of teaching emphasizes the instrumental aspect of teaching (van Huizen *et al*., 2005). Policymakers seek to equip teachers with checklists of what to do in classrooms. As part of this, particular lessons in school are assessed by inspectors who use checklists of what they expect to see. Similarly, trainee teachers are evaluated by

their university trainers and school teacher mentors who use complex checklists. In this process of making ideal teachers (as perceived by educational authorities), teachers' thoughts are generally overlooked. In many places, teachers are not consulted at all (Asanova, 2007). Elsewhere teachers might have a role in discussing proposals and share feedback to decision-making bodies. However, the time scale for such discussion is often limited, with the effect of minimizing teachers' voices (Olsen & Sexton, 2009). Thus, evaluating teachers' performance through indicators is regarded as a top-down approach since checklists mainly derive from policymakers or evaluating assessors rather than from teachers. As a result, contextual conditions of teaching environments as well as teachers' personal interpretations are generally not considered (van Huizen *et al*., 2005).

Although the competency-based teacher education paradigm informed by the objectivist approach has been criticized because teachers were previously considered as "weak links in the educational process to be circumvented or as technicians to be programmed" (Porter & Brophy, 1987:74), such a top down view remains dominant as reflected by an influential research-based model of teacher effectiveness in the Hay McBer report to the UK Department of Education and Employment (2000). This project included a wide range of schools and teachers and the research method comprised complementary techniques (classroom observations, interviews, questionnaires and focus groups). Outcomes included a relation shown between a teacher's effectiveness and pupils' learning outcomes based on the pupils' start-of-year and end-of-year test results. Thus, in order to increase pupils' chances for higher achievements, effective teachers should have certain *professional characteristics* defined in terms of creating challenge, support and displaying confidence, trust and respect for others; *teaching skills,* and should be able to create a certain *classroom climate* (McBer, 2000). The authors argued that these three factors taken together and applied by the teacher as a framework for modelling teaching behaviour can contribute to over 30% of pupils' gains. The list suggests effective

teachers are expected to have certain attributes and this begs the question of whether a teacher who skillfully applies those skills in the classroom is a 'good' teacher.

The McBer study is an example of process-product research on teacher effectiveness "to identify teacher behaviours (processes) that correlate with student outcome measures (products)" (Evertson & Smylie, 1985: 4). Impact of teacher behaviour on student learning has been the focus of many studies (Darling-Hammond, 2000; Stronge & Tucker, 2000; Stronge *et al.,* 2011). These researchers agree that it is important to prepare good teachers, but there is no agreement on what constitutes good teachers. Furthermore, Shulman's apt remark still holds: "the effectiveness of teaching was seen as attributable to combinations of discrete and observable teaching performances per se, operating relatively independent of time and place" (Shulman, 1986: 10).

An objective knowledge base for teacher education, the need for which is argued by the objectivist philosophical research orientation, fails to fully address a multifaceted nature of teaching (Edwards *et al*., 2005). It does not take into account the insider views and experiences of teachers themselves. This does not mean that teachers should not receive professional feedback or research evidence on their work but rather the essence of what makes them good remains an ongoing exploratory process determined by various contextual features and methodological grounds.

b. The Subjectivist approach

The objectivist approach in philosophy considers knowledge in a non-personal and objective view. Contrary to this, subjectivism claims the absolute autonomy of the individual (Edwards *et al*., 2005). In education this viewpoint translates in the position that all knowledge is subjective (ibid). This extreme subjectivist conception of knowledge in teacher education is expressed in the claims that student teachers should be allowed to learn by experience in the classroom how to become a teacher (Lawlor, 1990), thus criticizing university-based teacher education. This personal orientation to teaching emphasizes that the

person of the teacher is the chief instrument and due to this "one-sided attention to the personal side" it neglects institutional and other aspects of teaching and learning environments (van Huizen *et al*., 2005: 269). Therefore, a subjectivist view of knowledge in teacher education may seem incoherent, as an extreme response to objectivism (ibid), which perhaps explains absence of empirically-derived models in teacher education based on the subjectivist approach. Hence, neither the objectivist nor subjectivist view on the concept of the teacher seems to embrace all the features defining the teaching profession.

c. Reflective practitioners

In an attempt to resolve this problem Schön (1983) rejected objective knowledge and "the chaos of subjectivism" is his claims about the *reflective practitioner*. Based on reflections from Dewey's work, Schön argues that teaching needs to be combined with "coaching in the artistry of reflection-in-action", the process where knowledge is formed, which he terms as "knowing-in-action". Although widely recognized, Schön's reflective conception of the teacher and the relationship between coach and student and essence of generating new problems from experimentation in professional problem-solving, has been criticized (Newman, 1999; Edwards *et al*., 2005). Criticism is expressed in the form that there is no need to create a new theory of knowledge on the nature of teaching, because, as Edwards *et al*. (2005) argue, there already exists a theory of knowledge that can explain "the situations of uncertainty and uniqueness (Schön, 1983: 61). Furthermore, it is not clear how knowing-in-action takes place because even beginning teachers already have "intuitive understanding of what teaching is" based on their previous experience as learners (Squirrell *et al*., 1990: 72). Besides, conceptions of the teacher can be influenced by different forms of socialization and teaching/learning contexts (Edwards *et al*., 2005). Therefore, a philosophy of contextualism emphasizes that contexts tend to identify rules underpinning teaching practice (Wittgenstein, 1953/2001) which vary depending on social contexts (Edwards *et al*., 2005). Hence, what is a good teacher in one context

may not be same in a different context. This has pedagogic implications; it also means that research on ‘good’ teachers is needed in different contexts, especially those rarely researched, such as Kazakhstan.

Thus, in philosophical theories there is no simple answer to what teaching is and there cannot be a definite unchanging checklist of what makes teaching good. Instead, conceptions of the teacher can be dynamically influenced by different forms of socialization and teaching/learning contexts.

2.5.2 Psychological perspectives

As noted above, educational research on good teachers has been theoretically informed by different disciplines. The discussion below looks at the psychological orientation in this line of inquiry. It is important to discuss these paradigms because historically the claims made based on different social science research traditions have a direct impact on conceptions of teacher-oriented research, specifically on language teacher research (Borg, 2013), and thus indirectly influenced the teaching profession (Floden, 2001).

Contemporary constructivist approaches in general education are reflected in cognitive and situative perspectives on educational research (Greeno, 1998). These approaches are different in how they consider “active engagement” and what roles a teacher should play in the classroom. Within a cognitive framework, “active engagement” means that the learners apply their existing cognitive structures to make sense of the input experienced (Floden, 2001). In contrast, in the situative approach the learner’s active engagement means a connection to an ongoing social process, such as interacting with a more knowledgeable teacher (Collins *et al*., 1989; Lave & Wenger, 1991). Therefore, teaching should create learning environments for individuals to explore within communities of learning. Thus, scholars’ views regarding teachers’ roles changed with a paradigm shift from an authoritative source of knowledge to that of a facilitator. Notably, within this psychological concept of a good teacher, teaching had been

traditionally limited to statistically measurable behaviour, thus leaving many other important factors beyond the scope of that research agenda (Freeman, 2018).

Apart from teachers' assumed roles within specific behaviour strategies, the psychological research on teaching also includes literature on teacher cognition which investigates various constructs that characterize teachers in relation to different aspects of teaching, such as literacy or grammar teaching (Borg, 2003; 2006). What teachers know, believe and think about teaching is important and has impact on learners (Borg, 2003). As Borg demonstrates, key questions in teacher cognition research include *What beliefs do teachers have? How do these beliefs develop? What is the relation of teachers' beliefs and learners*? By addressing these questions teacher cognition research concludes that teachers' beliefs are complex constructs intertwined with personal factors (Flores & Day 2006; Pajares, 1992); they are both dynamic and resistant to change (Hall, 2005) and interplay with contextual and cultural factors (Borg, 2003; Freeman, 2002). As argued by Borg (2003: 106) the study of cognition "without an awareness of the contexts in which these occur will inevitably provide partial, if not flawed, characterizations of teachers and teaching".

The importance of context is also underlined by Woods (1996) study of 8 teachers who verbalized and commented on acts of language teaching, together with interview responses. Woods argues that teachers' verbalizations about teaching are pervasively influenced by their knowledge and belief systems and that the notion of 'teacher expertise' (which is related to good teachers) is the notion that expertise is the creation of

> "substructures to achieve superordinate goals but that expertise develops within two contexts: first, that of the teacher's background; second, that of the context of a particular course and course goals. Thus, teacher evaluation should not be on the basis of evaluating behaviour but on evaluating the whole process in context " (Woods, 1996: 294-5)

Thus, contexts are central not only for investigation of how cognition might impact teaching but also to yield insights into teachers' professional development.

2.6 Theoretical perspective of this study

The purpose of this section is to provide a rationale for a theoretical framework of this study. Firstly, key points will be summarized from the review of the different theoretical directions (Sections 2.5.1-2.5.2) on good teacher research. Secondly, following the identification of philosophical and psychological threads underpinning the theoretical perspective of this study, this section discusses cultures of learning, a framework of the present study.

As considered in Sections 2.5.1-2.5.2, philosophical and psychological theories in educational research make a foundation of research on teaching and consequently on the topic of good teachers (Floden, 2001). Philosophically, the theories reflect the concept of the good teacher as an idealized view based on the principles of the relevant philosophical orientations (Section 2.5.1). Despite the differences in methodological assumptions of philosophical theories, the current thinking in this orientation calls for attention to the different contexts in which teaching takes place. However, due to a discipline specific nature of philosophical theories, scholars have not dealt with specifying what kind of contexts should be examined for a better understanding of the concept of the teacher.

Similar to philosophical theories, in psychological directions of good teacher research, contexts are emphasized as a key aspect influencing teachers' behaviour (Section 2.5.2). Furthermore, if teachers' beliefs are overlooked, it is likely to lead to a partial understanding of conceptions about good English teachers (Borg, 2013). Thus, teachers' beliefs and the role of sociocultural contexts in teachers' cognition are important aspects in psychological orientation of educational and applied linguistics research.

Based on theoretical gains of philosophical and psychological directions of research on good teachers, in the present study attempts are made to understand cultural contexts in which teaching and learning of English take place as well as teachers' and learners' beliefs in relation to their cultural contexts. Thus, this research intends to explore different perspectives of philosophical and psychological disciplines within one study by applying cultures of learning as a theoretical framework in the following way. Philosophical and psychological aspects which form the basis of ideas about good teachers in research are in fact likely to be filtered through the layer of cultural factors. As a result of cultural influences, other dimensions may have different features. This does not mean that contributions these disciplines should be abandoned in favor of a particular cultural context. Instead, prior research findings are likely to shift from prescriptions for "what *all* teachers must do to recognize teaching across a wide variety of cultural contexts" (Floden, 2001:7 emphasis in original).

As argued by Jin & Cortazzi (1998) learning is cultural and people from different cultural groups might learn in different ways due to socialization and educational experience which transmit key cultural conceptions of teaching and learning.

Traditionally, the term of culture in applied linguistics has been taken for granted or overlooked as a process of learning, rather than as a language learning target (Yuan & Xie, 2013). Theoretical underpinning for cultures of learning was provided by Jin & Cortazzi (1993; 1995; 1996) and defined as:

> socially transmitted expectations, beliefs and values about what good learning is, what constitutes a good teacher and a good student and what their roles and relationships should be; about learning and teaching styles, approaches and methods; about classroom interaction and activities; about the use of textbooks; about what constitutes good work (Cortazzi & Jin, 1995; 1996; Jin & Cortazzi, 1993; 1997).

This definition of cultures of learning highlights the importance of educational values in teaching and learning contexts. It is commonly accepted that values are culture-bound and, thus, students' and teachers' ideas about good English teachers are likely to be influenced by cultures of learning (ibid).

Thus, cultures of learning are deeply contextualized (Jin & Cortazzi, 1998; Makhanova & Cortazzi, 2013) and it is important to study various cultures of learning because such research might reveal influential features which are common elsewhere, yet possibly realized with different emphasis in different practices.

A research-based view on good English teachers from the perspective of cultures of learning addresses a criticism of a traditional view on teaching as acquiring a universal list of attributes which are independent of time and place (Shulman, 1986).

Based on the review of 128 empirical studies on good teaching with an emphasis on learning gains, Ko & Sammons (2013: 16) conclude that in different cultural contexts teachers and students may have different understandings of a good teacher. This raises questions on how far the present educational knowledge base on teaching can be generalisable in different contexts.

Cortazzi & Jin (2001; 2002) compared Chinese students' perceptions of good teachers with those from Britain, Japan, Malaysia and Turkey. Although the students in the five countries seem to share some similar beliefs, the study shows that some students have quite different – and statistically significant - emphases in their expectations of a good teacher. McCargar (1993) also found that students of Indonesian, Chinese, Korean, Japanese, Iranian, Arabic, Hispanic and Thai cultural background may not share similar expectations of teacher and student roles. However, the findings indicate that it is necessary to reassess preconceptions with which teachers and educators work and it is an overgeneralisation to refer to perceptions of the 'Asian student' who might be a representative (or not) of one culture from a diversity of

many others, since Asia as a geo-cultural region clearly embarces many quite diverse cultural communities. Jin & Cortazzi, aware of possible stereotyping, also emphasized individual variation and group diversity within cultural communities of learning, which might, nevertheless, be influenced by wider cultural beliefs and educational socialization (Yuan & Xie, 2013). Based on the evidence provided in these studies, it is possible to state that knowledge of learners' conceptions about teachers especially in international contexts can help solve issues which emerge due to mismatch of expectations. Such awareness seems especially important given the increasing number of international students at overseas universities. Thus, examining cultures of learning in different countries has important implications for increasingly internationalized higher education globally.

A few studies have used the concept of cultures of learning in relation to good English teachers. For example, a good English teacher in China is expected to teach vocabulary in a systematic and effective way to build up advanced vocabulary, whereas Western teachers are viewed by Chinese students as using 'simple' English and 'simplified vocabulary' because they are seen to give much less emphasis on the learning of new words while Chinese teachers adhere to national target lists of lexical items to be learned and tested (Jin & Cortazzi, 1998).

Cultures of learning are theoretically applied in empirical research on students' perceptions of good English teachers in Kazakhstan (Makhanova & Cortazzi, 2013). Drawing on students' essays and interviews, the study shows that cultures of learning can be influential in shaping expectations about good English teachers in Kazakhstan. Students expect a good English teacher to be highly knowledgeable. Besides deep knowledge of English, a good English teacher is also expected to guide students to become better citizens (ibid). These perceptions are likely to be shaped by cultural traditions prevalent in Kazakhstan influenced by different socio-historical factors including former Soviet and Islamic sources. Although the research by Makhanova & Cortazzi (ibid) is the first published account on good

English teachers in Kazakhstan, it remains unknown how far students' expectations are common or different from those of English teachers in Kazakhstan. Thus, the present study aims to address this gap and explore empirical data by applying the concept of cultures of learning theoretically for a better understanding of expectations about English teachers. It is fully recognized that there could be diversity within cultures of learning in Kazakhstan and there is not a deterministic relationship between national culture and attitudes of individual students and teachers (Jin & Cortazzi, 1998).

As shown above, exploring ideas about good English teachers from the point of cultures of learning enables research to ascertain how far cultural conceptions of good teachers are specific or more general. Brumfit and Mitchell aptly argue (1990:4) there is a need for many more studies "before we can even begin to produce a coherent empirically-based account of all the important factors in language teaching" because the substantial empirical base is on North America and mainland Europe which "does not enable us to answer many of the important questions" about language teaching (ibid). It is believed that the present study will address this gap of an underrepresented context in the field of applied linguistics.

In summary, this section shows that the concept of a good teacher can be investigated from different theoretical perspectives. Drawing on key contributions of philosophical and psychological orientations of educational and applied linguistics research on good English teachers, expectations about a good English teacher in Kazakhstan are examined in this study from the theoretical perspective of cultures of learning. It is important to investigate good English teachers within cultures of learning because such a theoretical framework addresses a number of gaps in theory and practice of teaching and learning English discussed in Sections 2.3-2.5. Key features of cultures of learning in Kazakhstan are introduced in the next section to contextualize the present study.

2.7 Setting of the study

This section provides a sociocultural background of this study. As argued in Section 2.6, within theoretical premises of cultures of learning underlying this research, it is important to investigate expectations of good English teachers in relation to participants' sociocultural context. Thus, here broader sociohistorical factors are first discussed for a better understanding of the country's macro-context in which English teaching and learning take place. Then, the current situation of ELT and approaches to English language teaching and learning in Kazakhstan are described as an important part constituting cultures of learning in Kazakhstan.

Kazakhstan, the size of Western Europe and the largest country in Central Asia, is a former Soviet country. The country is a home to over 100 ethnic groups with a population of about 17 million and two official languages: Kazakh and Russian, besides many minority languages.

The country was part of the USSR (Union of Soviet Socialist Republics, abbreviated to 'Soviet Union') from 1922 to 1991. Despite the dissolution of the Soviet Union, modern Kazakhstanis still seem to retain influence of the Soviet ideology. According to sociologists examining cultural values in Kazakhstan (Shaukenova, 2015), a Soviet mentality seems reflected in such collectivist attitudes as paternalism, fatalism and passivity towards changes, as found in a major nation-wide survey on current values of Kazakhstanis in 2015 (ibid). This finding seems hardly surprising given the century-long force and depth of the Soviet era rule.

Similar research on social background of young people in Kazakhstan shows that young people living in major cities of Kazakhstan tend to have 'westernized' views whereas youth from rural places are likely to have more traditional views (Teslenko, 2012). However, the research does not elaborate on what these views are and how living in a city or in a village might affect the mentality of people and their perceptions towards learning and teaching. This study intends to address this gap with a more detailed analysis. For example, any university classroom

potentially has students who come from villages and their learning beliefs might be different from those of who have grown up in urban environments. Historically, the social difference between these two groups of people in Kazakhstan sometimes differs in values, expectations etc. with further implications for teachers. For example, the national research on current values in Kazakhstan (Shaukenova, 2015) shows that people in rural places consider labor and work as a means of survival, whereas city dwellers regard labor as an opportunity for self-realization. Furthermore, people in rural places tend to accept a more patriarchal society and claim that their values are different from those in cities (ibid). This difference raises a question on the extent to which Kazakhstani students' social backgrounds might have impact on their educational expectations including learning EFL. The key features of EFL teaching and learning are discussed in the next two sections for a fuller account of cultures of learning in Kazakhstan.

2.7.1 English language teaching in Kazakhstan

Until the Soviet Union dissolved, English did not have a significant role in Central Asia (McArthur, 2003: 20). However, as the country gained its independence in the early 1990s, the importance of learning English has been widely recognized in Kazakhstan (ibid). Furthermore, according to the state policy aim to become one of the fifty most competitive countries in the world, internationalization of education is given official priority with students' good command of English seen as an important means to achieve this goal (OECD, 2007: 25). In the government education program, every citizen should speak Kazakh (the state language), Russian (the official language) and English (the major foreign language). Currently, a high level of English is a prerequisite for better career prospects and access to the world (Makhanova & Cortazzi, 2013). Kazakhstani students' competences in English are also recognized in the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development report (OECD, 2007) since increasing numbers of Kazakhstani students study in English-speaking countries on government scholarship programs. In accordance with a 2007

presidential decree, citizens should have skills to do business in English (Decree, 2007). English is now taught from the first grade of school and throughout all the levels of the educational system. Furthermore, there is an official requirement for Ph.D. candidates to publish research in international peer-reviewed journals in order to obtain doctoral degrees. However, according to the EF (Education First) English Proficiency Index report which ranks English language skills of adults in 80 countries based on the online test data from more than 1 million participants, Kazakhstan is ranked as 80th (EF, 2018). Although this index is an online survey, the results raise some questions. One issue relates to the quality and effectiveness of the policies concerning English teaching and that within educational programs perhaps something should be changed. This calls for a more detailed analysis of teaching English in Kazakhstan.

With the increasing demand for learning English, the official standards for the teachers of English are also rising (Makhanova & Cortazzi, 2013). Teachers have to regularly prove their professional competences by taking official tests required by government order. The written examination tests teachers' knowledge in the following areas: 1) legislation of the Republic of Kazakhstan, 2) professional teaching competence, 3) language competence. This test is followed by reviewing materials of teachers' work on 1) developing teaching and learning materials, 2) creating new courses/textbooks, 3) participation and organization of extracurricular activities for students, 4) students' achievement scores, 5) evaluation of demonstration classes, 6) students' feedback, with that of parents (for primary and secondary schools), 7) research activities (for university teachers) including research output and supervision of postgraduate and research students.

This official view on teachers' effectiveness deeply reflects current issues related to efficacy. Such a situation is also similar to teachers in other contexts with increasing demands placed upon teachers (Harley *et al.,* 2000). As elsewhere, including the USA (Olsen & Sexton, 2009),

Turkey (Küçükali, 2010) and Republic of South Africa (Harley *et al.,* 2000), teachers in Kazakhstan mostly do not take part in decision-making processes and are viewed as “technical implementers of centrally defined reforms” (Asanova, 2007). Teachers have to be able to teach, mark students’ work, carry out research, supervise research projects, publish and take part in conferences, organize out-of-classroom activities, and complete all the paperwork. Such a range of responsibilities seems to leave less space for actual teaching and facilitating learning. Further, it is not sufficient to draw conclusions on teaching by assessing teachers based on only one demonstration lesson when contextual factors of that particular lesson can have a disproportionately significant role. Students’ achievement scores are a measurement to judge teachers which reflects “a results-oriented assessment of teachers and – as emphasized by William Hare (1993) – the moral and personal qualities of teaches are challenged in the search for efficiency, which dominates in current educational discourses in Kazakhstan, as elsewhere” (Makhanova & Cortazzi, 2013: 181). Evidence from research shows that teachers in Kazakhstan “feel added responsibilities and high expectations” without sufficient support in the form of “adequate instructional materials, in-service training and remuneration” (Asanova, 2007: 81).

The teacher participants in the present study have shared similar views and challenges they are currently facing. Due to low salaries, most teachers have to do private tutoring after regular classes. This perceived need to teach about 30 hours a week makes it almost impossible for teachers to devote time to professional development and career prospects. For most women teachers these circumstances are further complicated by perceived social obligations which women must fulfill in a more traditional society of Kazakhstan. This gender specific expectation of teachers in Kazakhstan is also indicated in a study of 421 university teachers which concludes that among others there are also cultural and social expectations on women teachers to be “good mothers, wives, daughters, sisters” (Shakirova, 2019). Thus, teachers’

professional commitment to teach well is challenged by various societal and institutional context issues in Kazakhstan.

Broader sociocultural factors also impact students and their learning. The student interviews in the present study suggest that most students who come from rural places to study in an urban environment face social problems. These students find it difficult to secure a place in student residences because of insufficient university accommodation capacity. Their struggles to adapt to university life are further complicated by language issues: the language of schooling in rural places is Kazakh, however, in order to integrate in an urban society one needs Russian skills both in university and beyond. Most textbooks are in Russian and some students have to translate the content to be able to comprehend it. These experiences of students with rural backgrounds make it problematic for them to concentrate on their study; this also creates further challenges for teachers to help these particular students in their learning.

The above is the description of the current state of most universities in Kazakhstan based on interviews with participants from a wide range of universities distributed around the country (Appendix 6). There is no previous research on Kazakhstani teachers' and students' experiences of good teachers and how these experiences are influenced by broader sociocultural factors. This is a significant gap which needs to be filled with researched evidence in order to help advance ELT in Kazakhstan and perhaps elsewhere.

2.7.2 Approaches to English language teaching and learning in Kazakhstan

In this section the approaches to ELT and learning in Kazakhstan are described in more detail for a better understanding of cultures of learning as a theoretical framework of this study. Following Makhanova & Cortazzi (2013), it is argued that these approaches might be influenced by the former Soviet educational practices, Vygotsky's sociocultural theory, local Kazakh conceptions about learning and teaching and ideas about pedagogy and ELT outside Kazakhstan.

Thus, cultures of learning in Kazakhstan arguably consist of these four strands discussed below.

As already noted, long-standing influence of the Soviet ideology lasted from 1922-1991 and had the following impact on educational practices in Kazakhstan. Firstly, the system of pedagogy was highly authoritarian and hierarchical (Burkhalter & Shegebayev, 2012; Jones, 1994; Matyash, 1991; Fimyar & Kurakbayev, 2016). Teachers were respected and students were obedient. Teachers were expected to provide answers to questions and commonly there was a single possible answer, only the one given by the teacher. Therefore, a teacher was an authority both in and outside the classroom. Secondly, according to Webber (2000) teachers "had a very passive stance" towards creating their own materials or improving teaching techniques because everything was centrally planned and, therefore, remained unquestioned and unchallenged. There is some research evidence that these features of Soviet educational traditions constitute major expectations of learners raised in Soviet contexts (Murray, 1999).

Secondly, the Soviet education system was characterized by its collectivism-oriented ideology; for instance, the same course books and methods were used by all students at similar levels throughout the country (Olcott, 2002; Ter-Minasova, 2005). A "supervised and rule-ridden" educational philosophy was reflected in the dominance of teacher-centred instruction at all educational levels (Smith, 1976: 190; Bacon, 1980; Ter-Minasova, 2005; McCaughey, 2005; Burkhalter & Shegebayev, 2012). In teaching English, the pedagogic emphasis was on drills and "straight memory work, often unchanged for generations" and special attention was on "reading, grammar and penmanship" (Smith, 1976: 207). Although the country has reportedly changed to a new educational paradigm after the breakup of the Soviet Union, authoritarian and top-down approaches are still found in some parts of Kazakhstan (Yuzefovich, 2005; Burkhalter & Shegebayev, 2012).

However, these teacher-centred traditions existed alongside an alternative paradigm developed by Lev Vygotsky (1896-1934) in which

learners were actively engaged in their learning (Smith, 1976; Kerr, 1997). This sociocultural theory of learning was not widely accepted in Soviet circles till the 1980s because Vygotsky's work was previously viewed as "anti-Soviet" (Kerr, 1997). These ideas, in which teachers provide scaffolding for actively-participating and collaborating learners, were later disseminated and transformed in the West (e.g. Kozulin *et al.*, 2003). Later, due to changes in government policies when teachers were able to apply the concepts of sociocultural theory - the theory characterized by social interaction in language learning - found wider and active dissemination in post-Soviet countries (Kerr, 1997) and particularly in English-speaking western educational contexts, including those of second language teaching (Lantolf, 2000; Lantolf & Poehner, 2008). Interestingly, Vygotsky himself had lectured in Tashkent (adjacent to Kazakhstan) and collaborated in Central Asian research (Van der Veer & Valsiner, 1991: 242-255). In sum, the highly centralized Soviet system of education had some contradictory interactive teaching practices (Makhanova & Cortazzi, 2013).

Teaching and learning approaches to EFL in Kazakhstan reflect a significant historical impact of the Soviet traditions. Currently, there are not sufficient opportunities for learners to become responsible for their learning within "traditionally Soviet" approaches (Burkhalter & Shegebayev, 2012). This is despite the fact that communicative learner-centred approaches are an officially claimed paradigm. Nevertheless, there are some examples when teachers adopt a communicative approach and facilitate the learning process by stimulating learners' interest in English and helping learners become more self-regulated and autonomous (Mukhamedyarova & Cotter, 2005). These practices resemble Vygotsky's sociocultural concepts. In this respect it seems necessary to look into the neo-Vygotskian view – one which draws on Vygotsky's work - and its influence on language learning.

The most significant concept of sociocultural theory is mediated mind (Lantolf, 2000). Vygotsky believed that symbolic tools are used to mediate and regulate human relationships. Language is identified as

the most influential symbolic tool which humans use to establish mediated relationships with the world (ibid). Vygotsky argued that the human mind is a functional system where higher forms of mental activity are organized into a culturally shaped mind through the use of symbolic means (ibid). Higher mental forms are voluntary attention, intentional memory, planning, logical thought and problem solving, learning, and evaluation of the effectiveness of these processes (ibid: 2).

Thus, according to the neo-Vygotskian approach, human mental functioning arises as a result of participating in culturally mediated social activities. Schooling is one form of a culturally mediated activity. Research has demonstrated (Luria, 1976) that humans use categorical classification and deductive inferencing as a major mode of thinking and the human mental system is reformed as a result of schooling which is a culturally specified activity (Lantolf, 2000; Lantolf & Poehner, 2008). As argued by Lantolf (2000) learning a second language can lead to the reformation of mental systems.

Vygotsky's claim that socially and culturally constructed forms of mediation give rise to human behaviour is addressed in activity theory. Drawing on Vygotsky's original proposal of activity theory, Luria (1976) argued that the activity of the brain is a functional system formed under the control of language. Leontiev (1978) developed these ideas further suggesting that activity is not merely doing something, it is doing something that is motivated by a human need. One such culturally constructed motive would be the need to be literate (Lantolf, 2000). These motives could be realized in "specific actions that are goal oriented and carried out under particular circumstances and through appropriate mediational means" (Lantolf, 2000:8). In learning a second language these circumstances and means create sufficient opportunities for learners' autonomy and developing self-regulated behaviour as well as providing scaffolding and learning in the zone of proximal development. Another application of activity theory to classroom language teaching is that it is just as important for teachers

to focus on students’ orientation to tasks as on task outcomes (ibid: 20). Learners thus increase their autonomy through meaningful activities which are concerned with meaning rather than form.

Applications of neo-Vygotskian views to second language learning assume that learning is a social and culturally shaped process rather than an individual one. Besides, knowledge is constructed through individual internalization. A teacher’s role is seen in scaffolding learners through their dynamically extending zone of proximal development. Collaborative work is one of the key forms of mediated learning since advanced peers also extend this zone for less advanced ones.

Clearly, Vygotsky’s ideas of sociocultural theory are in line with the current learner-centred paradigm in education and communicative language learning for ELT. In Kazakhstan a gradual (albeit slow) recognition of more learner-centred approaches in ELT is also consistent with the emerging shift from transmission-based toward interpretation-based educational culture (Asanova, 2007; Wedell, 2009). Within the interpretation-based educational culture, learners are actively engaged in a collaborative environment for learning English (Mukhamedyarova & Cotter, 2005). Given the transmission nature of the authoritarian Soviet legacy, this is a challenging task for some English teachers. The content of the teacher education programs mostly emphasizes mastering the English language and understanding educational theories (Makhanova & Cortazzi, 2013). Methodology courses and actual teaching practice start late in the program and receive far fewer hours than theory (ibid).

As for local Kazakh conceptions of learning and teaching, ‘Kazakh’ “stands for pre-Soviet and post-independence developments in education, economy and society and encompasses ethnic Kazakh and national values in approaches to education and upbringing” (Fimyar, 2014: 177). Thus, this strand of culture of learning also includes Islamic conceptions of learning and teaching. Islam had been a major religion before the Soviet rule was established in Kazakhstan and was severely limited during the Soviet times (ibid). Currently, Islam in the country is

not considered as “the faith but as traditional Kazakh culture and family practice” (Olcott, 2002:209). Islamic conceptions about teaching and learning include strong beliefs about the importance of knowledge and the high status of teachers in society (Makhanova & Cortazzi, 2013).

The fourth strand of cultures of learning in Kazakhstan is, arguably, ideas about ELT and pedagogy from outside of Kazakhstan. Such an influence could be explained by current internationalization practices in Kazakhstan (Fimyar, 2014) and the nature of English as an international language in light of globalization processes worldwide (De Jong, 2018) including influential ideas, practices and materials for ELT stemming from Anglo-American sources and some EFL teacher development programs.

Figure 2 summarizes the current strands of cultures of learning, as identified here in the literature related to ELT in Kazakhstan, arguably, shaped by these broader factors.

Influence of Vygotsky's ideas and sociocultural theory:

learner-centred approaches;

encouraging learners' autonomy;

stimulating learners' interest through the zone of proximal development;

language used interactively in collaborative activities

Influence of the Soviet legacy:

teacher-centred approaches;

rote learning;

memorization;

knowledge transmission from authoritative sources with some skills

Influence of local Kazakh conceptions about teaching and learning:

high status of knowledge and scholarship, wisdom and moral behavior;

respect for teachers;

Islamic conceptions about teaching and learning: reading, reciting, memorization perhaps with later understanding

Influence of ideas about pedagogy and ELT from outside Kazakhstan:

emphasis on meaning and use, participation in active pair and group activities, personal engagement;

post-communicative contexts: role of grammar and language testing and assessment, uses of 'authentic' materials and contexts of use, varieties of English globally, 'target countries', 'first' home cultures, global uses of English as mediation;

intercultural communication in diverse contexts

ELT strands of cultures of learning Kazkahstan

Figure 2 ELT approaches in Kazakhstan (developed from Makhanova & Cortazzi, 2013:186)

This section has identified and discussed the key four strands which are likely to influence the ELT approaches in Kazakhstan. Two paradigms (in Figure 2) are opposed in how they view language and instruction. Historically, teachers favored a structural and teacher-centred approach; but the impact of Vygotsky's concepts, sociocultural theory of learning later emerged and coexisted alongside a more traditional framework (Makhanova & Cortazzi, 2013). Added to these influences are Kazakh conceptions of learning and teaching. Interestingly, these are complemented with ideas about ELT and pedagogy from outside Kazakhstan. Thus, Kazakhstani teachers' and students' expectations about good teachers are likely to be influenced by the mixture of the above-mentioned educational practices and other socio-cultural factors which potentially form dynamic cultures of learning in Kazakhstan.

2.8 Research questions

The literature review identifies a need for further empirical research on good English teachers in several directions. As argued above, the concept of a good English teacher can be examined from different perspectives including psychological, philosophical and cultural perspectives. The focus of the present study is to investigate how cultures of learning relate to the concept of a good English teacher in Kazakhstan with a major focus on university teachers. Thus, under a general guiding question of "*What are Kazakhstani teachers' and students' expectations of good English teachers*?" the following are the research questions of the study:

The first research question:

What are key features of good English teachers' attributes expected by Kazakhstani teachers of English?

In order to answer this question, it is necessary to investigate likely sociocultural aspects of these features which leads to a further sub-question:

In what ways do teachers' expectations of good English teachers relate to cultures of learning in Kazakhstan?

As the general purpose of the study is to explore both teachers' and students' views, the next complementary research question is:

The second research question:

What are key features of good English teachers' attributes expected by Kazakhstani students of non-English majors?

In order to find out the likely sociocultural aspects of these features a further sub-question is:

In what ways do students' expectations of good English teachers relate to cultures of learning in Kazakhstan?

The above two main research questions are formulated based on the theoretical framework of the study discussed in 2.6 in order to address the gaps identified as a result of the empirical literature review outlined in 2.3 and 2.4. Thus, the research questions of the study are theoretically connected and aligned to explore teachers' and students' expectations of good English teachers in Kazakhstan, mainly at university level.

2.9 Summary

The literature review shows that there is no agreement in recent research on what makes good teachers, yet apparently there is scarce empirical research on good English teachers. Good English teachers can be identified in terms of personal qualities, pedagogical skills and other qualifying attributes discussed above. Although some empirical studies have added to our knowledge of good teachers, many studies focus on policy and school improvement and drawing up lists of effective teachers' characteristics. Most of these lists are seen as a measurement instrument in terms of strategies and techniques for teachers to follow and thereby to be assessed. Hence, demands for accountability create tension among teachers. The literature review has

also revealed that most research is carried out with little or no emphasis on improving teaching as such.

Theoretically, research on good teachers can have different perspectives including philosophical, psychological and cultural perspectives. Examining perceptions from the perspective of cultures of learning is important for the reasons outlined above. As this literature review shows, research is needed to explore socio-cultural roots of educational beliefs in various contexts. The empirical literature examined shows that there are rather few studies which examine both teachers' and learners' expectations of good English teachers worldwide, especially at university level, and moreover this area is not yet explored in Kazakhstan.

The present study aims to address the identified gap by exploring university students' and teachers' perceptions of good English teachers in Kazakhstan. It is important to fill this gap because teachers and students may have similar or different beliefs about good English teachers (compared between them and compared with those in other ELT contexts around the world), and the intersection of these two sets of notions has implications for language learning and educational progress as informed by prior research (Brown, 2009; Kern, 1995). Furthermore, the study of particular cultural contexts might offer insights into a wider range of cultures of learning because such research raises awareness of significant features which could be common elsewhere (Makhanova & Cortazzi, 2013). Thus, the present research integrates the key theoretical contributions of educational and applied linguistic research to address the identified gaps in the existing literature on perceptions of good English teachers as perceived by teachers and students in the unexplored sociocultural context of Kazakhstan. The next Chapter reviews the methods used in research on good English teachers; particularly it refers to relevant literature regarding narrative and metaphor analyses.

Chapter 3 Research Methodology

3.1 Introduction

Chapter 2 identified some gaps in current research on good English teachers. Firstly, there are very few studies which examine expectations about good English teachers in relation to students' and teachers' cultures of learning. Secondly, previous studies in this area have not applied, so far, an integrated use of more innovative metaphor and narrative analyses to investigate perceptions of good English teachers. In addition, there is little published evidence on expectations about good English teachers in Kazakhstan.

These gaps raise questions for further empirical research on expectations of good English teachers in Kazakhstan (Section 2.8). This Chapter starts with considering research methods applied in previous research on good teachers including relevant published and doctoral research. Such a review of methodology enables identification of strong and weaker features of prior research. Then, the methodology to be employed in this study is presented followed by the discussion of research methods and data collection procedures of this study.

3.2 Review of research methods in published studies and doctoral theses on good teachers

In order to set a rationale for the research methods used in this study, it is necessary to investigate how other scholars researched the topic of good teachers. Some results of this analysis have been discussed (Section 2.3) to establish boundaries of relevance for this literature review. For the purpose of this section the tables presented (Appendices 1 and 2) are considered to evaluate methodological choices of studies on good teachers with a further identification of gaps in the current research. As outlined in 2.3, the literature search identified 107 published studies carried out between 1962 and 2018 and 21 doctoral theses conducted since 1997 on

characteristics/qualities of good/effective teachers. Appendices 1 and 2 list these studies with research instrument(s) employed and contexts, for which the following observations are made from the perspective of the methods used.

The existing studies on perceptions of good teachers apply both a single research method and multiple methods for data collection (Appendices 1 and 2). There is a tendency to use closed Likert-scale questionnaires in research with larger numbers of participants. Perhaps this methodological choice might explain that largely the research findings drawn on closed item questionnaires seem to derive a list of rather obvious results, thus limiting the depth of the examination (Dörnyei, 2007). For example, Park & Lee (2006) look at 169 English teachers' and 339 students' perceptions of good English teachers in Korea through a Likert-scale questionnaire. Because the questionnaire items have been developed by the researchers, the participants' ideas beyond the predefined list of the characteristics seem overlooked. Furthermore, the research design with a single research instrument raises questions on reliability and validity of data (Dörnyei 2007; Robson & McCartan, 2016). Interestingly, of the 107 published studies more than a half of the studies (57 reports) apply closed questionnaires with further quantitative analyses of the results. In other studies in which the questionnaire data are complemented with interviews, these are usually only a few follow-up interviews. The study by Brosh (1996) examined 406 students' and 200 teachers' perceptions of a good foreign language teacher in Israel. It remains unknown how many interviews were conducted and what specific analytical procedures were applied to the quantitative and qualitative data. These commonplace methods have established advantages but they rarely attempt to get insider views or to analyze participants' actual experiences of good teachers; these seem serious limitations, so complementary methods are, arguably, required.

Scholarly attempts to integrate traditional quantitative and more innovative qualitative research methods including metaphor (Cortazzi *et*

al., 2015) and narrative analyses (Jin &Cortazzi, 1998; Jin *et al.,* 2016) have shown possibilities of such a methodological approach to explore differences in how participants from different cultural backgrounds perceive a good teacher. The research findings of these studies are drawn from analyzing data elicited from the participants through narratives and metaphors: this enables ascertaining teachers' and students' own interpretations and experiences of the phenomena under investigation. Interpreting research findings based on the participants' own explanations addresses the criticism towards validity and reliability of some published studies on teachers' perceptions because the participants and researchers tend to interpret the same teacher qualities in different ways (Ko & Sammons, 2013). Therefore, different research methods may give different views of teaching and learning (Jin & Cortazzi, 2011). All this suggests that a variety of complementary research methods is necessary to gain a fuller picture of EFL teaching and learning (ibid). Furthermore, existing empirical research findings largely fail to go beyond the list of teaching strategies and behaviour (Ko & Sammons, 2013) which suggests that other potentially important aspects constituting EFL seem overlooked. Thus, there is a need to broaden a common methodological base to examine perceptions of good English teachers. Both teachers' and students' lived experiences about good English teachers have hardly been explored so far. Moreover, there are very few studies, published so far, which apply both narrative and metaphor analyses to investigate views about good English teachers (Cortazzi & Jin, 2019). The paradigm and methodological approach behind the use of narrative and metaphor analyses are discussed next.

3.3 Paradigm and methodological approach of the study

This section establishes the rationale behind the use of the methodology in this study. Based on the research questions, this study is constructivist and exploratory. Thus, the discussion starts with the key features of constructivism followed by the review of relevant

quantitative and qualitative approaches in research. Reasons for choosing a mixed methods design are then discussed.

3.3.1 Constructivism

This exploratory research is based on the constructivist approach with an interpretivist view to examine students' and teachers' expectations of good English teachers. Constructivism emphasizes the importance of specific linguistic, social and historical contexts in which individuals construct or interpret the social world (Schwandt, 1997: 19). Within an interpretivist view, a particular social action such as English teaching and learning can be understood if meanings constituting that action are captured (Schwandt, 2003). Hence, the research methods of narrative analysis and elicited metaphor analysis are employed to grasp what it means to be a good English teacher "in terms of the system of meanings to which this social action belongs" (Schwandt, 1997:293). Research participants' narrative evaluations and metaphors enable to capture insider interpretations about good English teachers as perspectives which are nevertheless real and constitute forms of English teaching and learning as social action (Schwandt, 1997). Narrative and metaphor data are used to understand and interpret social and cultural practices regarding good English teachers from the participants' viewpoints with an emphasis on analysing the meanings students and teachers give to their own and others' teaching and learning experiences (Cortazzi & Jin, 2019). Arguably, conceptions of good English teachers are socially constructed through interaction, social experience, convention, culture and language (Cortazzi & Jin, 1999).

This importance of social meanings and interpretations in constructivism resonates with theoretical tenets of sociocultural approaches to learning (Lantolf *et al.*, 2015) which emphasize culture and context. The social engagement is the key point of the theory for cognitive, social and moral development. In terms of conducting narrative research, this social engagement includes the importance of different relationships between the researcher and the research process

often recognized as part of this social context. Positivist and much quantitative research about teachers largely set aside such relationships in the research process, whereas in qualitative approaches, notably in teacher research, action research and narrative inquiry (Kim, 2016; Clandinin, 2013; Clandinin *et al*., 2018) these are recognized as crucial and complex with different roles (e.g. researcher/ teachers / learners / stakeholders).

3.3.2 Quantitative and qualitative approaches

The purpose of this section is to give a brief review of quantitative and qualitative approaches in research because the present study employs both approaches in a mixed methods research design to explore teaches' and students' expectations of good English teachers.

Quantitative and qualitative orientations have been commonly seen as opposed to each other. Quantitative research was criticized as incommensurable with phenomenological studies while qualitative studies were downgraded against more respectful quantitative methods (Miles & Huberman, 1994). The opposition of qualitative and quantitative approaches seems unproductive because there are merits of both approaches to assess things (Berg, 2004; Miles & Huberman, 1994; Choi & Richards, 2016). Miles & Huberman (1994: 40) aptly summarized that we need both numbers and words "if we are to understand the world". The problem is not which approach is more preferred but rather whether there is "an "analytic" approach to assess controllable variables, or a "systemic" approach to understanding the interaction of variables in a complex environment" (Salomon, 1991). More recently, applied linguists have concluded that "the war" between the quantitative and qualitative approaches ended (Choi & Richards, 2016:3) and the relevance of such a timely outcome for language teaching and learning research is emphasized (Riazi & Candlin, 2014). Miles and Huberman (ibid:41) among others (Dörnyei, 2007; Paltridge & Phakiti, 2015; Ivankova & Greer, 2015) take a further perspective on linking qualitative and quantitative data and suggest that the question is whether these two sorts of data should be linked, how this will be done

and for what purposes. These questions in relation to the present study on expectations of good English teachers are explored in the next section.

3.3.3 Mixed methods research

Quantitative and qualitative approaches can be linked depending on the research design (3.3.2). One of the possible ways of linking is mixed methods research design (Miles & Huberman, 1994). For example, a quantitative method can be used to detect socially constructed patterns in qualitative data (Berg, 2004). Johnson & Onwuegbuzie (2004: 15) suggest that the aim of using both methods is not to replace either of these but rather to minimize weaknesses of both and strengthen the quality of a research design. Dörnyei (2007:163) points out how in applied linguistics 'mixed methods' have become widely accepted as a way of combining the two approaches.

Based on the above, the present study employs both quantitative and qualitative approaches in a mixed methods research design. According to Denscombe (2010) applying both methods is likely to give a more complete overview of the data because each approach views the research process from a different angle providing thus a more holistic picture. This study uses narrative and metaphor analyses: either can be employed quantitatively or qualitatively, or both (Jin *et al*., 2016; Cortazzi *et al*., 2009). Here, the emphasis is on the mix of both exploring qualitatively oriented meanings held by participants and, to a lesser extent, some quantitative features are also brought out in the analysis. A quantitative approach is used to identify patterns in the participants' responses based on frequency of narrative and metaphor features which are mainly analyzed qualitatively. In a similar study on English language teachers' beliefs, Zheng (2015:35) use the occurrence of researched constructs "as quantitative evidence for the research conclusions". Such a mixed methodological approach is common in applied linguistics (Dörnyei, 2007; Paltridge & Phakiti, 2015) but here the innovation is to combine narrative and metaphor analyses, neither of which is common in applied linguistics. Thus, in this study the

narrative and metaphor methods will be integrated: the outcome of one method leads into another method, thus these methods work in an integrated sequence as demonstrated in Figure 3.

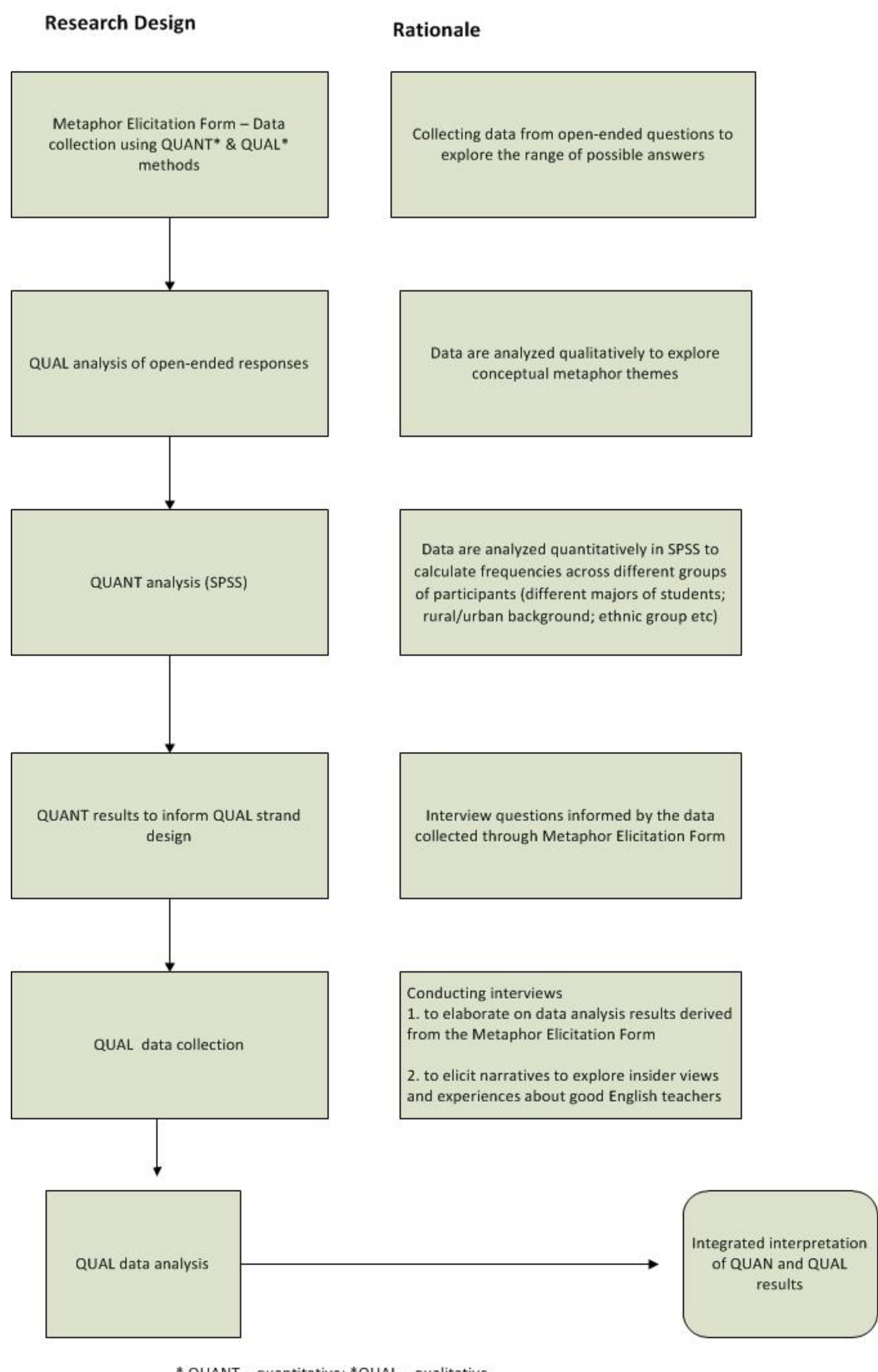


***Figure 3* Mixed methods research design of the study**

3.4 Research methods of the study

Section 3.3 has established the methodological approach of the study. Based on the review of research methods in the existing empirical literature (Section 3.2) and methodological assumptions of the study (Section 3.3), the present section provides a rationale for selecting the two research methods employed in this study: metaphor and narrative analyses.

3.4.1 Metaphor as a research method

There are different ways to examine teachers' and students' expectations. More conventional research methods to study beliefs about teaching were largely concerned with cognitive representations with predetermined assumptions (Kalaja, 1995) and involved collecting data through questionnaires or interviews with predetermined questions (Wan *et al*., 2011; Horwitz, 1985; Williams & Burden, 1999). Metaphor analysis is increasingly seen as a more innovative way which may yield different insights into students' and teachers' expectations (Jin *et al*., 2016; Cortazzi *et al.,* 2015; Wan *et al*., 2011) yet metaphor analysis remains innovative in teacher research. (For example, it is not mentioned in Borg, 2010; 2013 or Borg & Sanchez, 2015, though a wide range of methods are discussed). What follows is a discussion of reasons for selecting metaphor analysis as a research method here.

Metaphors are more than a characteristic of language: they are pervasive in thought and action (Lakoff & Johnson, 1980: 3). If, as is widely agreed in cognitive linguistics (Gibbs, 2008; Tay, 2014), our conceptual system is partly metaphorical in nature, then metaphors of teachers produced by teachers and students are likely to reflect their perceptions and thinking about those teachers (Cortazzi & Jin, 1999). Therefore, to elicit perceptions of good English teachers, the research participants are each asked to give three metaphors about English teachers and give their reasons (or 'entailments') for these metaphors. This approach is adopted from prior research on perceptions of good teachers (Cortazzi & Jin, 1999; 2008; 2009; 2011; 2015).

Conceptual metaphor theory (CMT) developed by Lakoff & Johnson (1980; Tay, 2014) provides theoretical underpinnings to use metaphors to examine human conceptualizations of phenomena. In CMT, metaphor is seen as a means of expressing and understanding one object (i.e., the target) in terms of another (i.e., the source) normally by transferring features from the concrete to the more abstract (Gibbs, 2008; Kramsch, 2003). As put by Wan (2012:49) "metaphor is a set of partial mappings from a generally concrete source domain onto a generally more abstract target domain, which means that the mapping involves a set of correspondences between the two domains". In EFL the concepts of teachers shown through students' metaphors reveal their perceptions; by investigating networks of these underlying concepts among groups of teachers and students a cognitive model of teachers can be drawn presenting features of different cultures of learning (Jin & Cortazzi, 2011; Cortazzi *et al*., 2009 Cortazzi *et al*., 2015). Based on students' voices such models derived from many metaphors from many participants represent learners' thinking and beliefs with further implications for teaching. This indicates the relevance of using metaphor analysis to study perceptions about teachers. Unlike other studies which are quite abstract, the way of analyzing metaphor data developed in research by Jin & Cortazzi (ibid) adheres as far as possible to participants' own ideas in their own words and in higher levels of analysis with metaphors and their entailments; the participants' voices are expressed through their own expressions rather than imposing abstract researcher-originated labels onto categories of analyzed data.

This idea that discussing metaphors can be helpful in making participants' implicit or taken-for-granted ideas more explicit; it provides insights into beliefs about teaching and learning which has resulted in an increase of studies which investigate students' and teachers' perceptions. The review of studies on good teachers shows that a body of recent research has successfully employed metaphor analysis to study perceptions of good teachers (Jin & Cortazzi, 1998; De Guerrero

& Villamil, 2002; Saban *et al.,* 2007; Nikitina & Furuoka, 2008a; 2008b; Seferoglu *et al.*, 2009; Cortazzi *et al*., 2009; Wan *et al*., 2011; Thomas & Beauchamp, 2011; Cortazzi *et al*., 2015; Jin *et al.,* 2016). Furthermore, studies demonstrate that teachers often use metaphorical language when talking normally about their profession and their beliefs (Tobin & Ulerick, 1995; De Guerrero & Villamil, 2002) and when they spontaneously narrate classroom learning events (Cortazzi, 1991: 50-55). Hence the claim that metaphor analysis is helpful "for bringing implicit assumptions to awareness, encouraging reflection, finding contradictions, and ultimately fostering change in educational beliefs and practices" (De Guerrero & Villamil, 2000:341). Thus, in current literature metaphors are assumed as having effect in raising awareness about different conceptualizations and beliefs between different groups and as a possible means of conveying beliefs in a clear way (Cameron & Low, 1999; De Guerrero & Villamil, 2002; Wan *et al.,* 2011).

In international ELT field, metaphor analysis is also used in cross-cultural research into learning and teaching (Cortazzi & Jin, 1999; Cortazzi *et al*., 2015; Berendt, 2008). Research on learners' metaphors from Japan, China, Malaysia, Lebanon and Tunisia show how conceptual patterns can shape cultures of learning in a variety of cultural contexts (ibid). Besides, metaphor analysis can elicit socio-cultural values in different languages (Hiraga, 2008). In her research Hiraga (ibid) argues that both traditional and modern conceptual patterns characterize Japanese concepts of learning. These findings are derived through the analysis of the conceptual metaphoric patterns used in the discourse of learning in the Japanese language (ibid). Through metaphor analysis implications of cultural values revealed in conceptual patterns of different languages can be made in relation to teaching and learning (Berendt, 2008). The study of Chinese, British and Malaysian students (Cortazzi & Jin, 2001; Jin & Cortazzi, 2002) shows the impact of socio-cultural values in regard to images of teachers by examining conventional metaphors used in the discourse of learning. This powerful feature of metaphor analysis to bring out the

socio-cultural values reflected in learning and teaching makes it a valuable tool to study expectations of teachers.

3.4.1.1 Identifying metaphor

Research shows that creation and meaning of any metaphor depend on different factors including the state of the respondent and the context in which metaphors are collected (Gibbs, 2011; 2013). In recent literature there are two ways to identify metaphor in written or spoken discourse: the Metaphor Identification Procedure (MIP) developed by scholars of Pragglejaz Group (Pragglejaz Group, 2007) and Metaphor Identification through Vehicle Terms (MIV) developed by Cameron (2003). Within these two approaches metaphors are considered as linguistic expressions in actual language use and it is assumed that there is a link between linguistic expressions and conceptual metaphor (Lakoff & Johnson, 1980; Gibbs, 2013; Wan, 2012).

In MIP a lexical unit can be described as metaphorical if 1) it "has one or two basic meanings, which differ markedly from the contextual sense" (Littlemore & Low, 2006: 11) and 2) "if the contextual meaning of the word can be understood in comparison with the basic meaning" (Kövecses, 2010). Although this approach offers a way to identify a metaphor, there are some issues (Wan, 2012). Firstly, the criteria for 'basic meaning' seem vague; secondly, it is not clear what constitutes the basic meaning of the word (Steen *et al*., 2010). Furthermore, it can be problematic to segment discourse into lexical units (Dorst, 2011; Krennmayr, 2011; Pragglejaz Group, 2007). These problems with identifying a metaphor are largely addressed in Cameron's MIV approach (2003). To distinguish metaphor from non-metaphor presence in real discourse, MIV sets out to identify a focus term called the 'Vehicle' (source) and analyze the link between the vehicle term and the topic (target) which is the content of the ongoing discourse (ibid). Thus, MIP examines metaphors at the word level, whereas MIV focuses on vehicle terms which may be single lexical units or phrases/clauses (ibid). Cameron points out two criteria of a linguistic metaphor: a) there should be a contrast in meanings between the vehicle unit and the topic

domain and b) there should be a connection of meaning between the vehicle and topic (2003: 60). In actual discourse events, some phrases can be distinguished by the presence of linguistic metaphor because the concrete and more literal meaning of the vehicle term is contrasted with the topic domain and the discourse context is important to make sense of the phrase (ibid).

However, the difficulty with the MIV approach is that metaphors are part of transcribed data and often a metaphor stretches across speakers and is systematic in a discourse – in elicited metaphor analysis there are no such problems (see Section 3.4.1.2). Thus, some of the considerations above apply largely to analysing interactive talk in which the researcher needs to find the metaphors in stretches of text or transcription. In practice, this may limit the numbers of participants and metaphor range and meanings for potential study. Furthermore, in the MIV approach the problem is to find a clear way of identifying what is and what is not metaphor.

In general, both approaches accept that not every example of metaphorical lexical unit is conditioned by a metaphor at the conceptual level (Cameron, 2003; Pragglejaz Group, 2007).

There are two methods to collect participants' metaphors: spontaneous and elicited (Wan *et al.,* 2011). Spontaneous metaphors are collected from statements naturally arising in written or spoken discourse (and are identified in MIP or IV above). With elicited metaphors the researcher and the elicitation format are contexts but different contexts from discussing researcher-constructed prompts (ibid). The prompt is usually a two-domain structure of a conceptual metaphor with an 'X is like Y' formulation in which X is the conceptual topic (target) and Y is the vehicle term (source) (ibid). Collecting elicited metaphors has advantages over a spontaneous metaphor approach (ibid). Firstly, with elicited metaphors there is an explicit task which asks participants to create metaphors; while collecting spontaneous metaphors requires researchers to analyze a significant quantity of naturally spoken or written discourse data to locate them which facilitates collecting a

larger, more comprehensive database on a given theme or topic. Besides, in an elicited metaphor study there is a pre-defined metaphor prompt where a researcher checks 1) if the vehicles are metaphorical and 2) excludes non-metaphorical use according to the MIV approach. This is more straightforward compared with the complexity of coding spontaneous use of metaphor in discourse data (ibid). Most studies use a 'X is like Y' prompt with a simile, for example*, writing is like*…(in Villamil & De Guerrero, 2005). In these cases of considering simile as metaphoric, MIV is more appropriate than MIP (Wan, 2012) but this depends on the prompt: there is no need for "….is like…" The MIP approach is not designed to qualify similes as metaphoric, because it distinguishes metaphorically marked words based on the indirectness of meaning (Pragglejaz Group, 2007), while the MIV approach deals with linguistic forms with the direct expression of the source domain in a metaphorical mapping, thus, a simile can viewed here as a form of metaphor (Wan, 2012).

Although collecting elicited metaphors seems less challenging than spontaneous metaphor, this should not suggest that there are not methodological issues with this technique (Wan, 2012). Some studies report problems with the metaphor elicitation task, if some respondents provide no metaphor or no entailment or leave the response unanswered (Zapata & Lacorte, 2007; Wan, 2012). However, these problems are encountered with other data collection tools too. For example, with questionnaires, some items may be left blank because participants either did not read the question or misunderstood the questionnaire task; in interviews some questions may remain unanswered or are avoided.

3.4.1.2 Elicited metaphor analysis

In general, there are two approaches to analyze both spontaneous and elicited metaphors: grouping linguistic metaphors into conceptual categories (Cameron & Low, 1999) and analysing metaphorical mappings between the source and target domain through entailments

provided by respondents (Jin & Cortazzi, 1998; 2008; Cortazzi *et al*., 2009; 2015).

Cameron & Low (1999) developed a framework for grouping linguistic metaphors into conceptual categories. Participants' metaphorical language is generalized in order to infer underlying conceptual metaphors which potentially provide some insights into respondents' thoughts and understanding of a particular topic.

The other approach focuses on examining metaphorical entailments (Jin & Cortazzi, 1998; 2008). The essence of this approach is to determine and analyze entailments provided by the participants as the reason for choosing the specific metaphor to describe the topic and study correspondences between the source and target in metaphors. Metaphorical entailments can be elicited directly from respondents by asking for them in writing or in interviews (ibid). When a phrase is marked as metaphorically used, it is related with an underlying conceptual structure that has two explicit domains of source and target (ibid), as with conceptual metaphors in Lakoff and Johnson's view (1980). There are systematic correspondences or 'mappings' between metaphoric language and underlying concepts. These underlying concepts represent beliefs - as proposed by cognitive metaphor analysis - thus showing the possibility of using metaphors as a tool to access human perceptions (ibid). In EMA, if the link to cognition is denied for some reason, there remains the fact that the participants, as a group, produce apparently common and frequent metaphoric ways of using language about teachers. If the expressions are common and are shown to share common features of foundational meanings, this itself is interesting and important socially, with at least some cognitive resonance.

The present study adopts the EMA developed by Jin & Cortazzi (2008; 2009; 2007; 2012; Cortazzi *et al.,* 2015; Jin *et al.*, 2016). This EMA method has three elements: *the target domain* (i.e. a concept, e.g. a teacher, that the researchers aim to find out from the participants); *the source domain* (i.e. a metaphor based on a concrete object or image,

which is used to explain the participant's thoughts by comparing the two; e.g. 'sunny day' in 'a teacher is a sunny day'); and *the entailment* for giving the metaphor for the abstract concept (i.e. the reasons or thoughts that the participant indicates for the comparison between the target and source domains, e.g. 'A teacher is *a sunny day* because *they brighten up our learning with warmth*). Therefore, the design for eliciting the metaphor data in the present study uses the cued form of 'A good English teacher is … because…' According to the scholars (ibid) the 'because' part is necessary from a validation point as it offers a clearer insight into how participants interpret the correspondences, in their own voices. Furthermore, even within one cultural community the same metaphor may have different meanings, therefore, it is important to ask participants for their own reasons, rather than relying on an investigator's interpretation (Cortazzi *et al.,* 2015). Even within the same group of participants, there will be a range of meanings for the 'same' metaphor among students (ibid) and in such cases this range can be ascertained by analysing collected entailments. The key point is that the researcher is not imposing meaning but is getting the participants' voices and their interpretations of meanings, largely in their own words.

Evidence from research indicates significance of using metaphor analysis to study perceptions about teachers (Jin *et al*., 2016; Cortazzi *et al.,* 2015). Furthermore, there is the participant engagement which seems qualitatively important because for many participants elicited metaphor task releases creativity and gets engagement in the task which may not happen with other more traditional questionnaire methods (Cortazzi *et al.,* 2015). A possible difficulty is that some participants may give commonplace or traditional metaphors while others generate their own independent or original metaphors. However, this can be quickly ascertained within a reasonably large group of participant responses and, crucially, in either case the entailments given are what matters for the participants' own interpretations of whatever metaphors are given.

However, there are some further caveats to consider. One issue with metaphor analysis is to verify whether participants are guided in their responses by thought patterns that can be derived from metaphorical language; furthermore, examples provided by the participants might be partially metaphorical and/or conflicting (Cameron & Low, 1999: 88). As put by Low (2015: 15) even if one says something metaphoric, it does not necessarily mean that one believes or practices what the metaphor implies (this objection might apply to questionnaire and interview responses, too). Other problems involve difficulties with only partially completing the elicitation task by participants (Wan, 2012; Wan & Low, 2015). However, if initial explanations are given before the start of the elicitation task, it is likely to facilitate the successful completion of the elicitation task by most participants (ibid). Thirdly, researchers may group linguistic metaphors into conceptual categories in different ways (Cameron & Low, 1999). Yet this is the main purpose of exploratory research: to view data in various ways in order to explore the phenomena under investigation and through analysis make higher level interpretations. Although researchers' subjectivity is seen as one criticism of interpreting metaphor data, it should be noted that the researcher declares in advance any likely influences on interpretation, for example, within their academic biography and experiences with research. Furthermore, researcher subjectivity is a standard and much considered issue in qualitative research (Robson & McCartan, 2016): the goal is to balance subjectivity leading to knowledge through research and discovery with objectivity of detachment and academic scholarly reporting. Besides, as noted by Robson & McCartan (ibid), there is recognition that all research has subjective elements, certainly in social sciences, linguistics and education.

The researcher subjectivity in metaphor data analysis in this research is arguably minimized, since the participants' words are used as far as possible not just as illustrations but for category and conceptual labels, although ultimately, as in most qualitative research, the researcher interprets the participants' interpretations, yet remains conscious that

one purpose of the study is to allow participants voices to be heard and valued. This is also the case in applying narrative analysis as a complementary method, to be discussed next.

3.4.2 Narrative analysis

In current social science research, narrative analysis is conceived within interpretive approaches (De Fina & Georgakopoulou, 2015). Due to relativity of knowledge which allows for interpretive viewpoints, construction of reality and knowledge cannot be considered out of context (Kuhn, 1962; Silverman, 2014). From this perspective, stories told through language are seen as a significant medium involved in constructing reality (Cortazzi, 1993). Therefore, the social nature of knowledge creation is important in attempts to understand reality from narrative perspectives. Based on this premise, narratives can enable capture of such social representation processes as feelings and beliefs (De Fina & Georgakopoulou, 2015; Barcelos, 2008; Cortazzi, 1993). Thus, parts of a complex nature of individual or group social phenomena may be addressed through narratives (Cortazzi, 1993). The narrator's account of personal experience is an object of study, focusing on how tellers make sense of events and construct coherence from actions in their lives (Linde, 1993). Based on these features, narrative analysis can be applied to investigating events, perceptions, beliefs, and values of teachers or learners (Cortazzi, 1991; 1993).

The 'Narrative turn' is seen in a wide range of disciplines which have realized the significance of studying narrative within their scope (De Fina & Georgakopoulou, 2015; Czarniawska, 2004; Riessman, 2008; Polkinghorne, 1988; Cortazzi, 1993; Bold, 2012; Kim, 2016). This consolidated establishment of narrative analysis is in contrast to metaphor analysis in social sciences, applied linguistics or education, where it is clearly innovative at present (Hanne & Kaal, 2019). For example, *narrative inquiry* is widely used to conduct research on non-literary autobiographical narrative in social sciences (Kim, 2016) as well *as narrative psychology* which extensively investigates life-stories elicited in research interviews (Herman, 2003; 2013; Laszlo, 2008;

Crossley, 2000). Narrative studies are also well-recognized in education (Goodson & Gill, 2011; Trahar, 2006; Andrews, Squire & Tamboukou, 2013). However, in applied linguistics and language teaching narrative research is a fairly recent scholarly direction (Barkhuizen 2013; Barkhuizen *et al.* 2014). Furthermore, a substantial body of narrative research in education (as cited above) does not use linguistic methods but tend towards thematic or content analysis. Thus, analytical frameworks are not strongly based on relationships between language expression, function and structure. These relationships can be systematically treated by applying narrative analysis which enables researchers to deal with a large mass of undifferentiated talk as structured in stories of experience (Cortazzi, 1993).

The significance of analysing narratives can be seen in the following two features. Firstly, events are organized temporally whether chronologically (Labov, 1972) or anachronically (Capps & Ochs, 2001). Secondly, in narratives events are evaluated and, thus, narrators show their stance towards recounted lived experience. Such evaluations – the tellers' own interpretations of and judgements about meanings - can be located and analyzed using established linguistic means (Labov, 1972; 2013; Cortazzi, 1991, 1993; Cortazzi & Jin, 2000). This means that narrative analysis of teachers' or learners' recounted experiences can be used to obtain their evaluations of what they are narrating about, i.e. evaluations of teaching events and teachers' experiences (Cortazzi, 1991; 1993).

In current research, the study of narratives takes the approach which seeks connections between different levels of context and different scales in order to explain how narratives are shaped by wider contextual factors in different environments including ideologies, social relations and social phenomena (De Fina & Georgakopoulou, 2015). It is argued that narratives are not only shaped by context but are also involved in providing 'fresh understandings of the world' (ibid: 3). Likewise, in this study, narratives will be analyzed to yield fresh understandings of good English teachers in Kazakhstan. For example,

Hyvärinen (2015) studied narratives not as personal accounts defined by formal characteristics but as a part of social action that exists in accordance with particular expectations in specific communities of practice. He highlights that in order to investigate narratives, it is important to consider the community of practice that produced the discourse and 'ways of speaking' of that community and other social practices of particular context (ibid).

In this research, the narratives are analyzed as 'ways of speaking' about good English teachers in Kazakhstan: analysis is focused on typical or representative ways of talking about teachers which at some level reflect ideas, ideals, values and norms of both speech and cognition (Cortazzi, 1991). In line with constructivist theory, an oral narrative elicited in a research interview setting is seen as a joint activity or social process that can be studied both as a text and as an interactive process (Cortazzi, 1993; 2001). Besides this constructivist stance, narratives are seen as a 'performance' through tone of voice, gestures, and story-telling features that put the audience (the researcher) in the picture of 'sharing this is what it is like', i.e. there may appear, during interviews, and when transcribing, performance characteristics which are additional insights and are often evaluative. Cortazzi (1991; 1993) noticed these features strongly in interviews with primary teachers, who are generally experienced story-tellers in class.

NA of oral experiences can reflect the interpretive world of the narrator but also indicate 'cultural conventions' and contexts in which narratives occur (ibid). In analysis, NA enables researchers to obtain a more holistic picture of sociocultural factors behind reported narratives and, thus, facilitates access to narrators' perceptions. In his detailed analysis of primary teachers' narratives, Cortazzi (1991; 1993) shows that teachers' thoughts, perceptions and beliefs are key aspects of teachers' culture which are important to know as a crucial factor in education. It is also demonstrated that NA can allow researchers to preserve teachers' voices and gain insights about teachers' thinking with implications for teaching and learning. Studying oral accounts of tellers' personal

experience can help examine their representations and explanations (ibid). If narratives can be defined 'as overt manifestations of the mind in action: as windows to both the content of the mind and its ongoing operations' (Chafe, 1990: 79), then analysing narratives of a specific group of tellers can open a window on their thinking (Cortazzi, 1991). Therefore, in the present study closely examining narratives as an important semiotic mode offers a valuable way to study teachers' and students' perceptions with reflections on experience.

In the field of applied linguistics, the study of teachers' narratives is increasingly being viewed as central to examine teachers' thinking and practices (Barkhuizen, 2013; Barkhuizen *et al*., 2014; Borg, 2015). In order to improve educational systems around the world and facilitate teaching and learning, it is important to understand teachers' perceptions and take them into account while implementing educational reforms (Borg, 2015). Teachers do not only technically teach the curriculum; additionally, their thoughts and beliefs have impact on what leaners learn (ibid). Based on this premise, it is crucial to learn more about teachers' views to improve education and classroom practices (Cortazzi, 1993). Hence, there is a need for further research on teachers' narratives as a way of gaining a better understanding of their beliefs, expectations and experiences. As the literature review shows, narrative analysis has not been employed so far to study teachers' and students' expectations of good English teachers in Kazakhstan.

As argued, the following are reasons for studying narratives: concern with the meaning of experience, voice, human qualities in personal or professional dimensions in educational contexts (Cortazzi, 1991; 1993; Trahar, 2006). Furthermore, narrative is seen as a mode of thinking and communication (De Fina & Georgakopoulou, 2015). As a mode for self-understanding narratives play an important role in integrating meaning-making and creating meaningful connections among characters, events and assessments (ibid).

3.4.2.a Labov's structural analysis

This model of NA starts its history from 1967 when Labov and Waletzky's influential work analyzed the structure of oral narratives of personal experience. This structure was further developed by Labov (1972, 2013) which has the following six narrative elements: *abstract* (an overview of a story), *orientation* (context and people in the story), *complication* (something dramatic has changed or happened), *resolution/result* (solution of a complication), *evaluation* (revealing feelings, attitudes or thoughts of the teller and the main point and reaction to the reportable event recounted) and *coda* (indication of an end of the story). These elements may be present in one narrative, while some elements are not obligatorily present in another narrative (Labov, 1972; 2013). Labov's structural analysis is one of the most influential models of NA which has been applied in psychology, health, sociology and communication studies. However, this model has been criticized as restricting analysis to internal structure of the narrative (De Fina & Georgakopoulou, 2011). As Riessman (2005: 4) stated 'the structural approach can decontextualize narratives by ignoring historical, interactional and institutional factors'. Another criticism is related to complexity of coding (De Fina & Georgakopoulou, ibid). Besides, there are temporality issues with the order of narrative events which in some cases may not match the original sequence of the narrated event (De Fina & Georgakopoulou, 2011). Although Labov's structural framework was criticized, its significance in identifying "affective, emotive, subjective and experiential aspects of narrative" (De Fina & Georgakopoulou, 2011: 41) which are realized through the evaluation is highlighted in current NA literature (ibid) and Labov's work (2013) is clearly not only structural but also functional and to some extent performative with attention to enacted emotions. As noted above, the evaluation signals the key point of the story and is likely to reveal the meaning of narrative (Cortazzi, 1993; Cortazzi & Jin, 2000). Thus, the analysis in this study focuses on evaluation of the narrative. In their work of 1967, Labov & Waletzky originally proposed that evaluation is an independent structural component located between the complication

and resolution. But Labov (1972, 2013) later suggested that evaluative devices can be found anywhere in a narrative. Thus, there are two equally important levels of evaluation: structural and functional, or primary and secondary structure respectively (Cortazzi & Jin, 2000). From the functional perspective, evaluation can be expressed in any level of linguistic structure realized in performance in context (phonological, lexical, syntactic, discoursal, gestural); in some narratives, combinations of these occur.

3.4.2.b Narrative analysis model employed in this study

The model of NA applied in this study is focused on evaluation of the narrative. It is important to note that for the purpose of this research the term 'narrative' used interchangeably with 'story' or 'oral account of personal experience' is a unit of elicited data treated qualitatively. Modified from methodological assumptions provided by Labov (1972; 1997; 2013) and Riessman (2008), the term refers to "a bounded stretch of talk that answers a single question" (Riessman, 2008:91) characterized by "an interrelated sequence of events which conveys point and reportability of story" (Labov, 1997:406). According to Labov (1997: 406), reportability is "the telling of at least one event that has a great effect on the needs and desires of the participants in the narrative." Based on these criteria and theoretical considerations underlying this research, other models of NA employed in the fields of education and applied linguistics (e.g. narrative inquiry; biographical, life history, sociological, political analyses; and time-space, interactive and social practice based analyses; Clandinin, 2007; De Fina & Georgakopoulou, 2015; Goodson, 2017) do not seem suitable for this study.

The present study largely adopts the framework of structural NA developed by Labov (1972; 2013) complemented with a thematic NA approach (Riessman, 2008). Such an approach is also called as 'eclectic' by De Fina & Georgakopoulou (2011).

Labov used NA to analyze informal speech style variations with some implications for teaching. However, he did not examine narratives to explore participants' cultural perceptions, nor did he analyze teachers' narratives. Based on Labov's approach, Cortazzi (1991; 1993) developed NA with a focus on evaluation to study cultural perceptions about the teaching profession, important classroom events and social phenomena in schools. Labov developed the idea of evaluation in personal accounts and of experience (Labov, 1972, 2013) but Cortazzi was the first to see how this could be used in education in a different way to what Labov was doing, that is to obtain and distil tellers' evaluations of the content of narratives, their insider evaluations of whatever teachers' narrated stories are about.

Following Cortazzi's approach, in the NA of this study, the *evaluation* is central because through such linguistic devices the narrator emphasizes the importance and focus of the narrative, the reason for sharing it, and underlying meanings (ibid). In the evaluation the narrator shares the teller's own interpretation of personal experience. This gives an analyst access to significant insider perspective. Thus, if there are several narratives on a similar topic shared by narrators of the same social group, the evaluation part of the narratives can be examined to elicit speakers' cultural perceptions on the events reported (Cortazzi, 1991, 1993; Cortazzi & Jin, 2000). Taking this approach, Cortazzi (1991) studied one thousand narratives of primary teachers in Britain and presented cultural perceptions of major aspects of their profession. Combining this with more recent narrative research (De Fina & Georgakopoulou, 2015; Holstein & Gubrium, 2012; Gubrium & Holstein, 2009; Labov, 2013; Cortazzi & Jin, 2019), the present study analyzes Kazakhstani teachers' and students' narratives collected through interviews to investigate the insiders' expectations of good English teachers. In particular, as informed by the above theoretical assumptions concerning evaluative points in narrative, the analysis of narrative data here is innovatively focused on examining evaluations found in both teachers' and students' narrative data.

Complementing the above evaluation-oriented NA with the thematic NA approach is theoretically guided by Riessman (2008). In her research of NA in psychology of divorce talk, Riessman (1993) illustrated how a structural NA combined with a thematic NA can yield general patterns thematically similar across the data sets and variations in meanings for individual participants. Recurrent themes across the sample reinforce turning points in narrative evaluated by a narrator (ibid). In this present study, thematic analysis of evaluation in narratives enabled to identify similar aspects in both students' and teachers' data (Sections 4.3 and 4.4). The NA model, therefore, largely adopts a linguistically oriented approach which aligns well with English teachers' expression and expertise. NA results are therefore likely to be most appreciated by such teachers and applied linguists, who have high awareness of language analysis.

To sum up, theoretical perspectives of applying NA as a research method are based on such characteristics of narratives as enabling access to implicit knowledge shown in recounted personal experience in narratives, enabling the researcher to make sense of participants' views of events and experiences and their role in constructing identity (Cortazzi, 1993). However, some practical disadvantages should be considered too. First, not everyone would be willing to share personal stories and some participants may find it hard to engage in the process of sharing narratives and will need encouragement or examples first (this is also the constraint with qualitative interviews in general). This may largely be overcome in face to face interviews since teachers would understand that the researcher is a teacher like them, a university teacher of English, and who therefore understands and can empathize with their working context and has likely had similar experiences herself. Second, transcription of narrative can take a considerable amount of time and, in general, quite a few narratives are needed to gain substantial insights, since the researcher would not know how typical or representative the narrated experience might be unless there is corroborating evidence through many narratives plus

evidence from a complementary method such as metaphor analysis. Nevertheless, if the task is approached professionally and if it uses helpful techniques to elicit narratives, NA may prove a valuable tool to examine individuals' expectations and experiences.

3.5 Data collection procedures

3.5.1 Research questions

This study aims to explore the following two research questions with sub-research questions:

1. What are key features of good English teachers' attributes expected by Kazakhstani teachers of English?

   1.1 In what ways do teachers' expectations of good English teachers relate to cultures of learning in Kazakhstan?

2. What are key features of good English teachers' attributes expected by Kazakhstani students of non-English majors?

   2.1 In what ways do students' expectations of good English teachers relate to cultures of learning in Kazakhstan?

3.5.2 Sampling

Based on these research questions there are two groups of participants. The students' sample includes first year undergraduate students in Kazakhstan. I was interested to know whether an urban or rural background of students might influence their views about good English teachers for the reasons given (Section 2.7), thus first year students were invited to take part in the study since they would arguably be closer to such a background than second or third year students. The students from rural places are likely to have relatively little experience of an urban environment by the time they start university studies. It is acknowledged that proportionally, for demographic reasons, the number of students from rural may not be equal to those who have grown up in cities but efforts are made to make the sample as representative as

possible. The age of the participant students is around 17-18. In accordance with the research aims, the students are on degree programs in different courses studying non-English majors: none of them specialize in English language, though all study it.

Based on the principles of using NA and EMA to examine expectations of good English teachers and prior research which employed NA and EMA, these research instruments require a large quantity of data. Thus, the minimum number of participants to complete a metaphor elicitation form is considered about 250 students and 50 teachers. According to the literature review, approximately 50% of those who completed the metaphor elicitation form are invited for further interviews. These numbers are also specified because too much data from a larger sample would be hard to manage and is seen more appropriate for larger scale survey studies (Robson & McCartan, 2016; Wan, 2012).

3.5.3 Research questions and data collection tools

The participants' expectations of good English teachers are explored through mixed methods research (Section 3.3.3). Quantitative data are collected from the metaphor form responses and through gathering the participants' biographical and background information. Qualitative data are collected from responses to the open-ended items of the metaphor form. Quantitative data from the metaphor elicitation form are analyzed using the SPSS (Statistical Package for Social Sciences) program to calculate counts/frequencies (f) and percentages (%) of the data in each category as well as to compare dominant themes across the variables. However, as emphasized by Connolly (2007), exploratory data analysis will seek meaningful patterns and ideas rather than only looking for significant differences.

Data triangulation will be used to collect data. Such a combination of several research instruments enables for a better, more complete picture of reality (Berg, 2004). Besides, triangulation helps verifying concepts under examination with different means on a common focus (ibid). Thus, the important feature of triangulation is not only to collect

different kinds of data but the way of validating findings to counteract the threats to validity of each (ibid: 5).

Figure 4 shows different layers of data collection with relevant aspects of the research questions. The method of metaphor analysis informs semi-structured interviews by eliciting and examining conceptualizations of good English teachers. Interviews are also used to elicit narratives from the participants.

In this way one method leads to another and thus enables the researcher to integrate the multiple methods of collecting participants' ideas in a systematic approach to the data collection process.

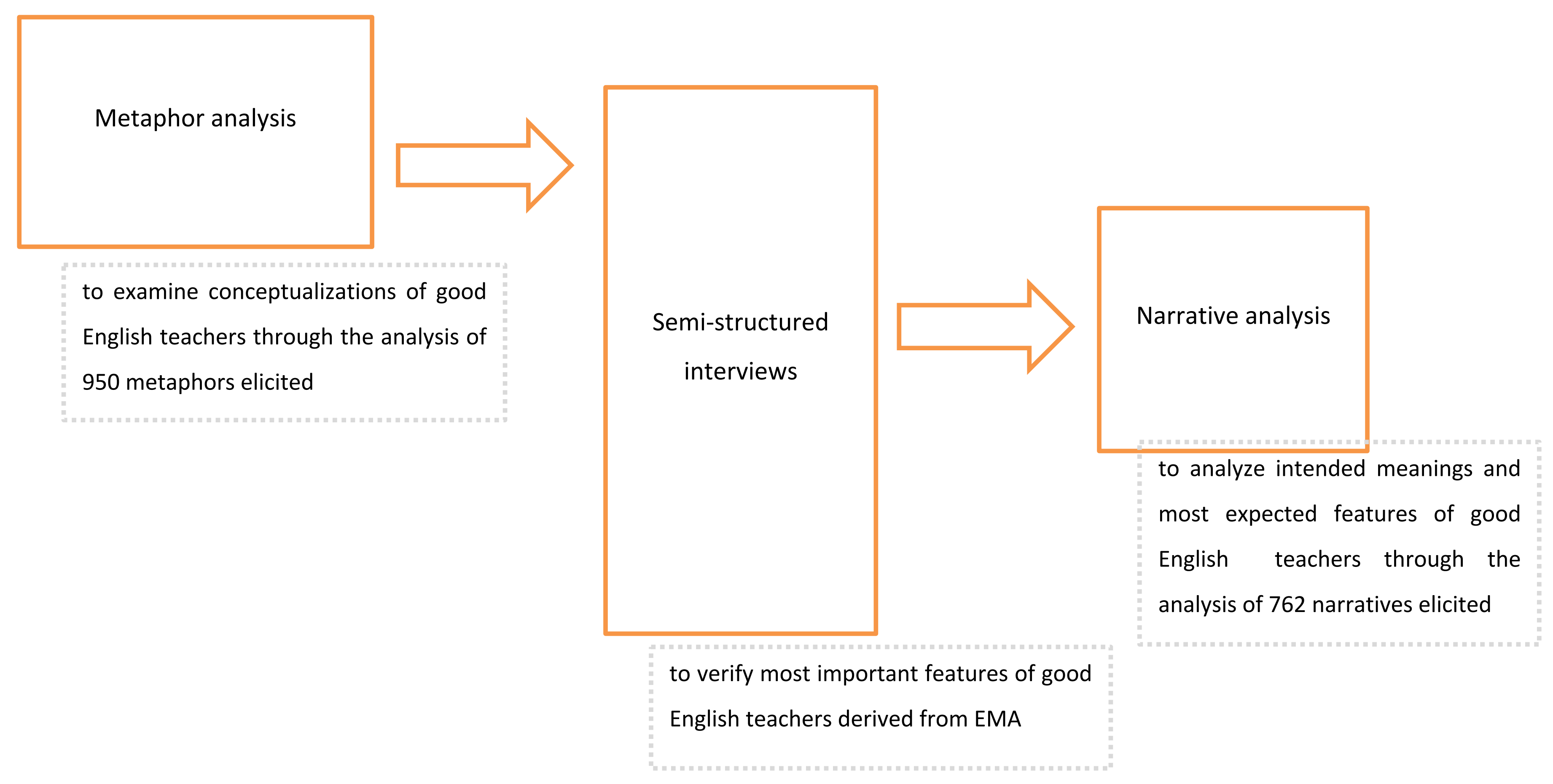


Figure 4 Research methods and corresponding aspects of research questions

3.5.3.1 Metaphor

Current research suggests that it is not unproblematic to access human perceptions (Hughes, 1994; Barcelos, 2008; Fisher, 2017). Studies which employ metaphor analysis show that this qualitative method can be an effective tool to elicit participants' views on concepts under investigation which more traditional methods might not reveal (Cortazzi *et al*., 2015; Wan & Low, 2015; Jin *et al*., 2016; Cortazzi & Jin, 2019).

The aim of the metaphor form is to investigate teachers' and students' conceptualizations of good English teachers. In EFL, concepts of teachers shown through students' metaphors reveal their perceptions and by examining networks of these underlying concepts, so a cognitive model of teachers can be drawn up presenting features of different cultures of learning (Cortazzi *et al*., 2015; Jin & Cortazzi, 2011; Cortazzi *et al*., 2009). This method will potentially show the role of good English teachers conceptualized in metaphors and also the possible influence of broader socio-cultural factors on perceptions. The form (Appendix 3) has three open-ended metaphor elicitation tasks. The use of closed-ended questionnaires is likely to limit the boundaries of expression because such instruments tend to direct the participants' choice within pre-determined options designed by the researcher. Research instruments with predetermined assumptions and predetermined questions have been criticized for "disconnecting beliefs from real social contexts" and for being incomplete reports of participants' beliefs (Wan *et al*., 2011:403). Besides metaphors, the participants are also asked to provide reasons for their metaphor, or entailments. Theoretical perspectives on the importance of studying entailments have been discussed (Section 3.4.1) not only as a validation of interpreting the correspondences but also as a tool to access expectations which might emerge from the participants' responses; these could be different from those anticipated or interpreted by an analyst but the participants' own entailments give access to *their* interpretations. After completing the first part, the participants are invited to add comments about teachers of English. This section aims at eliciting the respondents' ideas beyond the

questionnaire format thus facilitates more expression of views on the targeted concept of good English teacher. As informed by Dörnyei (2003) the metaphor elicitation form is short and takes not more than 20 minutes to complete with reasonable validity. In addition to reconstructing the participants' conceptual thoughts about good English teachers, this method will facilitate the content of interviews. The table below demonstrates links between the sections and variables of the metaphor elicitation form and research questions of this study.

Sections	Variables	Research questions
1	Metaphors and their entailments	1. What are key features of good English teachers' attributes expected by Kazakhstani teachers of English? 2. What are key features of good English teachers' attributes expected by Kazakhstani students of non-English majors?
2	Participants' responses as this section is completely open	1. What are key features of good English teachers' attributes expected by Kazakhstani teachers of English? 2. What are key features of good English teachers' attributes expected by Kazakhstani students of non-English majors?

Table 2 Sections of the metaphor elicitation form with variables and corresponding research questions

Research suggests that metaphor analysis does not only enable researchers to elicit perceptions of good teachers. Considering the EFL field through metaphors may draw valuable insights and discoveries

(Cortazzi *et al*., 2015; Jin *et al*., 2016). However, it should be pointed out that although research tools can be validated and 'improved' in their efficiency, eliciting metaphor as any other research instrument is 'always a compromise solution to solving a knowledge' and learning 'that will work for some people in some contexts but not others' (Low, 2015: 5). Secondly, the researcher's interpretations of participants' metaphoric language cannot be always assumed to be accurate in depicting the original meaning (Wan, 2012). Post-elicitation checking, or metaphor checking (Armstrong *et al*., 2011), is a useful strategy for repeated checking or confirming (disconfirming) data during the study (Low, 2015). Thus, interviews are conducted here to reduce discrepancies between the researcher's interpretation and participants' intended meaning of metaphors (Wan, 2012).

3.5.3.2 Interviews and narratives

The use of interviews has several reasons. First, the interview will be used for more detailed responses probing the meanings of the metaphors to examine the participants' perceptions of good English teachers. Secondly, interviews are a tool to elicit narratives from students and teachers with a central question "Tell me a story or event about a good English teacher". The aim of narratives is to investigate meanings of participants' lived experiences related to good English teachers and to elicit the individual's expectations of good English teachers based on these experiences. Since the interviews are semi-structured in nature, the questions vary depending on the context. The findings derived from EMA inform the content of the interview with more specific questions. A question guide with a general interview focus with corresponding research questions is presented in Table 3.

Research questions	Interview questions
1. What are key features of good English teachers' attributes expected by Kazakhstani teachers of English?	1.1.1 Can you please think about a good English teacher and try to visualize this person in a classroom? Can you recall what this teacher did? What is remarkable about her/him? Can you think of a particular incident or event that characterizes this teacher? 1.1.2 Can you describe a good English teacher? Can you elaborate on the qualities you have listed? How would you rank these attributes in order of importance? 1.1.3 What do you think most people in Kazakhstan would expect from good English teachers? 1.1.4 What do you personally expect from a good English teacher? 1.1.5 Most teachers think that a good English teacher is a gardener. What do you think in this relation?
2. What are key features of good English teachers' attributes expected by Kazakhstani students of non-English majors?	2.1.1 Can you please think about a good English teacher and try to visualize this person in a classroom? Can you recall what this teacher did? What is remarkable about her/him? Can you think of a particular incident or event that characterizes this teacher? 2.1.2 Can you describe a good English teacher? Can you elaborate on the qualities you have listed? How would you rank these attributes in order of importance? 2.1.3 What do you think most people in Kazakhstan would expect from good English teachers? 2.1.4 What do you personally expect from a good English teacher? 2.1.5 Most students think that a good English teacher is a guide. What do you think in this relation?

Table 3 Interview questions with corresponding research questions

3.5.4 Research questions, methods and data collection instruments

Table 4 shows how the research methods of the study are intended to answer the proposed research questions with corresponding sub-research questions, data collections instruments and rationale behind these decisions. It also outlines the questionnaire and interview items involved in the data collection stage.

Research questions		Research methods employed	Data collection instruments	Reason
RQ	Sub-research questions			
1. What are key features of good English teachers' attributes expected by Kazakhstani teachers of English?	1.1 In what ways do teachers' expectations of good English teachers relate to cultures of learning in Kazakhstan?	Elicited metaphor analysis	Metaphor questionnaire Sections 1 and 2	To elicit and examine participants' conceptualizations of good English teachers in relation to cultures of learning in Kazakhstan
		Semi-structured interview	Semi-structured interview	To verify the most important features of good English teachers derived from metaphor data analysis
		Narrative analysis	Interview to elicit narratives (interview questions 1.1.1-1.1.5)	To analyze the most important features of good English teachers and examine likely influence of cultures of learning on teachers' expectations of good English teachers
2.What are key features of good English teachers' attributes expected by Kazakhstani students of non-English majors?	2.1 In what ways do students' expectations of good English teachers	Elicited metaphor analysis	Metaphor questionnaire Sections 1 and 2	To elicit and examine participants' conceptualizations of good English teachers in relation to cultures of learning in Kazakhstan
		Semi-structured	Semi-structured interview	To verify the most important features of good English teachers derived from metaphor data analysis

	relate to cultures of learning in Kazakhstan?	interview		
		Narrative analysis	Interview to elicit narratives (interview questions 2.1.1-2.1.5)	To analyze the most important features of good English teachers and examine likely influence of cultures of learning on students' expectations of good English teachers

Table 4 Research questions, methods and data collection instruments

3.5.5 Ethical considerations

Research ethics are important for applied linguistics as a field because it is concerned with issues which have real-world implications (De Costa, 2015). As argued by Emanuel, Wendler & Grady (2000: 2701) research is ethical if it meets the seven ethical requirements: (1) value —knowledge must be derived from the research; (2) scientific validity— the research must be methodologically rigorous; (3) fair participant selection—scientific objectives, not vulnerability or privilege should determine the sample selection; (4) favorable risk-benefit ratio—risks must be minimized, potential benefits enhanced, and the potential benefits to individuals and knowledge gained for society must outweigh the risks; (5) independent review— unaffiliated individuals must review the research and approve, amend, or terminate it; (6) informed consent—individuals should be informed about the research and provide their voluntary consent; and (7) respect for enrolled participants — participants should have their privacy protected, the opportunity to withdraw, and their well-being monitored. Incorporating all these elements is necessary to make research ethical (ibid). Furthermore, research should be true, fair and wise (Pimple, 2002). In Pimple's view, truth is about the relationship of the research findings to the physical world (ibid): research data should be accurately collected and presented. Fairness concerns the social relationships among researchers and ensures that the research is credited in a proper way. Thirdly, research should be wise and conducted only to make the world better (ibid).

The ethical aspects of this study are guided by the above systems to ensure the research is ethical. The study was granted the ethical approval by the university ethics committee (Appendix 4). The ethical aspects of conducting research are considered in line with ethical approval procedures of the university and those of professional linguists' and educational researchers' associations (BERA, 2018; BAAL, 2006). Among the many ethical aspects, the key issues include

anonymity of the participants, informed consent, voluntary participation, data protection and confidentiality.

3.5.6 Validity and reliability

Following Cohen *et al.* (2007), several types of validity are considered.

In terms of *external validity*, it is hoped that the research findings might be interesting and relevant to scholars in education and ELT professionals since the attempt will be made in "giving as much attention as possible to making the *particular* real" (Richards, 2003:265). Developing further Richards's (ibid) idea, there is a tentative proposition that the context (*the particular*) in the present study would probably have similarities with more educational settings in Kazakhstan (*the general, locale, country*) and with perhaps other countries in the world, especially in Central Asia *(the general, regional or global)*.

Internal validity is addressed through several strategies. Firstly, internal validity is assured by the respondents' validation of the data. The interview transcripts and drafts with the interpretation of data have been sent to the students and teachers to check whether the transcripts convey what the participants meant and also to obtain their further ideas. Similarly, metaphor data analysis has also been shared with the participants. Secondly, multiple sources of data are triangulated to maximize internal validity.

Content validity is addressed by the instruments (metaphors, follow-up interviews with narratives,) which, arguably, cover the domain of expectations (Berg, 2004).

As for reliability, it refers to consistency and transparency of measures taken during the research process (Matthews & Ross, 2010).

In relation to the metaphor elicitation form, the instructions given to participants are in plain English/Russian/Kazakh. To achieve reliability of translated versions a professional translator checked translated versions from English into Russian and Kazakh. Besides, this translator checked translations of 6 interviews and 6 metaphor elicitation forms for

accuracy (Appendix 5). This measure was taken to achieve reliability of translated data.

As for consistency in conducting interviews, every interview started with a general question "Please tell me about a good English teacher that you know." The transcriptions were checked twice with each audio recording. I also kept a printed-out version of codes for both metaphor and interview data once the definitions had been established to achieve consistency through constant reference.

In addition to the above ethical considerations, specific measures were taken in relation to metaphor and narrative data analyses. For metaphor analysis, ethical issues are covered by anonymity and confidentiality which include any particular personal, individual or creative expression and any reference to identifiable people. Ethical issues which might be specific to EMA seem not to have been discussed in metaphor research literature.

For narrative analysis, because most stories are personal experiences shared in relation to the audience (researcher) scholars have attended more to developing longer term relations with participants (e.g. Clandinin, 2013; Clandinin *et al*., 2018) in collaborative styles of research with smaller numbers of participants. The researcher here recognizes this development and approached teachers as a professional colleague and students as an interested but independent teacher. Interestingly, the first published book on ethics in applied linguistic research (De Costa, 2015) does not specifically index either metaphor or narrative analyses.

3.5.7 Data collection stages and analytical procedures

3.5.7.1 Data collection stages

Following the ethical approval, a pilot study was conducted with two teachers and twelve students at a Kazakhstani university. First, the participants were invited to complete a metaphor elicitation form. I explained the task according to the instructions given on the form. All these participants volunteered to fill in the form in English. It took about

15 minutes for the participants to provide their responses and some of them even left ‘thank you’ notes for an ‘interesting task’ on the comments section. The teachers stayed longer after they had completed the form to discuss ideas prompted by the task which naturally led us to follow up on their metaphors and reasons. This positive experience made me confident that the metaphor elicitation form could be used in the main study without further changes. After the preliminary analysis of the metaphor data, I invited the participants for individual interviews. Having conducted two interview-based studies with Kazakhstani students on good English teachers before I started my Ph.D. studies, I had experience in conducting interviews. During the interviews I was able to establish rapport with participants and, overall, the pilot interviews ran smoothly and generated analyzable data. Motivated with this promising start, I circulated the invitation to participate in the project through my personal and professional networks in September 2016. Thanks to my previous professional experience with English teachers from other cities, I was able to make preliminary arrangements and distributed the invitation slips through these channels. 299 students and 43 teachers from six cities of Kazakhstan volunteered to participate in the study. These cities are located in different geographical regions of the country: North, East, South and West (Appendix 6). Following the review of personal details, it was clear that 54 students are from a first-tier university of Kazakhstan and the remaining 244 students are from second-tier universities.

According to the national ranking of Kazakhstani universities (NKAOKO, 2018) first-tier universities are those which are included in an annual ranking system based on the assessment of education quality and those universities not included in this ranking are considered as second-tier universities for the reasons of not meeting the assessment criteria.

The data collection took place from October 2016 till May 2017 in six cities of Kazakhstan (Appendix 6). The participants were first invited to complete a metaphor elicitation form in the language of their

preference. 54 students completed the form in English and the rest 244 in Russian (235) and Kazakh (9). All the teachers completed the form in English.

A preliminary analysis of the participants' responses has shown that a majority of the students' metaphors for a good English teacher is "*a good English teacher is a book who gives answers/shows the right direction*". This preliminary finding was interesting because the task was on good English teacher metaphors; however, the entailments given did not seem to include the linguistic component of learning EFL. Thus, to follow up on this preliminary finding I decided to probe further on this metaphor in the interviews. On the whole, the students' metaphor data also tend to show idealized views of good English teachers whereas the teachers' metaphors seem to be more specific to teaching EFL. Thus, based on this knowledge from the preliminary analysis of the elicited metaphors, questions related to the metaphor data were also added to the follow-up interviews.

Of the 43 teachers five chose to be interviewed in English, 2 in Kazakh and 36 in Russian. As for the students, there were 100 students volunteered to be interviewed of which 49 were in English, 46 in Russian and 5 in Kazakh.

As I am a bilingual speaker of Kazakh and Russian, I conducted and translated Kazakh and Russian interviews myself. The translated interviews were checked by a professional translator in Kazakhstan. There were no inaccuracies revealed in the translated data (the translator's statement of confirmation is given in Appendix 3).

Following a provisional analysis of the interviews, the participants were contacted for the follow-up interviews. However, this stage coincided with the examination period at universities, and only 20 teacher participants agreed to be interviewed further. Besides discussing the transcriptions of the previous interviews, 20 follow-up interviews also served as a tool for member checks. As for the students' transcriptions, they were emailed to the students. However, except for five students, the majority did not reply; since this is not directly a focus of their own study this lack of comment is not surprising, especially during exam

periods. Those five student participants confirmed the accuracy of the transcriptions. I also invited them for follow-up interviews to discuss my preliminary findings. As a result of checking provisional interpretations of data analysis with teachers and students, one of the proposed dimensions was removed from the final analysis stage.

3.5.7.2 Participants of the study

This section shows demographic details of the research participants.

Students

Field			Gender	
Sociology	Economics	International Relations	Males	Females
44	73	171	89	199

Background		University tier		Ethnic group	
Urban	Rural	U1	U2	K	Non-K
178	110	54	234	258	30

Table 5 Students' demographic information (N=288)

Teachers

Experience				Age			Gender	
1--4	5--8	9--11	12 >	25-34	35-45	46>	Males	Females
27	2	2	12	30	7	6	4	39
62,8%	4,7%	4,7%	27,9%	69,8%	16,3%	14,0%	9,3%	90,7%

Table 6 Teachers' demographic information (N=43)

The first-tier university students in this study all come from the same university in which English is a language of instruction; based on the admission requirements, these students' English proficiency level is at least IELTS 6.0. In relation to students' demographics, all students doing a degree in sociology come from rural places because of a government quota distribution.

The teacher participants work in different universities based in the six cities and all teach non-English major students. Of the six universities, the two universities are privately funded and the remaining four are state universities. In terms of the university size, there are about four thousand students enrolled in each of the private institutions and about

ten thousand students in the state institutions. Although the state universities are funded by the government, the amount seems insufficient to support teaching. The teachers in the five institutions have to bring their own laptops for listening activities in class and in some institutions the teachers use chalks and blackboards. According to the teacher participants, these contextual circumstances and lack of resources impact teaching and limit better teaching practices with further implications for learning.

In this thesis, the student participants are coded with the letter *S* followed by the reference number of this participant. Similarly, the letter *T* followed by the reference number is assigned to the teacher participants. The letter *N* refers to the corresponding number of the narrative in the narrative data set.

3.5.8 Analytical procedures

As noted in 3.5.7, non-English data from metaphor elicitation forms and interviews have been translated into English before the analysis. Some translation issues were encountered in an attempt to convey the same meaning of the cultural concepts in the translated version. For example, there is a notion of "uyat" in the Kazakhstani society which means shame and embarrassment and the connotation of this notion in the society has a strong negative collective criticism. This cultural concept was used by the teachers and students in the interviews conducted in Kazakh. Thus, where necessary an additional explanation is provided in the translated transcriptions including references to heroes from traditional folk tales. Below I describe how the data have been analyzed after the translation was completed.

The metaphor data in this study are analyzed by following specific steps adopted from the previous EMA research by Jin & Cortazzi (Jin *et al*., 2016; Cortazzi *et al.,* 2015; 2009). Thus, metaphor data are analyzed according to types of metaphors (tokens) given by the participants and corresponding entailments. The entailments are grouped using the criterion that at least two entailments should match up with a metaphor otherwise this is excluded because the linkage may then depend upon

a single metaphor or a single participant, whereas the point is to show a representation of groups of metaphors and therefore of groups of participants. Based on common entailments, linguistic metaphors are first arranged according to their common features. These common themes have been further developed into concepts (Section 4.2) which are presented in capitalized terms to show conceptual metaphors following the conceptual metaphor convention (Lakoff & Johnson, 1980). Lower case terms are examples of participants' actual linguistic expressions. Then by combining both metaphors and entailments, internal relationships are discovered (Section 4.2.5). For example, in the following expression '*a good English teacher is the sun because they give light of knowledge'*, the linguistic metaphor is classified into the conceptual metaphor is THE TEACHER IS LIGHT.

Besides the above procedures, classifying data into positive and negative metaphors was based on the analysis of entailments. For example, if the entailment contains negatively marked such as '… *kills students' desire to learn'*, the corresponding metaphor is coded as negative. Neutral metaphors were not found in this study. One can argue that '*knowing English'*, a common entailment given for some metaphors (*book; machine; foreigner*), might be categorized as neutral. However, based on the follow-up interviews and narrative data analysis, such an expectation is viewed as positive and desired by both students and teachers in this study. Thus, by triangulating research tools, the participants' intended meaning for the elicited data are verified.

As for the interviews, 43 interviews with teachers made about 30 hours of audio-recordings and 100 interviews with students are about 50 hours which were transcribed and translated, if the interview was not conducted in English. After this stage, narrative data have been selected and analyzed.

The model of NA in this study combines structural and thematic approaches to NA (3.4.2.b). Analytical steps taken in each of these strands are outlined below.

The precise procedure of structural NA is guided by Labov's earlier work (1967; 1972), informed by the wider contextual analytical questions (Cortazzi & Jin, 2012), and follows the fully commented examples of Labov's more recent commented analyses (Labov, 2013). Narrative N15 below is analyzed according to Labovian structural framework.

N15

O *Once a student came to me*

C *saying "I cannot work on this task because I have family problems and… I don't know what to do with this..."*

R *I listened to this student and offered a solution*

E *but again it is not officially expected that we should spend time on this kind of things and help with personal issues. So, I think, a teacher should be compassionate and here at our university we try to help students…*

As noted in 3.4.2, not all narratives have the 6 six structural elements which is the case in narrative N15 above. This narrative starts with orientation which is signaled by the past reference. The complication part of the narrative is expressed through giving reasons in the direct speech of the narrated character. This is then followed by the resolution part of the narrative. The evaluation part points to a narrator's vocational attitude of working beyond immediate duty to offer help in a humane way and expressed explicitly through a combination of linguistic devices, modal verb 'should' and adjective 'compassionate'.

This example of narrative N15 is not problematic to code according to Labov's structural NA. However, in the present data set, there are narratives in which the internal narrative structure parts do not have clear boundaries. As was already mentioned in 3.4.2.a, it is problematic to identify where some narratives start and end in the general interview talk. Thus, the focus of structural analysis lies in examining the

evaluation elements which can be found in any part in the structure of a narrative.

The evaluative devices in this study are analyzed based on Labov's classification (1972) which includes intensifiers, comparators, correlatives and explicatives and belong to internal devices. External devices include narrators' explanatory speech and narrating an evaluative action (Labov, 1972; Peterson & McCabe, 1983) which was found in all the narratives in this study. However, there are also linguistic resources found beyond Labov's list. Thus, following Cortazzi & Jin (2000), Labov's model was supplemented by the concept of 'lexical signaling' (Hoey, 1983) which refers to key words in context that signal evaluation. From an analytic perspective, lexical signaling can be realized by any linguistic device (Cortazzi & Jin, 2000) and narrative context plays an important role to identify lexical signaling in clause relations between structural components of narrative. The category of lexical signaling is added as an intensifier to Labov's original classification because arguably these evaluative lexical choices make the narrated event intense and stronger. Based on this principle, the following devices were also coded as intensifiers: historical present tense, usage of *would* to refer to past reiterated actions, direct and reported speech. Occurrence of these devices in interview data is also helpful in the process of identifying and assessing narratives.

As for the thematic approach to NA, the themes inductively derived from analyzing evaluation elements reveal ideas about good English teachers that can be classified into the following five dimensions: cognitive, affective, social, moral and aesthetic. Labeling data segments are based on linguistic features of evaluation elements. For example, if a narrative evaluation is expressed through the adjective "beautiful", then this item is coded as aesthetic. However, there could be some uncertainties in coding the data. For example, 'helpful' could be 'cognitive' when it comes to providing scaffolding for learning. Many students shared stories when a teacher 'was helpful' in situations beyond academic support. In such cases the decisions were made

based on the narrative context or by clarifying with a participant in a follow-up interview. As outlined above, in analysis there is emphasis on both content and form, or thematic and structural NA respectively.

Chapter 4 Findings and discussion

4.1 Introduction

This Chapter presents findings of the study and is organized by the two sources of the data: metaphors and narratives. The results are reported quantitatively to show in-depth analysis of the qualitative data illustrated with the participants' quotes. Following the presentation of the results from EMA (Section 4.2) and from NA (Sections 4.3 - 4.4), Sections 4.2.5 and 4.4.4 discuss the findings in relation to the literature.

This Chapter explores the key features of good English teachers' attributes as perceived by teachers and students. Elicited metaphor analysis reveals a wide range of good English teachers' expected roles in relation to the four major conceptual metaphors. Through narrative analysis participants' own perspectives of narrated learning and teaching experiences are teased out. Based on metaphor and narrative analyses, it is argued that the key features of good English teachers can be found along the five dimensions identified here: cognitive, affective, moral, social and aesthetic.

4.2 EMA findings overview

299 undergraduate students and 43 university teachers of English completed the metaphor elicitation form (Appendix 3). On inspection, 11 students' forms were removed from the analysis due to incomplete parts. Thus, the total number of elicited metaphors is 950; out of these, 918 metaphors are found as positive with 785 tokens given by the students and 133 from the teachers. There are 32 negative metaphors given only by the students.

Following the analytical steps outlined in Section 3.5.8, the results derived from the analysis of entailments are demonstrated in Table 7.

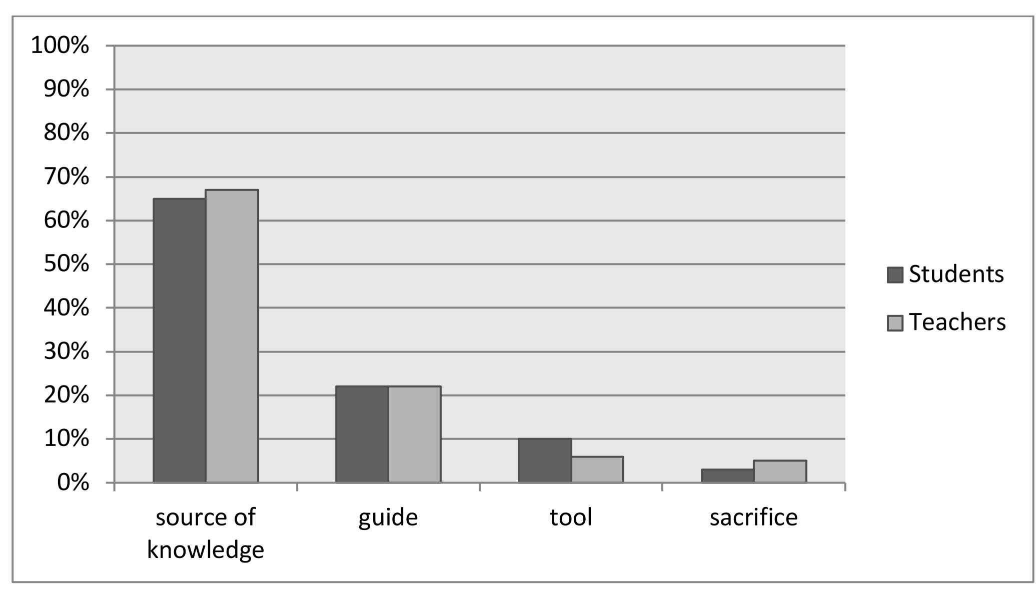


Table 7 Teachers' and students' conceptual metaphors based on analysis of entailments

The percentages in Table 7 represent the four identified major categories of conceptual metaphors among students' and teachers' data. The teachers and students seem to agree on the two most frequent conceptual categories of THE TEACHER IS A SOURCE OF KNOWLEDGE and THE TEACHER IS A GUIDE. Hence, both participant groups expect a good English teacher to be knowledgeable – a source of knowledge - which is in agreement with the findings of narrative data analysis (Sections 4.3-4.4) and in line with cultures of learning (Chapter 2).

Eleven different types of metaphors have been found as a result of analysing teachers' and students' metaphorical expressions as demonstrated in Table 8.

Superordinate category	Category examples	Students (N=785)	Teachers (N=133)
Guide	coach, mentor, sage	111	23
Occupation	architect, pilot, artist, gardener	100	60
Family member	mother, father,	91	8
Book	encyclopedia, reference book	88	0
Friend	best friend,	82	4
Navigation	map, compass	71	8
Dictionary	Google translate	68	1
Light	sun, candle	61	3
Nature	tree, water, rain	35	2
Technology	computer, memory card, Siri	27	4
Others	Sherlock Holmes, bee, diamond	51	20

Table 8 Types of students' and teachers' metaphors

It is worth noting that the meanings of the metaphors in Table 8 are only clear from the relevant entailments (Section 3.4.1); Table 8 reveals an interesting spread and overall frequencies. Examples of metaphors in each category above will be discussed in Sections 4.2.1 – 4.2.2. Examining different types of metaphorical expressions produced by students and teachers yielded differences between these two groups as illustrated in Table 8. Although, the two groups of participants differ in their number and do not seem comparable quantitatively, proportionally these findings may offer additional insights into differences between students' and teachers' conceptions of English teacher. Evidence in Table 8 suggests that almost half of the teachers view an English teacher in terms of other occupations (Section 4.2.2) in which the focus of the entailment is on the teacher who 'delivers material, diagnoses weaknesses and strengths, corrects mistakes' of students. This is

unlike students who consider an English teacher in broader terms; teachers' conceptualizations in this study seem to be more on a cognitive dimension.

As for statistical analysis, ANOVA and Independent T-Test were used to examine whether there are similarities or differences in the production of the conceptual metaphors according to the participants' groups. There was no statistical difference between the groups of teachers and students; the P value was > 0.05 which indicates that there is no difference in their conceptual metaphors. However, the differences were found within the students' group according to the fields of study and urban/rural background variable. There is a significant difference between Economics, Sociology and International Relations students in all their four conceptual metaphors where the p-value was <0.05. Similarly, a significant difference was found among students of urban and rural background in their production of all four conceptual metaphors (P <0.05).

Below is a detailed presentation and discussion of students' and teachers' EMA qualitative and quantitative results.

4.2.1 Students' EMA findings

A major conceptual metaphor, with 65% of entailments is THE TEACHER IS A SOURCE OF KNOWLEDGE. The majority of expressions in this category compare a good English teacher with another profession. Thirty-nine different occupations were given as sub-categories here but such metaphors as THE TEACHER IS A BUILDER, THE TEACHER IS A GARDENER and THE TEACHER IS A TRANSLATOR are frequent in the dataset. While these categories are clearly cognitive, close inspection reveals other dimensions in some data. The entailments for these metaphors reflect that a good English teacher 'builds a foundation of English skills', 'nurtures students' learning' and 'translates words'. Thus, these entailments show how the participants relate the metaphors to knowledge but with social-affective features of 'nurturing'.

As for other occupations, the list of professions in order of frequency includes a teacher's role to be in charge of student's learning by 'giving the right shape of knowledge and skills' and 'creating knowledge' (*carpenter, film director, designer, artist, pilot, architect, gardener*); to do a remedy work by 'advising how to improve English' and 'correcting mistakes' (*doctor, mechanic, engineer*) and to 'entertain while teaching' (*clown, actress, TV presenter, animator*). It is worth noting that these professions subsume skilled crafts persons, qualified members of graduate traditional professionals and newer professionals or workers in newer media and entertainment industries. The entertainment aspects of professions show an affective dimension of interest, motivation, enjoyment and fun. Other less frequent metaphors show that English is 'complex and hard to learn' and thus 'an English teacher is a physician/mathematician'. Despite these predominant perceived attitudes to learning English, students also appreciate an aesthetic aspect of studying English as seen in metaphors 'an English teacher is an *artist* - a stylist/ cosmetologist/ painter' because she/he 'makes the world beautiful with their knowledge' and 'makes our speech beautiful'.

Besides occupation metaphors, other common expressions in this category of THE TEACHER IS A SOURCE OF KNOWLEDGE are shown in order of frequency in Table 9.

Metaphors	Entailments
THE TEACHER IS A DICTIONARY	*knows many foreign words; can translate to Kazakh, Russian and English*
THE TEACHER IS A BOOK *(encyclopedia, reference book, mini-library)*	*has all the information and knowledge about various fields; gives all answers; teaches unknown things*
THE TEACHER IS A GUIDE, MENTOR, SAGE	*corrects mistakes and guides our learning; teaches new things; knows a lot*
THE TEACHER IS A PARENT, FRIEND *(mother, second mother)*	*helps to learn a language*
THE TEACHER IS A MODEL OF 'TARGET' CULTURE *(ambassador, tour guide, bridge)*	*knows and speaks many foreign languages; represents other cultures and countries (USA and UK); drives to a foreign country and culture; opens different cultures for students; connects students with foreigners*
THE TEACHER IS A TECHNOLOGICAL DEVICE *(computer, Google, Google translator, memory card, smartphone, gadget, Siri, Wikipedia, internet)*	*knows everything; gives immediate answers; translates every word to Kazakh and Russian languages*
THE TEACHER IS LIGHT, SUN	*pours light to students by teaching us; they give light to students with their knowledge*

Table 9 Students' metaphors THE TEACHER IS A SOURCE OF KNOWLEDGE

Table 9 reflects an importance of English teacher’s perceived role in students’ cognitive development. However, “THE TEACHER IS A PARENT” clearly shows care, concern and closeness too. An English teacher is expected to know the world beyond the English language curriculum and is seen as an ‘erudite’ who ‘knows a lot more than English’ including cultures, history, geography and literature of other societies using English.

Interestingly, cultures of English – speaking communities are specified in a set of metaphors reflecting an English teacher’s perceived image as ‘representing USA and/or UK’ (*foreigner, ambassador, tour guide*). In the data there are neither indications of other cultures in which English plays a role as lingua franca or international medium nor specific entailments including Kazakhstani cultures. This finding suggests, at least from the data here, a more traditional concept of 'target cultures' is perceived in relation to English teachers who are expected to be ‘like native speakers’. Such an expectation seems to overlook contemporary thinking about global Englishes and self-identity in which the 'first' or 'local' culture(s) are also part of the developing knowledge, awareness and understanding in which the interaction between cultural communities or representatives of different identity sets come together and are mediated by intercultural communication.

It was also found that besides supporting students’ cognitive growth, an English teacher’s personal or professional growth is also expected as shown in the metaphor “THE TEACHER IS A LEARNER’. The students view a teacher as a ‘learner/scientist/researcher’ who ‘always learns and seeks for new ways of teaching and learning’. The elicited metaphor analysis has not revealed complementary metaphors in which “THE STUDENT IS A TEACHER”. However, there is some evidence from both students’ and teachers’ interview data which suggests ideas supporting this theme of “THE STUDENT IS A TEACHER”.

A good English teacher is not only seen as a source of knowledge as illustrated above. Giving care and guidance beyond cognitive development is also expected based on students’ EMA results. 171

metaphors (out of 785) reflect students' feeling of closeness as shown in Table 10.

Metaphors	Entailments
THE TEACHER IS A FRIEND/PARENT/FAMILY MEMBER *(parent; mother; father; close/good/best friend; close relative; grandmother; sister; brother)*	*gives advice; helpful in every situation; is kind with every student; can discuss matters in a relaxed, informal manner; cares about students and understands them*
THE TEACHER IS A REPRESENTATIVE OF ANOTHER OCCUPATION *(psychologist; painter; baker; captain; driver; jeweler; sower; priest; doctor; agrarian; conductor; gardener)*	*has an individual method with every student; rides a ship of students; makes a piece of art; shapes students' personality and character;*
THE TEACHER IS A GUIDE *(adviser; mentor; sage; coach)*	*develops students' mind and soul; participates in upbringing; supports in every situation; guides into the world*
THE TEACHER IS NURTURER *(fruit; rain drop; water)*	*gives light; grows the students' character; nurtures and nourishes us; gives warmth and light*
THE TEACHER IS A NAVIGATOR *(map; compass; locomotive)*	*shows right directions; navigates students' development*

Table 10 Students' metaphors THE TEACHER IS A GUIDE

Most common linguistic metaphors are expressed through THE TEACHER IS A FRIEND/ PARENT/ FAMILY MEMBER metaphors. In this dataset, a teacher's closeness to students is the most important perceived aspect. This finding is in agreement with Chinese and Lebanese, Malaysian metaphors (Jin & Cortazzi, 1998; 2002; Cortazzi *et al.,* 2009) in which traditionally teachers are formal figures deserving

respect; however, for China the Confucian tradition stresses closeness and the enduring lifelong relation of learner and teacher, thus Chinese cultures of learning combine authority and respect with a certain closeness of care and concern not just for learning but for the person (ibid). Arguably, such a combination of authority and closeness revealed in this study can be explained by local Kazakh conceptions about teachers and leaners. The care, concern and closeness evident in Table 10 seem to balance the more unemotional cognitive dominance of "THE TEACHER IS A SOURCE OF KNOWLEDGE" with social and affective dimensions.

The next most frequent expressions in this category are represented by occupation metaphors. The occupation metaphors reflect two trends in students' expectations. One group of metaphors (*painter; jeweler; sower; agrarian; baker; driver conductor; agrarian*) suggests that a good English teacher is seen as responsible for students' personal growth and character development including the beauty of character development and enhancing value (*painter, jeweler*), thus not just physical or cognitive growth. The second group (*doctor; psychologist; priest; gardener*) of occupation metaphors shows that a good English teacher is expected to take care of students' emotional well-being and teach moral good. Guiding students in their personal growth is also reflected in THE TEACHER IS A GUIDE in which a good English teacher 'advises what is good and what is wrong'. Nurturing students beyond academic growth is a major idea in THE TEACHER IS NURTURER while giving advice 'how to achieve goals by showing the right way' is expressed in THE TEACHER IS A NAVIGATOR.

The third significant category found as a result of analyzing entailments reflects importance of English teachers for a society. The range of metaphors and their meaning for the students is given in Table 11.

Metaphors	Entailments
THE TEACHER IS A TOOL, INSTRUMENT (*key; door; money; ticket; map; lift; portal*)	*opens the way to a better future; opens the world; helps to access the world*
THE TEACHER IS LIGHT *(star; light; sun; ray of light)*	makes our life bright
THE TEACHER IS A HELPER *(builder; architect; explorer; guide; motivator; explorer)*	*helps to achieve future goals; leads to a better future*
THE TEACHER IS A JEWEL *(diamond; gold)*	*has value because English is on demand*

Table 11 Students' metaphors THE TEACHER IS A TOOL

The metaphors in this category show that good English teachers are valued in a society because they are facilitators, mediators and gatekeepers who 'open doors for better future' and 'help to achieve a bright future' as expressed in THE TEACHER IS A TOOL, INSTRUMENT and THE TEACHER IS LIGHT. Besides, based on EMA evidence the students expect that a good English teacher 'builds students' future', 'guides to new opportunities' and 'explores a new world for students'. Pragmatic values of good English teachers are expressed in THE TEACHER IS A JEWEL because 'English language is a must'. This category of metaphorical expressions show that students seem to rely on English teachers because the entailments do not include students' own efforts in this process of seeking better material opportunities. Such apparent teacher-dependence here is in line with knowledge transmission which has features of care and closeness through guidance.

Besides characteristics expected from good English teachers in relation to students' desired achievements which so far included students' academic and personal growth, instrumental importance of learning English, the participants also showed awareness of teaching profession as an act of sacrifice towards students' progress demonstrated in Table

12. These metaphors show teachers as hard working, tireless, generous, patient, devoted, self-sacrificing indicating dimensions with social-moral and aesthetic resonances.

Metaphors	Entailments
THE TEACHER IS CANDLE	*enlightens us but burns themselves by giving away their light*
THE TEACHER IS A SAINT *(hero, angel, philanthropist, volunteer)*	*saves lives and gives their energy*
THE TEACHER IS SELFLESS NATURE *(tree, sky, water, river, bee)*	*does not sleep and works hard*
THE TEACHER IS A FLOWER	*gives her soul away and makes the world beautiful without asking anything back.*
THE TEACHER IS A TIRELESS MACHINE *(biological machine, robot, refrigerator, pump)*	*never tired and always gives her positive energy to us and does stop explaining if we don't understand.*
THE TEACHER IS A MOTHER	*works hard and gives her everything to us without expecting much in return*

Table 12 Students' metaphors THE TEACHER IS SACRIFICE

It was found that in their entailments for the above metaphors, the students mostly refer to a female teacher compared to the metaphor data in the above categories. A gender-based characterization of teachers is especially revealed in THE TEACHER IS A FLOWER and THE TEACHER IS A MOTHER metaphors. This gender choice is perhaps due to the fact that in Kazakhstan teachers are mostly female (Agency of Statistics, 2017) which may have influenced students' perceptions of a good English teacher.

4.2.1.1 EMA findings by different groups of the student participants

The following charts (Figures 5 - 9) are a comparative presentation of students' EMA findings by different demographic variables. The percentages in Figures 5 - 9 are proportionate to the sample and show frequencies across different groups.

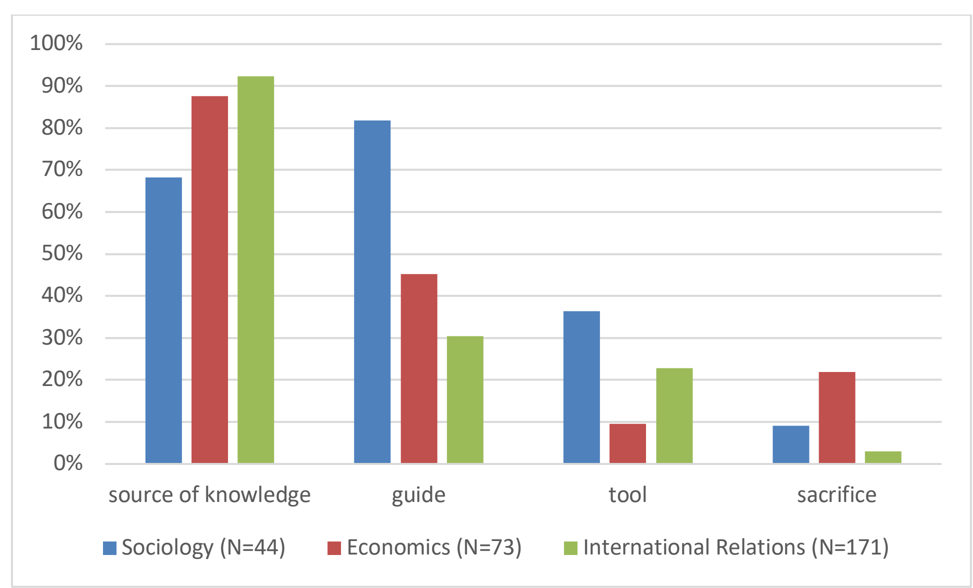


Figure 5 Students' EMA results by fields of study

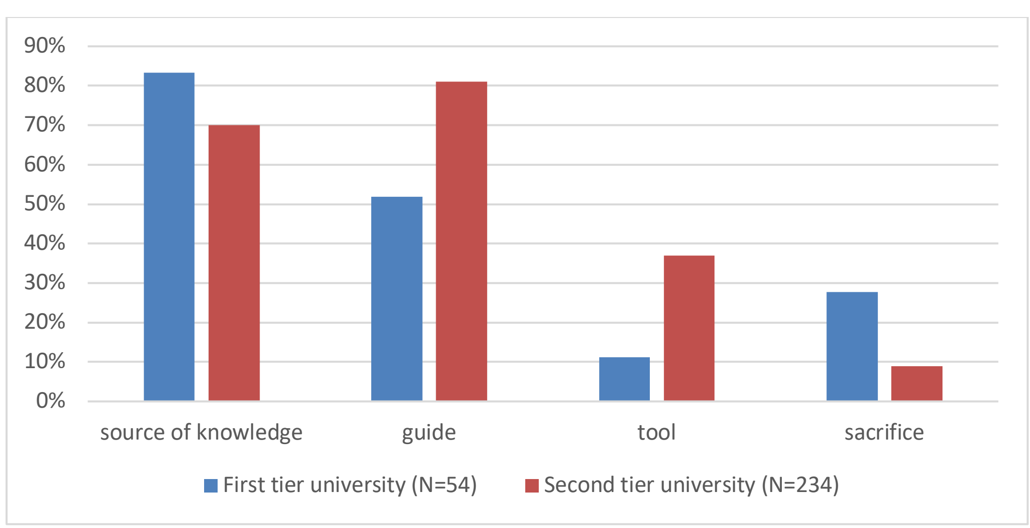


Figure 6 Students' EMA results by university tier

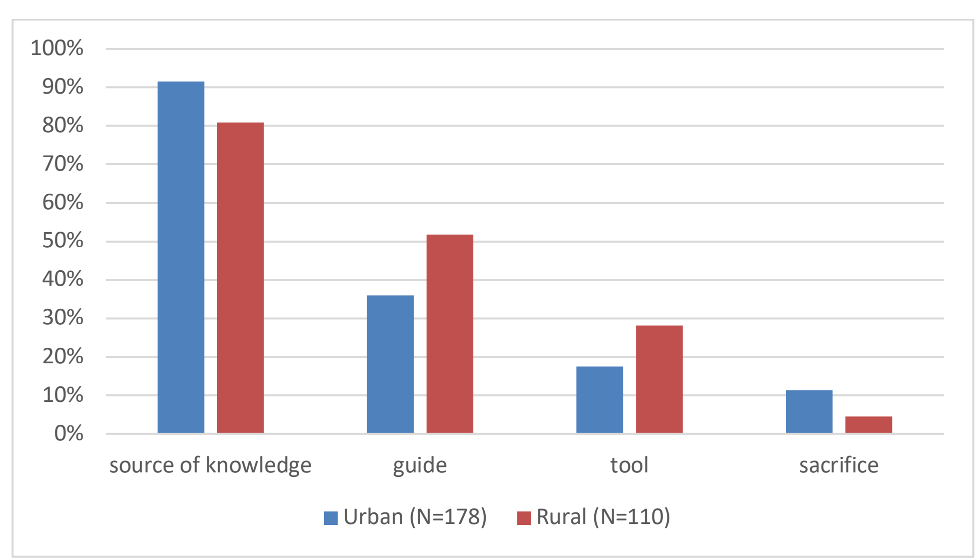


Figure 7 Students' EMA results by rural/urban background

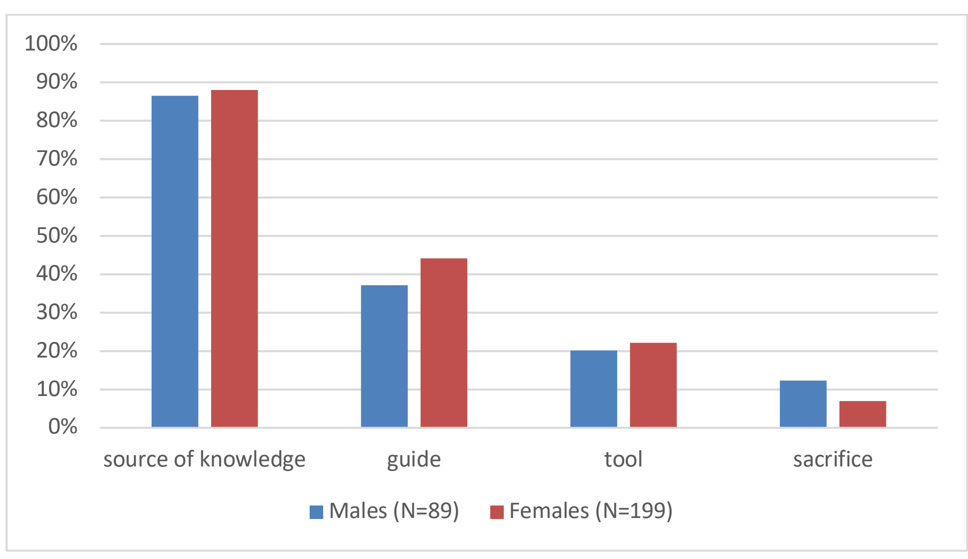


Figure 8 Students' EMA results by gender

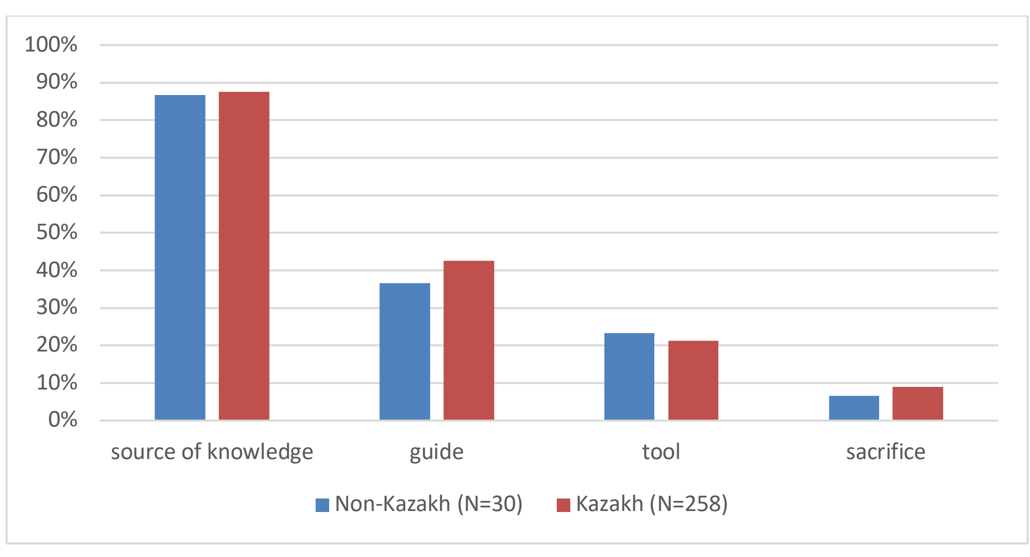


Figure 9 Students' EMA results by ethnic groups

According to Figures 7 and 8, results by gender and ethnic groups seem consistent in terms conceptual metaphors THE TEACHER AS A SOURCE OF KNOWLEDGE and THE TEACHER AS A GUIDE. Arguably, irrespective of gender and ethnic origin the students value a teacher as a source of knowledge. However, looking at the conceptual metaphors by the students' fields of study, it seems that students' expectations might depend on their majors.

As noted, the students' most common metaphor is *a guide*. A good English teacher guides a student intellectually and morally, giving guidance far beyond cognitive development. However, the significance of each of these strands is different for different students as illustrated by Figures 4-8. Thus, metaphor analysis of students by their majors showed that those on international relations course value cognitive development more than other aspects while sociology students choose affective aspects much more than others. It should be recalled here that students on the course of sociology come from rural places. Thus, these differences among different cohorts of students are arguably due to students' professional specializations or social background or perhaps combination of these variables in the student group. Furthermore, although these are first year undergraduate students, a type of major seems to have influence on their views about teachers.

From the urban and rural background perspective, a cognitive dimension is most expected by every group of students which implies that 'giving knowledge' seems equally important for all social backgrounds. Students from rural places seem to depend more on teacher's emotional support compared to the students of urban background. This dependence on the teacher is further reinforced in the 'tool' conceptual metaphor in which rural students' answers are almost twice higher than those of urban. This might indicate a link between social background and expectations, a finding which is perhaps unexpected in this EMA method.

4.2.2 Teachers' EMA findings

As reported in 4.2, teachers' most frequent conceptual metaphor is THE TEACHER IS A SOURCE OF KNOWLEDGE shown in Table 13 with metaphorical expressions and corresponding entailments.

Metaphors	Entailments
THE TEACHER IS A REPRESENTATIVE OF ANOTHER OCCUPATION (*psychologist; mechanic; actor; gardener; artist*)	*entertains, builds, cooks, fixes problems*
THE TEACHER IS AN ORGANIZER *(manager; facilitator; director; observer; polisher; eraser; trendsetter)*	*facilitates learning; corrects mistakes; manages learning and learners; directs and supervises; erases mistakes; model of correct pronunciation*
THE TEACHER IS AN INNOVATOR (*explorer; researcher; professor; inventor*)	*looks for new ways of teaching; invents interesting activities and materials*
THE TEACHER IS A GUIDE	*guides and leads students' learning; help students learn*
THE TEACHER IS A MIRACLE WORKER (*fairy; wizard; magician; superman; engine; bridge; computer)*	*increases students' zero level to a good level; does incredible things to make students speak, connects students to a better performance level*
THE TEACHER IS A MODEL OF 'TARGET' CULTURE (*ambassador; traveler; bridge*)	*behaves like a representative of English speaking cultures; teaches culture and real life in Britain; helps students bridge their own values and the target language culture*

Table 13 Teachers' metaphors THE TEACHER IS A SOURCE OF KNOWLEDGE

The categories in Table 13 are classified as THE TEACHER AS A SOURCE OF KNOWLEDGE because the entailments given by the participants relate metaphors to knowledge.

The metaphors given by teachers mainly show features specific to teaching which include planning, delivering input material and correcting students' mistakes. The analysis also suggests that teachers mostly think of teaching as "fixing students' academic problems". The follow-up interview questions on this feature reveal that the teachers seem to consider it as remedial ("clear up errors; catch up with knowledge") rather than developmental.

Besides, it was also found that in teachers' entailments the word 'help' is used less frequently compared to the students' data. Another finding in this category is that unlike the students, only three teachers believe that 'a good English teacher is a mother'. Furthermore, almost 20% of the teachers expressed only metaphors related to one conceptual metaphor of THE TEACHER IS A SOURCE OF KNOWLEDGE and based on the metaphor data from these teachers a good English teacher is conceptualized on a cognitive dimension. Similar to the students' metaphor data (Section 4.2.1), the teachers' metaphor data also suggest perceived knowing about 'target' cultures as part of the good English teacher's expected features.

Besides cognitive aspects, English teachers are also expected to take care of students as shown in Table 14. 'Care' includes caring for and about students' knowledge by providing help, support and guidance but also here relates to the wider aspects of education of developing students' personality, character, moral well-being in a humane view which includes 'human souls'.

Metaphors	Entailments
THE TEACHER IS A REPRESENTATIVE OF ANOTHER OCCUPATION *(psychologist; mechanic; artist; florist; philosopher; peasant; painter; builder; soul engineer; artist)*	*deals with human souls; takes care of students; plants seeds of wisdom; makes students better; transforms students; builds students' character*
THE TEACHER IS A GUIDE *(adviser; guardian; mentor; role model; parent; friend; helper)*	*responsible for students; willing to help; protects students; brings up students; supports students; guides students*
THE TEACHER IS STRUCTURE *(lift; skyscraper foundation)*	*brings up students to a better personality; provides a strong basis for character development*

Table 14 Teachers' metaphors THE TEACHER IS A GUIDE

Compared to the previous two conceptual representations of a good English teachers revealed through the teachers' metaphors, other categories are less frequent. But this is not to say that these metaphorical images are not important for the participants. On the contrary, based on the depth and range of entailments it seems that conceptual metaphors THE TEACHER IS A TOOL and THE TEACHER IS A SACRIFICE are also significant to make the picture complete. It was found that THE TEACHER IS A TOOL and THE TEACHER IS SACRIFICE arise with almost the same in frequency. The following tables represent the metaphors in these two categories.

Metaphors	Entailments
THE TEACHER IS A CANDLE (match, fire)	*they need to spark young generation to make their life bright; they are necessary because they give light to students' life*
THE TEACHER IS A MENTOR (mother bird, pilot)	*help students fly in an undiscovered sky; take students to their dream destination helping them overcome the fear of crash; lead students to their goals*

Table 15 Teachers' metaphors THE TEACHER IS A TOOL

Metaphors	Entailments
THE TEACHER IS A CANDLE	*he sacrifices his life for others*
THE TEACHER IS AN ANGEL	*works very hard and a lot for little money*
THE TEACHER IS A BEE	*is tireless and works even after a working day is finished*

Table 16 Teachers' metaphors THE TEACHER IS SACRIFICE

4.2.2.1 EMA findings by different groups of teachers

Figures 10 give a comparative presentation of teachers' EMA findings by different demographic variables.

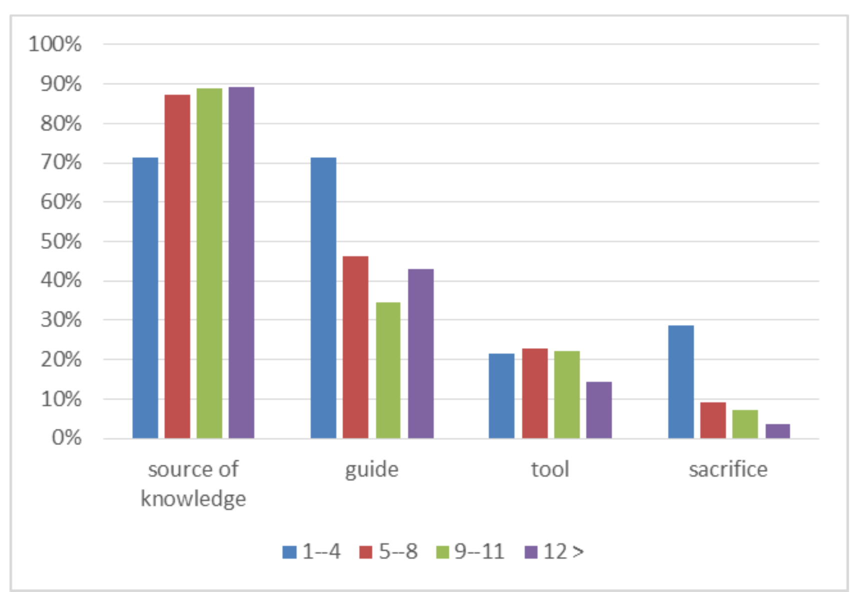


Figure 10 Teachers' EMA results by the number of years taught

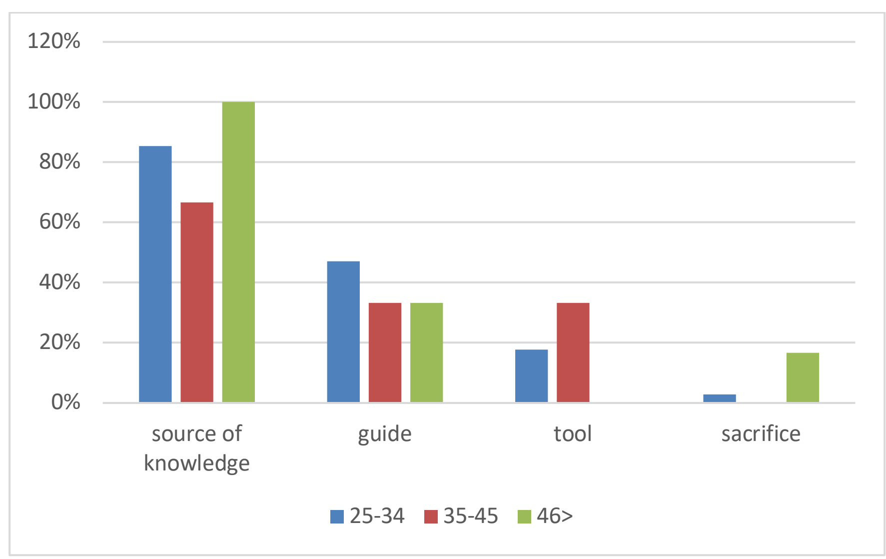


Figure 11 Teachers' EMA results by age groups

It is recognized that compared to the students', teachers' group is rather small to run comparative analyses. Thus, the above two charts represent those results which were reasonably analyzable. The key finding of the teachers' metaphor data analysis is that the metaphor 'source of knowledge' seems significant to all age groups. As for the length of teaching experience, 'source of knowledge' is most common for those teachers who have taught for eight years and more than 12 years. Also, in the age group of 35-45 there was not a conceptual metaphor of sacrifice found. This seems interesting and perhaps reflects changes in cultures of learning. Further research with more numbers of teachers in this age group should address likely reasons for such a finding.

4.2.3 Same tokens with different entailments

The above analysis is based on common entailments expressed through different types of metaphors but there are also the same tokens used with different reasons (different entailments). For example, entailments given by different participants for a metaphor 'an English teacher is a foreigner' are both positive (*knows English like a native speaker*) and negative (*it's difficult to understand his speech*) with clear implications that the teacher is an outsider, "not one of us": one wonders whether this applies to all teachers which seems unlikely or

mainly to some English teachers. If so, probably because English is an outsiders' language and so are the related cultures. Besides '*a foreigner*' metaphor, such tokens as '*a dictator*' and '*a dictionary*' are also evaluated both positively and negatively in the present data. This finding implies that it is important to ask the participants to give reasons for their metaphors in order to avoid misinterpretation.

With the three exceptions noted above, other entailments for the same metaphor type are only positive. These metaphors are listed in Table 17 in order of frequency with their representative entailments.

Mother/guide/mentor	*Teaches how to speak English from scratch*
	Shows what is right and wrong
	Gives life-related advice
	Teaches language and culture
	Helps to understand unknown things
	Looks after students
Psychologist	*Knows how to approach students, knows that students are different in their learning styles and pace*
	We can tell her our secrets
	I can share my private problems with her
Friend	*Helps students to learn*
	Understands students' feelings
	Give their best to students, give their energy and will always listen
	Approachable and close to students
	Can advise in any situation even not related to the subject
	Shows what is good and what is bad

Gardener	*Waters students' brain with new information*
	Take care of and bring up young people
	Nurtures with good knowledge
	Devotes energy completely to students
Foreigner	*Knows English like a native speaker*
	Studied in England and behaves like a native speaker

Table 17 Same metaphor tokens with different entailments

As demonstrated above, participants' understanding of the same source domain can be different. This is perhaps not only due to a diversity of their learning and teaching experiences: it is also in the creative, potentially extendible role of analogy in metaphor. Theoretically, a metaphor in order to be productive and thought-stimulating has a feature of uncertainty, ambiguity and gets creativity in mapping features of source to target. Not all features can be mapped; some mappable features are salient and easily appreciated, while others less so, depending on contexts, and some can be startlingly innovative because they are far less expected. Creativity of making choices on drawing on and extending the resources of language through metaphors can be revealed in metaphor networks (Section 4.2.5).

To sum up, what the participants mean is important for a more complete picture based on a range of possible views. As shown in 4.2.1 – 4.2.2, examining how the same source has a range of entailments, what is included and how the varying entailments can be put together reveals interesting details about expected roles of good English teachers. Thus, the creative and interactive strength of a metaphor is the range combinations and extensions of entailments and that different entailments add insights and meanings to a metaphor.

4.2.4 Negative metaphors

As mentioned, negative metaphors were found in the students' questionnaires (32 metaphors) and narratives (4 metaphors)

demonstrated in Table 18. Negative metaphors show some likely data validity since an obvious challenge is that participants – especially students – can tell the researcher what they think it is expected to hear and therefore share positive comments.

Roles	Objects	Other
foreigner (7); dictator (4); alien (2); military (2); stranger (2); infant (2); enemy (1); boss (1); grammarian (1); conqueror (2)	dictionary (1); blank paper (1); microphone (1)	cactus (2); boring TV (1); turtle (1); volcano (1); monster (1); brain (1)

Table 18 Students' negative metaphors

Some metaphors in Table 18 also show some openness and creativity among the participants. Based on common types of negative metaphors and entailments, it seems that for some students '*an English teacher is a foreigner/ alien/ infant/ stranger/ enemy'* because students *'do not understand their speech which is unclear, too fast and confusing'*. Teacher-centred approaches seem to be expressed through metaphors '*an English teacher is a dictator/ boss/ grammarian/ conqueror/ military*' because they 'm*ake their own rules and make students follow them by force*', *'always expects correct answers and no mistakes allowed'*. Affective aspects are shown in metaphors '*boring TV/ volcano /monster/ cactus'* in which teachers are '*boring, unbearable, can burst out*'. Flaws in teaching are expressed in such metaphors as '*a microphone which talks too much and doesn't listen to students*', '*a dictionary which knows words but cannot make correct sentences'* , '*a turtle teaches speaking very slowly'*, '*a grammarian which always and first of all wants to teach grammar*'. Close examination of negative metaphors and their entailments shows that students' ideas expressed metaphorically are in agreement with narrative analysis findings. Another research study on students' metaphors of good teachers (Cortazzi *et al.*, 2009) also found negative metaphors. Unlike students' data there were not negative metaphors from teacher participants. This is arguably because the

teachers' experiences might have been mostly positive compared to those of the students.

4.2.5 Metaphor networks

Based on the students' and teachers' metaphor data analyses, Figure 12 below shows relationships between different categories in a network diagram which reveals productive multiple mappings between sets of sources and entailments with the target of 'English teacher'.

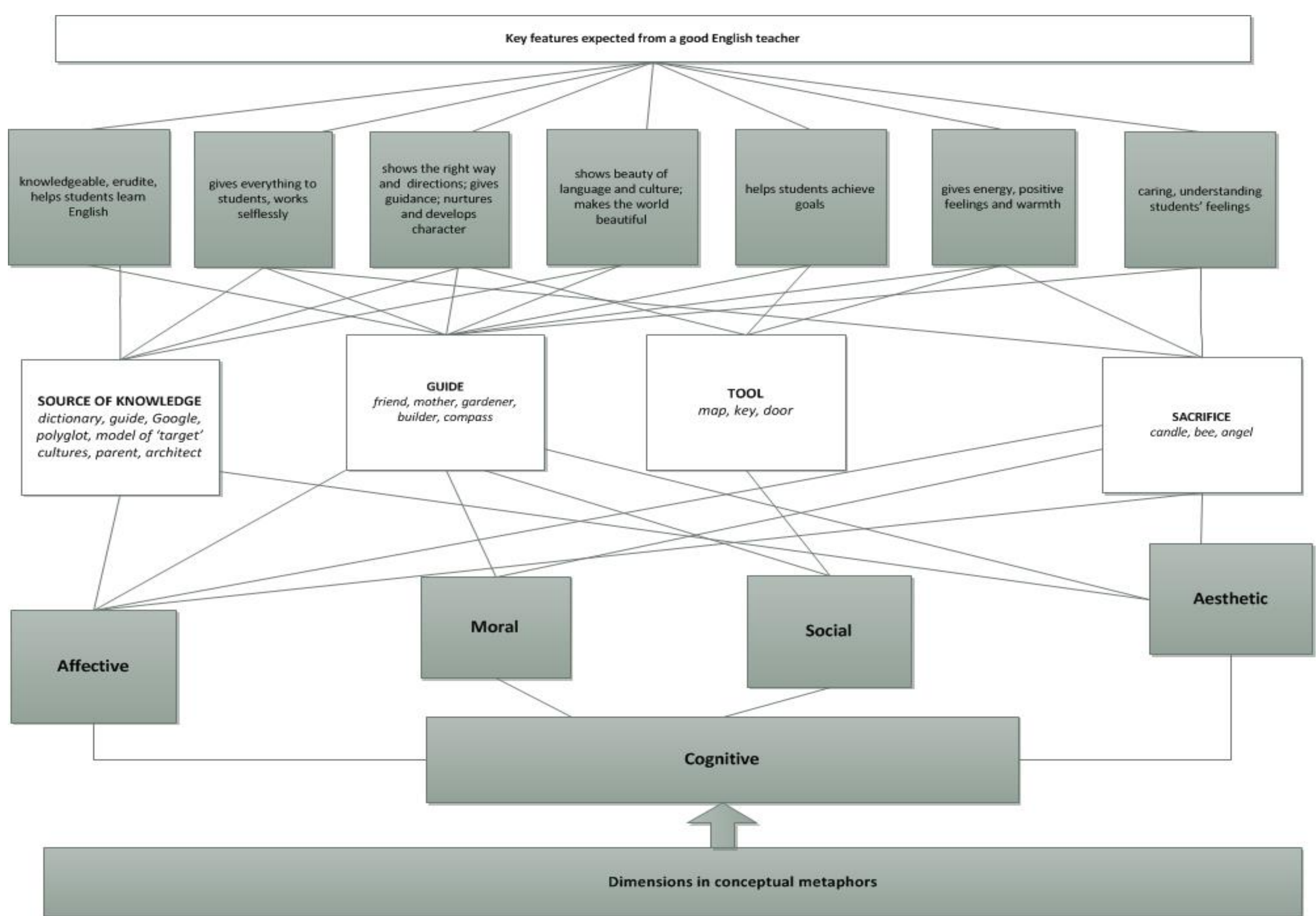


Figure 12 Dimensions in conceptual metaphors for a good English teacher

The key features of ‘a good English teacher’ from the EMA here are displayed through participants’ own words in entailments at the top which reveal a surprisingly wide range of roles related to four major conceptual metaphors. The underlying values are shown partly through the ‘dimensions’ which are derived inductively (bottom up) from the metaphor data only. The dimensions are held to relate to broad educational values seen (top down) in the curricula of many subject disciplines including English. Diagrammatically, the affective, moral, social and aesthetic dimensions are, here, subordinate or feed into the cognitive dimension which is dominant. It may be concluded, so far, on the basis of this evidence that Figure 12 charts significant features of teaching in cultures of learning in Kazakhstan.

As seen in Figure 11, a wide range of metaphors are used for a good English teacher in this study. A good English teacher is certainly seen beyond teaching EFL and the range of qualities reveal “a complex network of mappings, rather than one-to-one correspondence between target and source domains and grounds” (Cortazzi *et al.,* 2009: 124). The metaphor analysis shows strong interrelated cognitive, affective, social, moral and aesthetic dimensions including closeness (listener, counsellor for confidential sharing of difficulties) besides emotional elements (e.g. *‘a good English teacher helps overcome fears’*) through TEACHER IS A GUIDE; teachers’ devotion, constant effort, empathy and compassion through TEACHER IS A SACRIFICE; utilitarian and mediation roles of teachers’ through TEACHER IS A TOOL.

Although this metaphor-based model of English teacher in Kazakhstan seems similar to the one derived from students’ metaphors in Iran (Cortazzi *et al.*, 2015) and China (Cortazzi *et al.,* 2009), the present cultural model is based on both students’ and teachers’ metaphors of English teachers in Kazakhstan. The present study has also extended the approach developed by Cortazzi & Jin by mapping the conceptual metaphors to the dimensions of conceptions about a good English teacher. Arguably, these conceptions about English teachers derived from conceptual metaphors are linked to cultures of learning in

Kazakhstan which perhaps explains some differences found between the present study and those in Iran and China (ibid). As argued by Kövecses (2005), conceptual metaphors vary among cultures. However, evidence-based research in the field of language teaching is very limited to gauge Kövecses's argument on cross-cultural differences in conceptual metaphors.

Although other metaphor studies on good English teachers do not provide cultural models of teachers' perceived attributes, it is worth mentioning how the existing research contributed to better understanding of teachers based on metaphor data analysis. As demonstrated Chapter 2, there are a few studies which examine both students' and teachers' metaphors for English teachers. One such example is Wan *et al*. (2011) research on metaphors elicited from 70 university students of English major and 33 teachers of English in China. Their findings suggest that although students and teachers agree on some conceptual metaphors, mismatches also exist between students' and teachers' expectations. Thus, the researchers used students' metaphor data as a tool for teachers' reflection in follow-up interviews. In so doing, the research by Wan *et al.* (ibid) shows the importance of metaphor both as a mediational tool useful for professional development and as a means to tap into students' and teachers' beliefs through investigation of metaphors (Zhao *et al*., 2010).

Compared to the above-cited research on both students' and teachers' metaphors, teachers' metaphors received greater attention from scholars in such educational contexts as the USA (Alger, 2009; Oxford *et al*., 1998), Turkey (Saban *et al*., 2007; 2009; Seferoglu *et al*., 2009), Puerto Rico (De Guerrero & Villamil, 2002), Finland and Thailand (Berendt & Mattsson, 2013), Canada (Thomas & Beauchamp, 2011; Farrell, 2016) and Vietnam (Nguyen, 2016). These researchers seem to agree that both pedagogic/instructional skills and personal qualities are expected from good teachers; however, it remains unknown what specific features differentiate English teachers from teachers of other subjects because the research is mainly on good teachers in general.

Furthermore, the cited studies do not discuss likely sources of teachers' metaphors and mainly conclude with a list of characteristics expected from good teachers. This is not to say that those findings are not worthwhile to know but because of methodological decisions underlying metaphor analysis, arguably, there is a lack of depth in some previous metaphor data analysis. For example, there are only three participant teachers in Farrell (2016) and specific analytic tools for analysing metaphor data are not explicitly stated. Similarly, in Oxford *et al*.'s research (1998), it is not clear how conceptual metaphors are developed. Another methodological problem in Oxford *et al*. (ibid) is that the researchers reinterpret labels for metaphors as criticized by Low (2003). Furthermore, Oxford *et al*. (ibid) did not develop entailments in their method and therefore their discussion is based on their own understanding of possible or likely entailments rather than on actual comments from participants. Thus, metaphorical meanings are imposed by the researchers which might lead to validity issues with what the participants' meant when giving their metaphors.

The above methodological issue is addressed in the EMA approach (Section 3.4.1). The entailments not only give meanings for an elicited metaphor but also show the cognition in terms of participants' voices so researchers do not need to rely on guessed meanings or what they themselves believe, but use the ones given by participants as far as possible (Jin & Cortazzi, 2008).

Although other metaphor studies also elicit participants' own reasoning for metaphors (Wan *et al*., 2011), the following features make the EMA method unique from other approaches to analyze metaphor data. Firstly, in EMA metaphors and entailments are analyzed in combinations (rather than treating each metaphor and its entailments in isolation from others) which arguably provides depth of data analysis and a better representation of participants' overall meanings in their own words. Secondly, this analytical step is significant because it allows for creating metaphor networks which are 'schema involving more linked metaphors' (Cortazzi *et al*., 2009). Metaphor networks for a good

English teacher in this research enabled the outcomes to reveal relationships among a range of attributes conceived of a good English teacher. Thus, the research using this approach moves beyond a listing of identified characteristics and qualities expected of teachers and identifies larger patterns seen in networks. Such networks are identified by the researcher yet they are entirely based on participants' voices and use their words wherever possible for categories and labels. These metaphor networks are taken further to a higher degree of analysis to construct the above model of a good English teacher in Kazakhstan.

Theoretically, drawing on cognitive linguistics research developed by Lakoff and associates (e.g. Lakoff, 1993, 2008; Lakoff & Johnson, 1980), EMA follows a cultural approach (Kövecses, 2005; 2006) to examine perceptions with an emphasis on cultures of learning which can arguably offer better understanding of perceptions of good English teachers. Such a cultural perspective in this research to investigate expectations of good English teachers through metaphor is one of the few attempts within the field of applied linguistics following Cortazzi *et al*.'s metaphor study in Iran (2015) concerning dimensions. For Kazakhstani students and teachers, the following dimensions of good English teacher conceptualizations arise from applying the EMA method: cognitive, social and aesthetic (source of knowledge; a tool), affective and moral (giving care and guidance; teacher's sacrifice).

Despite the above strengths of EMA, some caveats need to be considered. One analytical complication is to do with relating different metaphors to others by subsuming specific ones under superordinate categories or more general ones. For example, the following metaphoric responses are common in the present dataset:

'a good English teacher is a sun ray because she/he enlightens life'

'a good English teacher is sunlight because she/he gives warmth'

'a good English teacher is sunshine because she/he enlightens life and removes darkness'. All these metaphors are coded as SUN metaphors based on their entailments. However, there are data that are

problematic to classify. For example the metaphor '*a good English teacher is a refrigerator because we take everything we need from it but also filling it in with necessary things (assignments, homework)*' has been coded twice after follow-up interviews in which students explained that '*a good English teacher gives knowledge and students take it like from a refrigerator* (a source of knowledge) *and after a hard work a refrigerator can break* (sacrifice). Thus, as shown through these examples both entailments and different metaphors need to be treated with care (Cortazzi *et al.,* 2009; 2015) and checked with participants in depicting their original intended meaning of metaphors (Wan, 2012). As suggested by Low (2015), post-elicitation checking is a useful strategy for confirming (or disconfirming) data during a study.

Another challenge is related to participants' engagement with the metaphor elicitation task. For example, in the present dataset, several responses to the metaphor prompt only contain adjectives to describe teachers, e.g. "*a good English teacher is patient/polite/understanding*". Such data have been removed from the metaphor analysis including blank incomplete forms. These descriptive adjectives are relevant data in their own right but they are not considered in this metaphor analysis because they do not meet the criteria of identifying metaphors. This kind of issue with task incompletion is common not only with metaphor research (Wan & Low, 2015) but also with other commonplace data collection instruments (Dörnyei, 2007). Thus, awareness of the issues associated with EMA can facilitate the data collection and analysis stages.

To sum up, Section 4.2 has first reported the results of EMA from students' and teachers' metaphor data followed by the discussion of the findings in relation to the relevant literature. Based on the results and discussion, a cultural model of a good English teacher in Kazakhstan is presented (4.2.5) as perceived by students and teachers in their metaphors. Next Section 4.3 reports findings from narrative analysis, a second source of data in this study.

4.3 NA findings from teachers' data analysis

In the data analysis, 253 narratives were found from the interviews with 43 teachers.

The following section will focus on good English teachers' characteristics found as a result of narrative analysis of orientation and evaluation elements in the narrative structure.

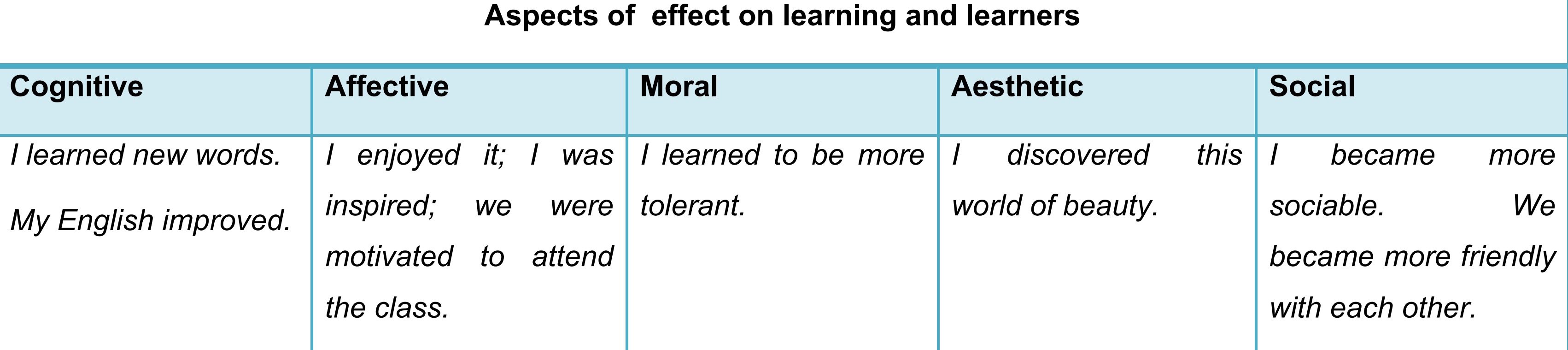
Some factual information about the narrated characters is found in the orientation section of the narratives. By analysing these orientations, it was found that in 80% of narratives the narrated teachers, i.e.teachers who feature as protagonists in narratives given by the university teacher participants of this study, are female teachers, 70% of the narrated teachers taught English in schools (40 % in primary school and 30% in secondary schools), 20 % were university English teachers and the remaining 10 % worked in private language centres. As for the age of the characters, half of the participants reported their remembered teachers as young and the rest did not mention the age of the teacher which might perhaps imply that age was not an important factor for these participants. The analysis of orientaion sections revealed the significant degree of English teachers' impact on learners in primary and secondary levels of education system. This finding does not seem surprising because a priori most foundational learning should take place in schools; yet these narrators are teachers in university now, so quite some time has elapsed since their primary and secodnary schooling – which nevertheless has left its profound impact for them. However, why did some of the partipants meet their good English teachers only in private language centres? Despite the fact that English is taught in Kazakhstan from Year 1 and is allocated at least 4 hours a week for 11 years of schooling, some of the participants' expectations of good English teachers were met outside of school teaching. How do the institutional (private language centre or public school) or contextual factors influence teaching? These questions could be examined in further research and are only partly adressed in this exploratory study.

The analysis of evaluation elements found in narratives revealed a pattern presented in Figure 13.

Professsional/personal characteristics (What is the teacher like?)	**Pedagogical skills (What did the teacher do and how?)**
Cognitive: *professional (6); very clever (3); very smart (3); fluent (2); perfect (1); helpful (3); objective (2); creative (8); so experienced (1); innovative (1); knowledgeable (2); well-educated (1); very educated (1); erudite (10) intelligent (1); educated (1); always prepared (1); effective (1); proficient in English (1); very compenent (1); very demanding (1)*	**Cognitive:** *taught well (56), explained clearly (38), supported learning (24); listened to answers attentively (11); had interesting lessons (108); used interesting activities (99); had very high learning expectations (5)*
Affective: *really nice person (1); great teacher (7); best teacher (5); positive (5); good (15); great (7); very American (1); relaxed (6); very bright (1); exemplary (1); amazing (1); friendly (1)*	**Affective:** *motivated (38); didn't criticize (44); didn't shout (10); didn't interrupt (8); believed in our progress (13)*
Aesthetic: *gracious (2); beautiful (3), elegant (1); smartly dressed (5); strictly dressed (1); neat (3); pleasant (2); charismatic (1); stylish (1); fashionable (1); so pretty (1); physically fit (1)*	**Aesthetic:** *showed beauty of English (2), showed beauty of grammar (1), how beautiful English is (1)*
Social: *open (3); sociable (7); approachable (6); not irritated by others (1)*	**Social:** *spent time with us (35); organized interesting social events (9), organized holiday activities (7)*

Moral: *kind (7); caring about students (4); not indifferent (1); so dedicated (1), commited to work (1); understanding (1); fair (4); strict (10); always very polite (1); responsive (1); patient (4); loyal (1); tolerant (1); calm (1); strong (3); compassionate (1); ideal (3); honest (1); brave (1); attentive (1); not lazy (1); humane (2); responsible (1)*	**Moral:** *helped me (48); showed her kindness (13); would tell us to be kind (8)*

What happened as a result of the above?



Aspects of effect on learning and learners				
Cognitive	**Affective**	**Moral**	**Aesthetic**	**Social**
I learned new words. *My English improved.*	*I enjoyed it; I was inspired; we were motivated to attend the class.*	*I learned to be more tolerant.*	*I discovered this world of beauty.*	*I became more sociable. We became more friendly with each other.*

Figure 13 Dimensions in teachers' narratives

In Figure 13, the aspects of good English teacher's characteristics are illustrated with the participants' quotes to reflect their voice. Numbers in parentheses refer to frequency of items in the whole data set. As seen from the above table, pedagogical skills seem more significant for the teacher participants in this study. However, this is not to say that teachers' personal and professional charactertistics are less important for the participants. Rather, as will be shown later, both pedagogical skills and personal/professional charactertistics are equally expected from good English teachers. Furthermore, in some narratives professional characteristics are closely linked to pedagogical skills. In these cases, classification of the evaluative devices is based on the tellers' linguistic choices. If an adjective was used (e.g. *committed to teach*), then this evaluation feature is grouped under the category of professional/personal characteristics. Similarly, if evaluation is realized through verbs and adverbs (e.g. *she taught very well*), then this item is classified as a pedagogical skill, in other words to answer the question "What did the teacher do and how?"

Interestingly enough, interviews with most of the teachers do not contain professional terms and phrases used in the specialist discourse. This might imply that the participants treated the interview as an informal event to talk about their teaching experiences rather than sharing ideas at a formal conference or in seminar settings.

A detailed linguistic examination of the evaluative devices is presented in the next section.

4.3.1 Evaluative devices in teachers' narratives

The results of NA show that most narrative evaluations are realized through multiple devices. The evaluative devices found in the teachers' narrative data are listed in Table 19 with sample quotes from the teachers' narratives. It is important to note that these devices evaluate in their narrative context: the evaluative element may not always be clear when they are listed out of this context.

Evaluative category	Evaluative category subtype		Frequency (N=253)	Sample quotes from narratives
Intensifiers	Gestures/para-linguistic features	80	Gesticulating with an index finger, standing up to embody the narrated posture, imitating energetic actions, crossing hands, acting the narrated teacher's behavior, knocking on the table.
	Phonology	251	Lengthening vowels, changes in pitch and intonation, interjections, stress, whispering.
	Quantifiers	59	*Many, a lot, so much, more*
	Modifiers	92 adjectives	*Knowledgeable, patient, attentive, understanding, kind, professional*
		253 adverbs	*Only, very, always, really, truly, so*
	Repetitions	79	*Really, really creative; so knowledgeable, so professional*
	Would (expresses a repeated or habitual action in the past)	60	*Would listen; would give advice*
	Exclamations	18	*Magic! Amazing! What a teacher!*
	Reported speech	23	*She's said that I should try again.*
	Direct speech	39	*"Always work on yourself"*

	Lexical signaling	247	*She supported us; we respected her; she removed this fear; with perfect English.*
		38 context- and culture specific	*"London is the capital of Great Britain"* [citation from the traditional textbook]*; as Sukhomlinsky* [influential Soviet educator] *said,* use of pronoun *"*You*"* in its polite form in Russian and Kazakh languages, use of concept "*uyat*" (collective shame).
	Historical present tense	15	*She comes and says..; she shows this and asks..; then we do the activity.*
Comparators	Imperatives	10	*You don't make any pause; you should treat students well*
	Questions	12	*Can you imagine?* *Why do parents ask such questions?* *Why is there focus on the form?* *Is it just because of passing on knowledge?* *Why didn't she yell at us?*
	Negatives	249	*there is no rush or fuss; she didn't shout; it wasn't boring; he didn't act as someone superior*
	Metaphors	38	*Teacher is a friend; mother; actor*

	Modals	250	*should, need, must, could*
	Quasimodals	1	*Teachers are supposed to teach*
	Comparatives	66	*Better; more interesting; higher; more engaging*
	Superlatives	9	*Best, most interesting, greatest*
Correlatives	Double attributive	42	*My favorite teacher …* *This nice teacher …* *Hers were fun, interesting lessons*
Explicatives	When clause	99	*When a teacher is interested in her lesson, students will be interested too.*
	Because clause	67	*She was a good teacher, because she cared for her students.*
	If clause	160	*If teachers know English, students respect them.*

Table 19 Evaluative devices in teachers' narratives

As seen in Table 19, there is a wide range and diversity of evaluative devices used in narratives; often they are used in combinations which strengthen the effect. Phonological features and modifying adverbs appear almost in every narrative in this study. As discussed Chapter 3, performance is a major aspect of evaluation which involves changes in prosodic elements (Linde, 1993; Cortazzi & Jin, 2000). Thus, perhaps due to this meta-communicative frame in which there is performance of the narrator and audience who receives this performance (ibid), phonological features were used to evaluate every narrative here. In some cases, the narrators combined marked vocal effects with gestures. Semantically and grammatically, modifying adverbs, modals, negatives and lexical signaling are also frequent in this data set. This finding is partly in agreement with Labov's argument that modals and negatives are most common features of evaluation (1972). Relevant research on lexical signaling in teachers' narratives was not found, at least there are, so far, no published accounts of such studies in order to compare the results of this study with those. When Cortazzi & Jin (2000) published a chapter on evaluations and among other areas highlighted lexical signaling, Mike Hoey – one of those original linguists who developed this concept with Winter and Jordan - commented to his colleagues that at last this concept was being seriously applied in a context well outside EAP (Cortazzi personal communication, 2019).

In recent narrative research in education and applied linguistics, scholarly focus is mainly on relationships between narratives and social issues including power and identity negotiation in narratives. For example, a special issue of *TESOL Quarterly* (2011) on narrative research in TESOL surprisingly does not have articles on linguistic examination of narratives, not to mention studies on narrators' evaluative devices. Similarly, chapters in Barkhuizen (2013) and Barkhuizen *et al.* (2014) seem pay no attention to linguistic evaluative devices. They are not or barely mentioned in general social science and educational narrative research books (Goodson, 2017; Goodson *et al*., 2010; Clandinin, 2013; Clandinin, 2007; Kim, 2016; Riessman, 2008;

Trahar, 2013). Given the ability of linguistic devices to transform raw experience through narratives, it seems important to investigate them in attempts to elicit the narrators' perspectives and meanings (Labov, 2013; Cortazzi & Jin, 2019).

Relevant to the research questions of this study is the usage of evaluative adjectives and verbs which, arguably, convey the narrators' expectations of good English teachers. The positively evaluated adjectives are elicited from the teachers' narratives but more adjectives were found in non-narrative data too which are also semantically similar to those listed above which adds to validity of narrative data. While narrating, a speaker is able to choose from a wide range of linguistic resources as shown in Table 19. It is clear – and remarkable how extensive this range of devices actually used are and how in some narratives evaluation is realized in multiple ways. For example, one clause may contain intensifier, comparator and repetition which might indicate the emphasis of the narrated event as shown in this quote: *This kind of teaching is really, really much* [stressed] *better*… (N 53). In principle, these are language-specific narrative devices including evaluation (Cortazzi, 1993) but there seems no comparative linguistic research which identifies whether and how narratives recounted in Russia, Kazakh or English might differ on this point.

4.3.2 Good English teachers vs. poor English teachers

Section 4.3.1 reported a pattern found in teachers and students' narratives. Another pattern to be presented in this Section has revealed that narrators usually contrast good English teachers with poor English teachers in their narratives. Analysis suggests that narrators choose between opposing linguistic resources thus giving positive or negative evaluations along the five dimensions of the teachers' conceptualization shown in Figure 14 and illustrated with the teachers' quotes.

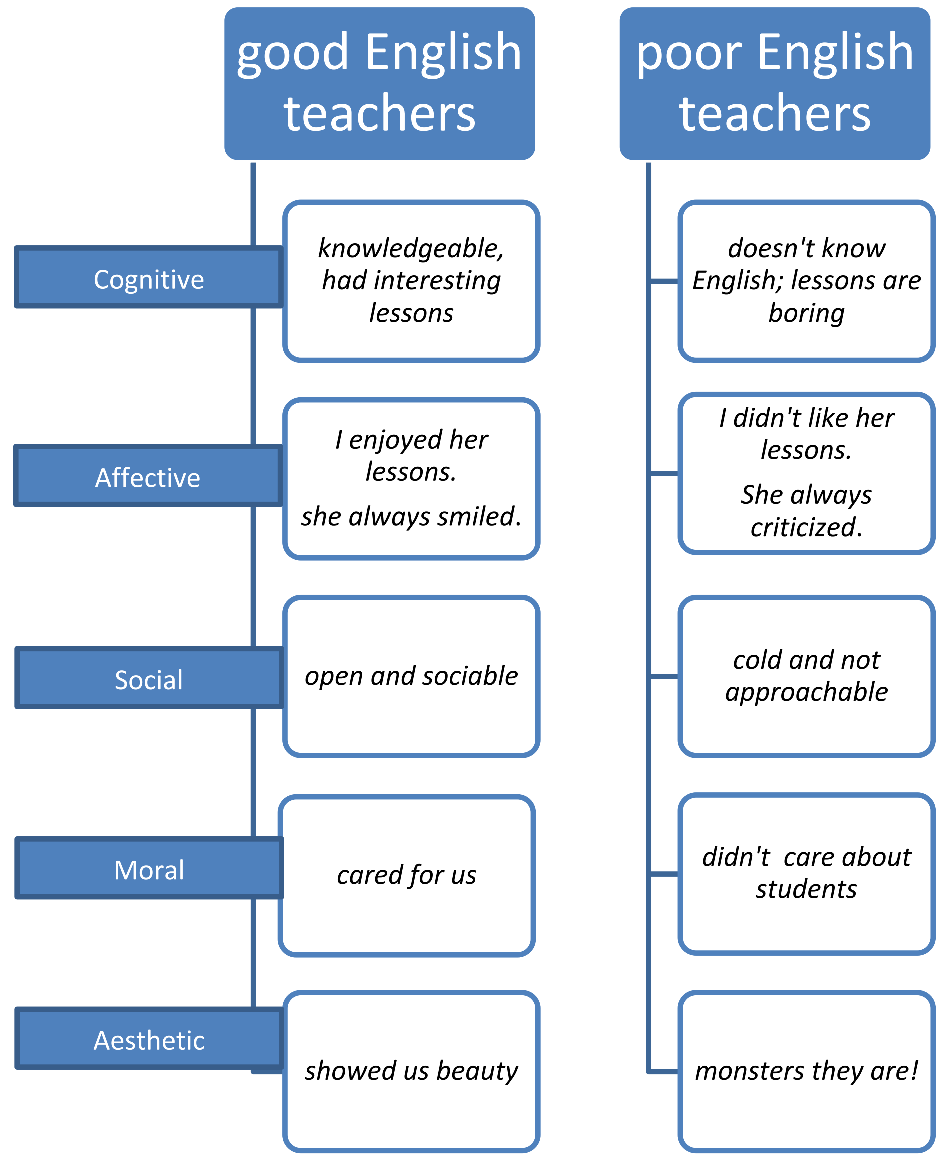


Figure 14 Good English teachers' vs poor English teachers' characteristics based on narrative analysis

As already noted, coding characteristics along the proposed dimensions of good English teachers as conceptualized by participants is not always unproblematic. There are, inevitably, overlaps between some of the features and complexities in identifying a key aspect of the analysis unit in this exploratory research. In such cases, decisions were made based on semantics of the lexical choices, narrative context and checking with the participants when possible.

The most frequent opposition of good and poor teachers appeared in relation to cognitive aspects of teachers' features which accords with the dominance of the cognitive dimension. Almost every narrative contains such ideas as "the teacher knows English well" as opposed to

the one who "is not knowledgeable". These cognitive aspects seem closely connected to the affective dimension of good and poor English teachers' characteristics. It is argued that these cognitive features (or lack thereof) can lead to positive or negative effects on learners and learning as shown below from the teachers' narrative quotes.

> *She taught very well. Before her, when I was at school, in English class we would be given a text to translate for the whole lesson of 40 minutes.* (N34)

> *I also remember her, because before meeting her, my previous teachers had a plan and had to stick to their curriculum. Also learning with the previous teachers was passive, doing exercises and reading without interactive activities. Basically, in most of the schools English is only reading, no conversation, no speaking skills. That's why when I finished secondary school, even though with distinction, I couldn't communicate in English. Only thanks to my university teacher was I able to speak it.* (N22)

> … *she didn't allow rote learning in contrast with most of my previous teachers. We had to analyze information and prepare the final content*. (N28)

> *I don't remember any other teacher of English because everything they did was so-o-o* [highlighted by tone of voice] *common, so dull, similar class routines, similar lesson flow, similar techniques throughout all the four years of our education. There was not a sparkle in all of these lessons*. (N54)

When I was at school, the teacher was an authority. There was complete silence, she would look on us from above and with superiority… you couldn't do anything except doing exercises, you had to be obedient and there had to be discipline. But now, with new approaches, it's different. (N57)

That's why most primary school children lose their interest in school because more often teachers will notice your mistakes

*and they will highlight that instead of helping the learner and supporting. (*N68)

She always smiled, was kind to us during the lessons and presented material in the form of a game. Then we had this teacher, who unfortunately, demotivated us, … the lessons were so boring, we just studied the book. That's it. We had a lot of one-type homework, it was very tiring. (N166)

*…I was a pupil myself; I know how it feels when they just give you information without explanation or interesting approach...mechanical memorization and forcing someone is not good. (*N178)

…usually they say 'do this, do that' I don't want to teach this way. passive way. I want to integrate a lot of other activities, links to other subjects, music, songs. In this way learners acquire English easily rather than just doing exercises again and again. (N215)

As seen above, when talking about a good English teacher, the participants use negative evaluative devices which might imply that those actions might actually have taken place in the tellers' previous experience. For example, the quote '*didn't allow rote learning'* suggests that rote learning was a common teaching practice that this participant experienced before meeting the narrated good English teacher.

Besides, asking about good English teachers did not only trigger memories about poor teachers. Usual or common features of English teaching and learning approaches were also revealed linked to those of poor teachers. Every teacher participant in this study shared a poor English teacher narrative whose teaching approaches can be summarized in the following quote with negative evaluations.

> *A common lesson is like this: there are rules, there is grammar, there is a list of new words. In our country English is taught in the same way: first there is grammar, then you learn words, read and translate, so nothing interesting and memorable* [said monotonously] (N245)

The above description of the 'common' lesson taught by poor teachers (according to the participants) come in contrast with the features of the interesting lessons revealed in Section 4.3.3.a. Thus, it can be argued that stories about poor teachers and their lessons might reveal additional validity to the findings about good English teachers.

4.3.3 Dimensions in teachers' narratives

Examination of evaluative devices in teachers' narrative data reported in 4.3.1 yielded the following combinations in dimensions of the good English teacher concept (Figure 15).

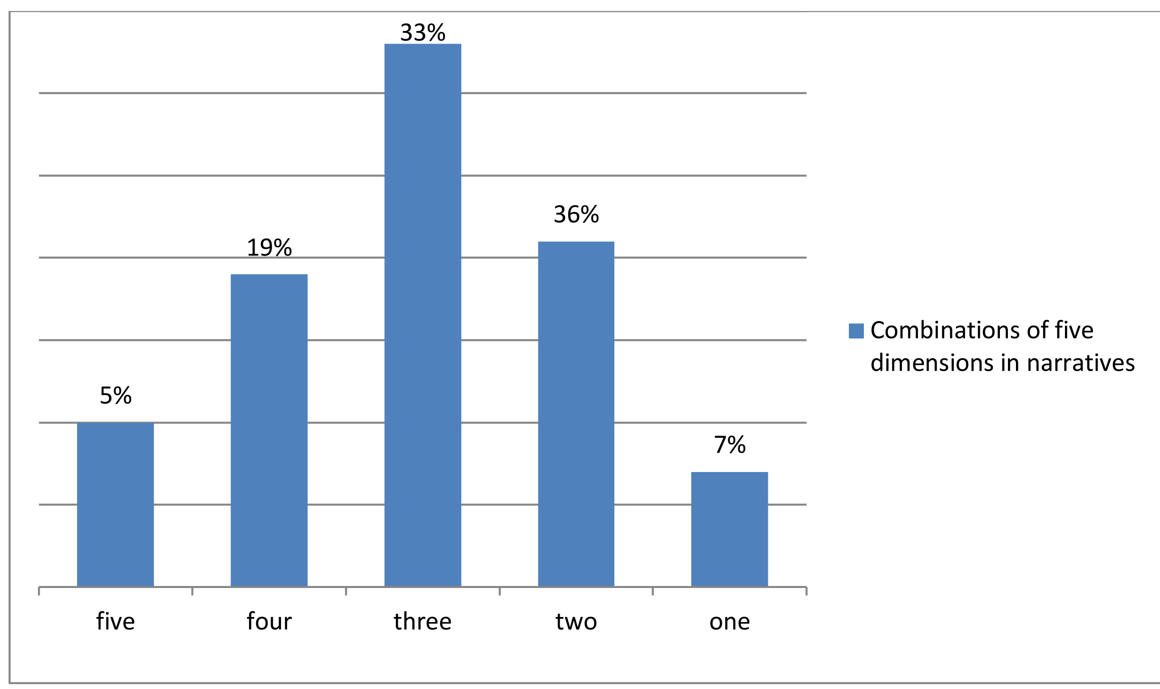


Figure 15 Combinations of five dimensions in teachers' conceptualizations of good English teachers

In Figure 15, labels from one to five refer to different combinations of dimensions found in narratives. Figure 15 demonstrates that in most cases several dimensions are intertwined in one narrative. It is also apparent that very few narratives reflect only one dimension: in such cases this dimension is usually cognitive. Most common combinations are found as cognitive +affective + social/moral. Thus, through narrated experiences it seems that most teachers in this study expect a good English teacher to do much more than teaching the subject of EFL. This

finding that an EFL teacher is expected to perform professionally and personally beyond the technical boundaries of teaching English is in agreement with other studies on EFL teachers (Kourieos & Evripidou, 2013; Cortazzi *et al*., 2015). As for the single dimension (cognitive) in Figure 15, it seems to indicate impact of former Soviet educational practices in which a teacher of any subject was mainly viewed as a source of knowledge (Makhanova & Cortazzi, 2013). Further indications of how the proposed dimensions are linked to each other are shown in Figure 16.

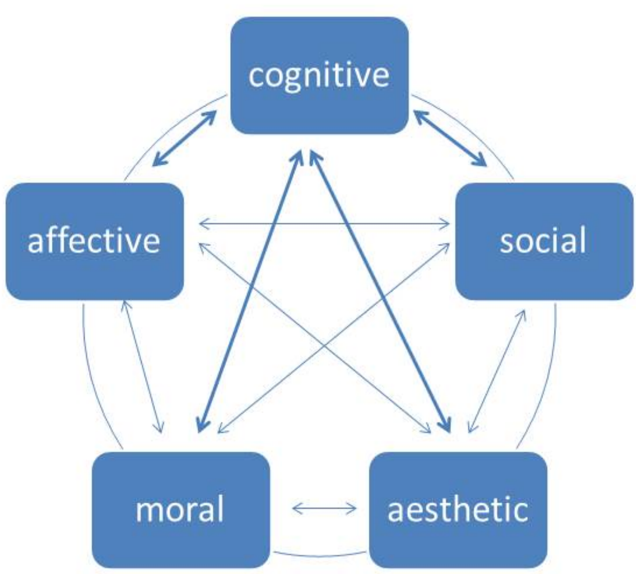


Figure 16 Relationships among dimensions in teachers' narratives about good English teachers

On this evidence, it is argued that teachers' expectations of good English teachers are potentially interrelated along the five dimensions. It is also found that the internal links among some of the dimensions can have more strength than those of others which is conveyed through the line width in Figure 16. These dimensions are further illustrated and discussed in the next sections.

a. The cognitive dimension

The cognitive dimension in teachers' narrative data is the most frequent category and is emerged as dominant. Almost 80% of narratives contain ideas about good English teachers conceptualized on a cognitive dimension. In the present data, this cognitive dimension has the following features: English teachers have deep knowledge and English teachers show their ability to conduct interesting lessons.

These quotes from the teachers' narratives show elaborations of what is meant by "English teachers' deep knowledge".

> "…*Deep knowledge is to do with teachers' level of education. The teacher knows English very well, knows pedagogical principles of teaching English and knows well how to deal with students*…" (N95)

> *"… a teacher has competency to teach English as a foreign language, knows English well and it is also knowledge of psychology of learners…"* (N23)

The data also show that "deep knowledge" is expanded beyond the subject knowledge as indicated by the frequent use of the "erudite" quality expected from a good English teacher.

> "She knew the subject very well and could answer every question we asked... She always gave correct answers. To us she was an erudite who knew everything even outside her field" (N83)

> "Sometimes, students are very surprised to learn from us that it is possible to know those facts and dates in the history, for example. *Of course* [emphasized] a good English teacher should be *very intelligent*, *very erudite* [emphasized] it's necessary to know other relevant facts, historical events and current things happening in the world now and which are linked to the country of the language, to the language itself, for example, language policies in those countries" (N35)

Apart from having deep knowledge which usually includes more than subject specific knowledge, good English teachers are also expected to conduct interesting lessons. To the teacher participants this expectation is mainly related to the pedagogy of classroom teaching as illustrated below.

> "Her lessons are interesting and she uses videos, songs and other technologies which make lessons interesting" (N1)
>
> "Her lessons were always very interesting. She created games on her own. It was very interesting to play those games, we enjoyed them" (N3)
>
> "…her lessons are very interesting. When we are covering a new topic, she gives a task to work in a pair, to create a dialogue on a certain topic and then we act them out and it was so interesting and so much fun!" (N5)

It is noteworthy that the above findings from the teachers' narrative analysis are similar to those of students' expectations in Kazakhstan found in a previous study (Makhanova & Cortazzi, 2013). Although that research on the students' expectations did not propose dimensions in conceptualizations of good English teachers, the student participants highlighted the importance of teachers' deep knowledge of English and their ability to conduct interesting lessons (ibid). As argued by the researchers, such expectations are rooted in cultures of learning in Kazakhstan (ibid). Similarly, in the present study, the cognitive dimension of the good English teacher concept seems to be related to the influence of the former Soviet knowledge transmission educational philosophy.

It is clear from the above narratives N3, N5 and many others in the present data set that narrated experiences normally include a combination of a few dimensions. In N3 and N5 cognitive dimension is closely connected to an affective dimension discussed in the next section.

b. The affective dimension

Drawing on literature regarding affect in second language learning and teaching (Arnold 1999; Gabrys-Barker & Bielska, 2013; Barkhuizen *et al*., 2014), an affective dimension in this study refers to emotions and feelings related to EFL learning or teaching experiences. It is noteworthy that unlike some other research approaches, narrative studies likely capture emotional aspects of learning and teaching experiences (Barkhuizen, 2013). There is a potential to uncover participants' inner thoughts or feelings from multiple perspectives. As demonstrated below, an affective dimension in teachers' narratives includes a range of positive and negative emotions.

> "*She made me love her subject although before this teacher I had never liked grammar [of English]. Can you imagine? To love the subject which was not comprehensible, was boring and complex, you know, grammar was almost like dull math for me. But then I came to enjoy it*" (N7)

> "*It was so interesting and unusual that we played "pole chudes" [*popular quiz show*] in English... So, these games made us interested in the topic and we were keen to know what would happen. We enjoyed her lessons! And, thus, we learned a lot*." (N70)

> **"***There is a teacher who asked us [*pre-service teachers*] to create a film trailer to make leaners interested… For one week I resisted, I thought "I can't do it', I can't do it" She helped me to overcome my fear. Finally, I recorded it and got the highest mark, 98 points. And I thanked her and said that "with your help I was able to overcome this huuuge weakness of mine, my fear…" she helped me*" (N34).

> ***"…*** *we were even encouraged to ask questions. So, it was different from my school years, for example. In school, most of the time we were afraid to ask questions because we would think the teacher will laugh at us saying "why you don't understand it,*

it's easy and the book has rules on it". We were afraid to look silly because when we ask questions that would mean you are not smart enough to get it. I was always afraid to ask questions, I was afraid to be laughed at. But this very teacher showed that it is normal and even good to ask questions" (N4)

It is clear from the above narrative episodes that emotions have an important role in learning and teaching EFL. Therefore, an affective dimension is closely linked to a cognitive dimension in narratives about good (or poor as in N4) English teachers as the evidence here suggests.

c. The social dimension

A social dimension in these narratives in this study refers to social distances between a teacher and students, between student and students and the local social environment. As teachers' narrative data suggest a good English teacher is perceived not to be socially distant from learners in a somewhat formal relationship. According to the data, this apparently large social distance between a teacher and students is reduced when a teacher organizes socializing events both in and outside classroom settings. Besides, this dimension also includes development of learners' social skills as revealed below.

"She creates interesting activities outside the classroom and she visits other places with her students. There was a visit to the American corner of the American embassy. So, she is so dedicated and so committed to her work and wants her students to practice English outside the classroom" (N98)

"He wasn't superior and he didn't look down at us. We were friends and as friends we could even go out together to the cinema and eat ice cream while discussing in English what we have watched" (N13)

"She is the best teacher. She organized an English drama club for us to practice English after school. I was in secondary school and I had difficulties with English. We enjoyed acting out in the drama club and we did it in English. The stories and plays were in real English that we

could use in our everyday life. So, those drama lessons didn't only improve our language but also helped to overcome shyness. Before these drama lessons I was terrified of the stage. But she supported us and believed in us and after many rehearsals we were able to perform in front of the whole school. That was an achievement!" (N25)

"*I improved my communicative skills in general. I mean I used to be shy and didn't know how to take part in conversations in my native language. But because in English we practiced our conversational skills a lot, I realized I could use those techniques in my first language too and so I became more sociable with better communicative skills both in English and Russian*" (N 61)

It is argued that this social dimension is important to teachers because historically due to the influence of the Soviet ideology there was a significant large social distance between a teacher and students (Burkhalter & Shegebayev, 2012). Therefore, the teacher participants seem to remember the teachers who *"… didn't act as someone superior to us and treated us well, we were like friends*" (N12). This quote shows that within the social dimension of expectations, teachers' role is expected to shift from the superior authoritative figure to reduce the social distance from students as expressed metaphorically by 'being friends'. The social dimension is also closely linked to the moral dimension discussed below.

d. The moral dimension

Another prominent dimension found as a result of teachers' narrative data analysis is a moral dimension. This dimension refers to development of students' character and moral behaviour as well as teachers' perceived image of a 'moral guide' illustrated by the following interview excerpts.

"… so, the teacher, first of all, should not be selfish, to me it's the most important aspect. Because a selfish teacher will bring harm to his surroundings. A teacher should be responsible in all the spheres: at work, out of work, relationships, so he should be responsible for

everything he does: for his actions, for his work, for his students etc. in other words, if a teacher is not morally responsible for his work, what can he give besides doing an hour lecture twice a week? He should interact with students and pay attention to moral states of his students" (N40)

"… and she is a really nice person, she always tried to develop moral qualities, at each lesson, she would tell us a story which had a really deep meaning… She would encourage us to reflect on this story and show the way a good person should behave, she tried not only teach her subject, but to work more on our behavior. I adore this person, yeah, she is a really nice person, she is a really good teacher. So I think a good teacher should show how to deal with bad situations, on an unconscious level, I think, they try to give, to shape learners' moral qualities" (N43).

The moral dimension of the good English teacher concept derived from narrative analysis also includes a common feature of students 'as plants nurtured/grown by the teacher'. This metaphorical expression of learners as 'plants' which forms a conceptual metaphor for a teacher as 'a gardener who cultivates learners' growth' is also significant in research on Chinese learners (Cortazzi *et al.,* 2009). The idea of cultivation is richly significant in Chinese cultures of learning within classical Chinese traditions (ibid). However, in this study, likely sources for a teacher as a 'moral guide' have different cultural sources rooted in historical influences of Soviet and Islamic ideas (Makhanova & Cortazzi, 2013).

e. The aesthetic dimension

In narratives given below, it is evident that good English teachers are perceived beyond their professional qualities, including aesthetic aspects. This dimension is perhaps surprising: it embraces not only teachers' physical appearance and choice of garments but also their manners and their overall aesthetic effect on learners.

"… She always has this upright posture, she never slouches and she is beautiful. So, of all the teachers I've met since my childhood she is my favorite not only because of her beautiful appearance but also because she gave a lot to us and she put a lot of effort and energy to support us in our learning." (N4)

"… When I was a first year student, we had a teacher whom everybody liked. And this teacher was so beautiful and she spoke eloquently. We were all impressed by her"' (N 5)

"thanks to her it became clear and I discovered such a nice world of grammar. It was something! Everything was clear and I discovered the beauty of grammar!" (N7)

"Before meeting her, my English was very basic because I didn't like it and didn't want to study it. But she showed how beautiful and how unique [intonation raises] *the English language is"* (N117)

"She was awesome! So elegant, graceful and tactful. Her perfume had such a pleasant smell. Because my first memories about an English teacher are about her, I thought all the English teachers were like her. I was wrong" (N 25)

The above examples suggest that teachers' physical appearance and, more broadly, aesthetic disposition seem important to the narrators. It is tentatively argued that the participants perceive an English teacher in aesthetic terms because of likely influence of the former Soviet ideology. In this Soviet vision, a common phrase widely used in public and educational discourse was "everything ought to be beautiful about a human being: the face, the clothes, the soul, the thoughts …" This quote from Anton Chekhov's play "Uncle Vanya" was generally used in Soviet society to emphasize a holistic view on a person who represented Soviet ideals of ethics and aesthetics. Another possible source of embracing a concept of beauty as part of Soviet upbringing was a frequent use of Dostoevsky's quote from "The Idiot" "Beauty will save the world". Thus, arguably, these phrases were internalized by the participants' teachers who received their professional training in the

Soviet period of Kazakhstani history. As a result, the narrated teachers embodied their profession in aesthetic terms having influence on their learners as teacher participants of this study. An aesthetic dimension of good English teachers' model in Iran was also found as a result of examining students' metaphors (Cortazzi *et al*., 2015) thus showing an ideal English teacher and more broadly English language teaching in holistic terms. Such an aesthetic dimension of the good English teacher concept has apparently not been researched. An aesthetic dimension of English teachers' conceptualizations is barely represented in applied linguistics literature, although Dewey (1934/1980) underscored the significance of "aesthetic experience" almost a century ago. In educational narrative inquiry aesthetics is sometimes mentioned but without empirical evidence (Clandidin 2013: 17, 40).

4.4 NA findings from students' data analysis

As a result of narrative analysis, 509 narratives were found from the interviews with 100 students.

Some factual information about the narrated teachers is found in the orientation section of the narratives. It is noteworthy that the following details are generally similar to the results of the teachers' narrative data analysis. Thus, by analysing the orientation elements, it is found that in 80% of narratives the narrated teachers (i.e. teachers who feature as protagonists in narratives) are female teachers, 80% of the narrated teachers taught English in schools, 15 % were university English teachers and the remaining 5 % worked in private language centres. As for the age of the characters, a majority of the participants reported their remembered teachers as young. Besides, the analysis of orientation sections revealed the high degree of English teachers' impact on learners in primary and secondary levels of the education system.

Another interesting finding derived from the orientation elements is that for almost 30% of respondents a good English teacher is a 'native speaker' of English; yet most of these students' perceptions are based on their experience of learning English with a non-Kazakhstani teacher.

Furthermore, more than half of the students believe that a good English teacher should have an overseas degree or at least international travel experience. As explained by most students, a teacher should be exposed to American and/or British culture to teach English effectively. These student perceptions reveal somewhat stereotypical ideas about native speakers compared to non-native-speaking teachers who are the large majority of ELT professionals worldwide; also these narratives show a lack of knowledge or awareness of global English and of the enormous range of even native-speaker varieties (not just accents but grammar and lexis), besides the other many varieties researched as 'global Englishes' (Jenkins, 2014; Kirkpatrick, 2007; Galloway & Rose, 2015; Trudgill & Hannah, 2002). This shows the need to incorporate elements of these sociolinguistic features of English worldwide into ELT in Kazakhstan, as elsewhere in this region.

However, there are some students who have a contrary view and strongly expect a good English teacher to be a speaker of Kazakh (not Russian) in order to be able to translate and explain complex foreign language rules in students' mother tongue. This finding raises an issue of the first language ideologies in modern Kazakhstan because most teachers having been educated in Russian language medium institutions and raised in the Russian language dominant Soviet society are speakers of Russian. However, students who are born after the 1991 break-up of the Soviet Union are mainly educated in Kazakh. Such differences in experiences and conflicting views in the use of first languages in the same country due to the influence of historical changes add to the complexity of examining beliefs about good English teachers in Kazakhstan.

As for the thematic analysis of narrative structure, the same pattern as in the teachers' narratives has been revealed as a result of students' data analysis. Thus, English teachers are narrated in terms of 1) professional and personal characteristics, 2) pedagogical skills and 3) effect of the previous two features on learners and learning as shown in Figure 17.

Professsional/personal characteristics (What is the teacher like?)	**Pedagogical skills (What did the teacher do and how?)**
Cognitive: *strict (98); professional (56); smart (37); educated (89); knowledgeable (92); talented (75); prepared (96); creative (83); experienced (35); innovative (51); knows English perfectly (47); speaks perfect English (92); perfect (82); fluent in English (97); brilliant English (67); competent (77); objective (69); fair wth assessment (52); intelligent (52); clever (63); versatile (42); demanding (49); effective (35); broad-minded (21); open-minded (2); helpful (55); supportive (38); thorough (11); very attentive (9); responsible for students and their learning (15)*	**Cognitive***:* *taught/conducted (class) in a very interesting way (98)***;** *can explain well (95); asks if everything is clear (84); gives extra support (87); motivates (78); gives opportunities to learn (77); has a thorough approach to teaching (57); treats her job very seriously (67); talks to us in English/class in English (51); advises what to read (35); discusses interesting topics (45); listens to us (87); keeps up with modern trends (50); interesting class with games and practice (85); teaches communication in English (75); understands students' needs and interests (88); listens to students (74); studied/lived abroad (79); answers every question (51); meets students' expectations (78)*
Affective: *best teacher (77); great teacher (91); cool teacher (71); nice (45); trustful (69); role model (49)*	**Affective:** *there was no aggression (35); created trustful atmosphere (78); respects students (87)*
Aesthetic: *full of dignity (35); gracious (28); beautiful (19); fashionable (49)*	**Aesthetic:** *speaks beautiful language (51); acts with dignity* (12)
Social: *easy-going (39); sociable (87); open (58); approachable*	**Social:** *organized events in English (89); took us to education*

(78); excellent relations with students (29); on very good terms with students (51)	*fairs (47); spent time with us outside classes (59)*
Moral: *kind (81); helpful (71); dedicated (49); patient (53), tolerant (45), understanding (38)*	**Moral:** *supported me (72); believed in me (51); helped me (62); showed us kindness* (41)

What happened as a result of the above?

Aspects of effect on learning and learners				
Cognitive	**Affective**	**Moral**	**Aesthetic**	**Social**
I discovered new things; *everyone participates in class*	*We were not afraid to express ourselves; motivated to study; didn't want to miss a class; I liked classes; happiness!*	*I learned to be caring about others.*	*It was beautiful!*	*I became more open. I overcame fear of talking talking with others.*

Figure 17 Dimensions in students' narratives

The above aspects of good English teachers' characteristics are illustrated with the participants' quotes to reflect their voice. The numbers in parentheses refer to frequency in the dataset. As seen in Figure 17, pedagogical skills seem more significant for the participants in this study, simiar to the teachers' narrative data analysis. However, as will be discussed later, both pedagogical skills and personal/professional charactertistics are equally important for students and teachers here.

A detailed linguistic examination of the evaluative devices is presented below.

4.4.1 Evaluative devices in students' narratives

The evaluative devices found as a result of students' narrative analysis are demonstrated in Table 20.

Evaluative category	Evaluative category subtype	Frequency (N=509)	Sample quotes from narratives/examples
Intensifiers	Gestures/para-linguistic features	509	Gesticulating with an index finger, imitating the narrated actions and narrated characters' behaviour, crying, giving an embarrassed smile, looking away at the peak point of the narrative
	Phonology	509	Lengthening vowels, changes in pitch and intonation, interjections, stress, whispering, trembling voice.
	Quantifiers	61	*Many, a lot, so much, more*
	Modifiers	Adjectives (509)	*Knowledgeable, strict, patient, attentive, understanding, kind, professional*
		Adverbs (377)	*Only, very, always, really, truly, so*
	Repetitions	112	*Really, really creative; so knowledgeable, so professional*
	Would	153	*Would listen; would give advice*
	Exclamations	20	*Great! Happiness!*
	Reported speech	10	*She's said that I should try again.*
	Direct speech	19	*"Always work on yourself"*
		310	*She supported us; we respected her; she removed this fear; with perfect English.*

	Lexical signaling		
		50 context- and culture specific	*"London is the capital of Great Britain"* (citation from the traditional textbook)*;* use of cultural concept "*uyat*" (collective shame), proverbs and sayings in Russian or Kazakh.
	Historical present tense	20	*She comes and says..; she shows this and asks..; then we do the activity.*
Comparators	Imperatives	10	*You should listen to your students*
	Questions	30	*Why do they do it?* *Why did she yell at us?* *Why is it so boring all the time?*
	Negatives	356	*she didn't shout; it wasn't boring; she wasn't superior*
	Metaphors	78	*Teacher is a friend, mother*
	Modals	208	*should, need, must, could*
	Quasimodals	10	*Teachers are supposed to teach*
	Comparatives	18	*Better; more interesting; higher; more engaging*
	Superlatives	35	*Best, most interesting, greatest*
Correlatives	Double attributive	13	*This best teacher …*

			This nice teacher … *Hers were interesting, engaging lessons*
Explicatives	When clause	230	*When a teacher is interested in her lesson, students will be motivated to study English.*
	Because clause	227	*She was a good teacher, because she respected her students.*
	If clause	199	*If teachers teach well and speak English well, students respect them.*

Table 20 Evaluative devices in students' narratives

Similar to the evaluative devices found in the teachers' narratives, the students' narrative analysis has also revealed a wide range of the linguistic resources used by the student narrators.

As shown in Table 20, phonological features and modifying adverbs appear consistently in every student's narrative in this study which resembles the findings of the teachers' narrative data analysis.

Regarding linguistic features, it was found that evaluative adjectives are used in every narrative in the students' data set, unlike teachers' use of this device. This does not seem surprising given the main interview question where the respondents shared their stories of English teachers. Similarly, adverbs are frequently used to evaluate teachers' actions in and beyond classroom settings. Perhaps the evaluative uses of adjectives and adverbs are easier and more frequent for the student age group: although they are young adults, their language is still developing (with complex grammar structures, not just with vocabulary) and this might include the uses of narrative evaluative devices compared to the teachers who are not only older but surely mostly more sophisticated in their language use as professional teachers. This would likely be the case when the participants are using a foreign language but also when they use their first language which would be interesting to research further.

Other prominent semantic and grammatical devices include negation, metaphors, lexical signaling and modals. These findings are partly in agreement with Labov's argument that modals and negatives are most common features of evaluation in American narratives (1972, 2013). In this study, negation is the most striking feature used to evaluate English teachers. Furthermore, the student respondents use many more negative evaluation devices than the teacher participants. This is arguably due to the prevalence of previous negative experiences of learning English which perhaps impact learners' expectations. As for lexical signaling, there are no, so far, published accounts of such studies in order to compare the results of this study with existing research.

4.4.2 Good English teachers vs. poor English teachers in students' narratives

Similar to the results of the teachers' narrative analysis, this pattern was also found in the students' data set. Negation is one of the most prominent evaluative devices in the students' narratives around which most narratives are structurally organized: a detailed examination revealed that the tellers choose opposing linguistic resources thus giving positive or negative evaluations along the five dimensions of the teachers' conceptualization shown in Figure 18 and illustrated with the students' quotes. More importantly, this finding is derived from combining thematic and structural approaches to narrative analysis.

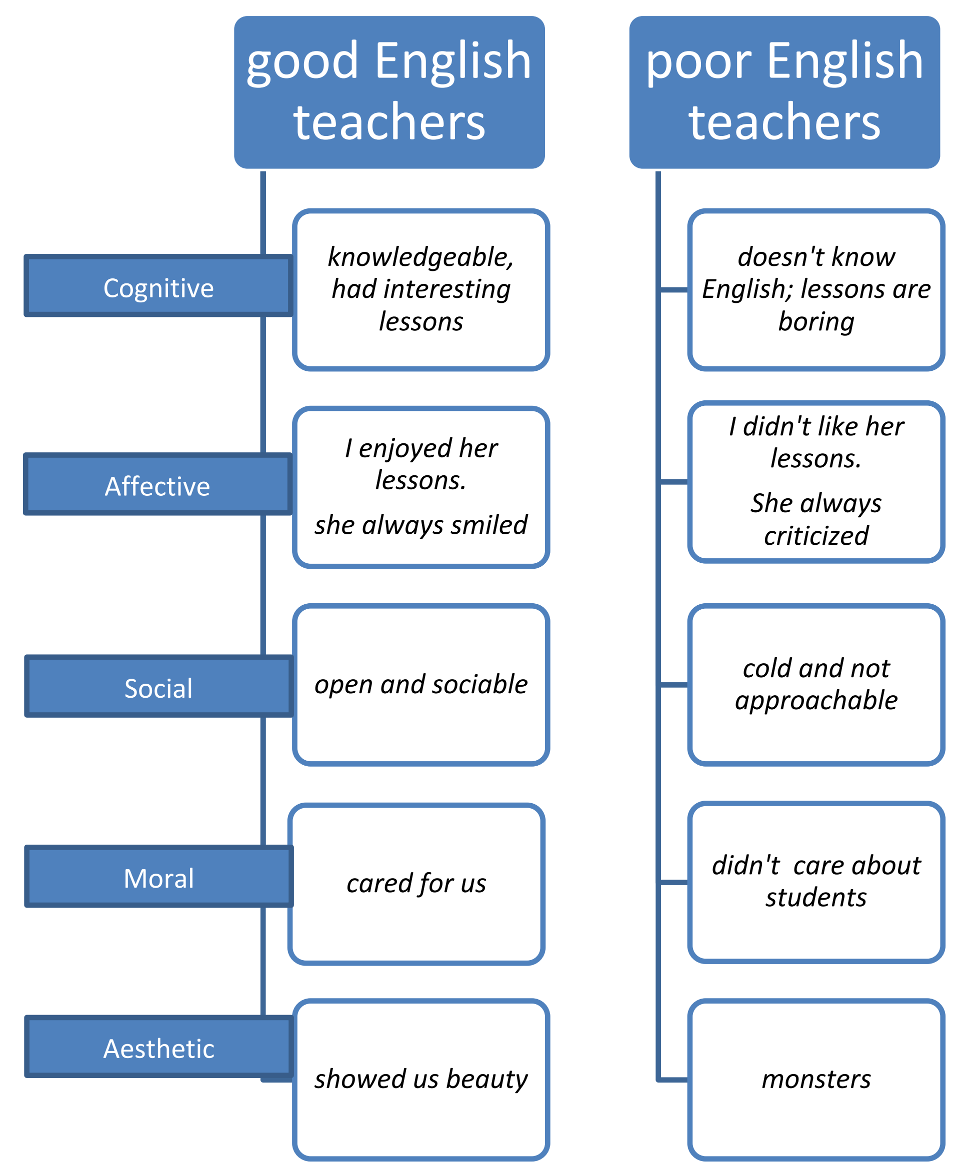


Figure 18 Good English teachers vs poor English teachers in students' narratives

Like the teachers' narrative analysis findings, the most common opposition of good and poor English teachers appeared in relation to cognitive aspects of conceptions about English teachers (which is the most commonly featured dimension). The following quotes demonstrate the pattern "Good English teachers vs Poor English teachers" found in the students' narratives.

… at school there were teachers who were like this … He comes, for example, we cover something new that we don't know, and he is like: "How can it be that you don't know? You studied at school for so many years!" In this perspective, we don't

have something like that here at university … i.e. all new material that we cover, is explained to us. We understand and strengthen that material. And some interesting methods, for example, there should not necessarily be retelling. For example, previously, we were taught…we were given a text and we retold it completely, every word, from the beginning to the end. And this time we were taught: "try to do a short summary, try to explain with your own words. Why you give us the same words? I don't tell you to learn it by heart, right? You try to explain with your own words how you understood the text ". Then you search for new words somehow, formulate new sentences. Something like…your own search. You try to say something on your own. It's more interesting and I like it. (N 13)

… one of our teachers just checks our homework. And I can just read and answer even without knowing English very well. Maybe she pities us for the sake of good marks. But the English practicum teacher is very thorough. She tries to talk to us. I like this practicum teacher more … (N 21).

On the above narrative evidence representing students' experiences, some pedagogic features of EFL teaching and learning in Kazakhstan have been revealed.

4.4.3 Dimensions in students' narratives

Narrative analysis has revealed that students' narrated expectations of a good English teacher are parallel to the teachers' narratives in terms of the five dimensions proposed in this study: cognitive, affective, social, moral and aesthetic. Students and teachers seem to agree on conceptualizations of a good English teacher along these five dimensions. Therefore, in order to avoid repetition of the sample narratives, I will not report separately on each of these dimensions derived from the students' data analysis but will present below narrative features which are found to be different from the teachers' narratives.

Narrative analysis findings suggest that for the students both affective and cognitive aspects are more salient compared to those of teachers. As reported, in the teachers' narratives the cognitive dimension was found most salient. In Figure 19, affective-cognitive strengths of relationships among the five dimensions in students' narratives are reflected through bold arrow lines.

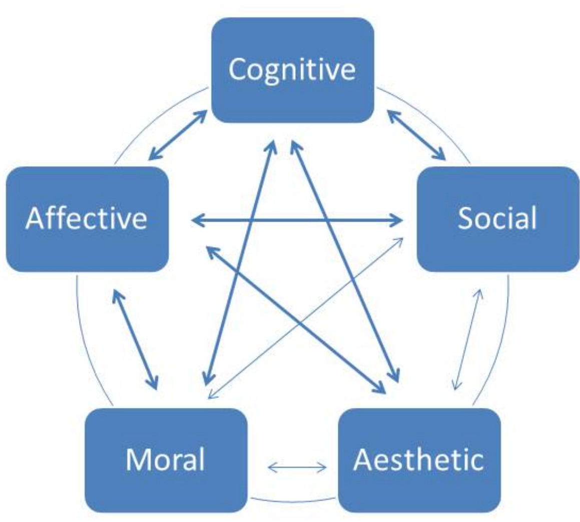


Figure 19 Relationships among dimensions in students' narratives about good English teachers

Affective and cognitive dimensions in students' narratives are mostly found together in combination. Based on narrative data, students arguably perceive an English teacher through their feelings about teaching and pedagogy. Thus, almost every student interview contains such ideas as "*I like it when a teacher uses games*", "*I don't like when there are only grammar exercises*". It seems that students' emotional reaction to a teacher's pedagogy determines whether this teaching is perceived as "good" by many students. Importance of cognitive + affective combination in students' narratives is further seen through analysis of negative narratives.

Negative learning experiences expressed through “Poor English teacher” stories comprise about 30% of students’ narratives. This contrast to the teachers’ perceptions could be also explained by the tendency for teachers in their narratives to present a positive self-image because they are talking about their own profession even when narrating about other teachers (often mentors and models), whereas students might only feel a need to present such a positive self-image when their narrative involves them personally as protagonists, otherwise they are not involved, professionally, in the same way, thus there might be more negative features because of this. This adds to the point about students having had negative experiences of ELT in their past learning.

Almost all the narratives under the topic of “Poor English teacher” have a key theme of students’ demotivation to learn EFL due to a number of reasons listed in Figure 18 “Good English teachers vs Poor English Teachers”. Every narrative in this “Poor English teacher” category mention ‘*motivation*’ unlike interviews with teachers in which this construct of learners’ motivation is found significantly less than in students’ interviews. This finding suggests that for students in this research academic success in learning EFL (a cognitive dimension) depends whether or not they are motivated (an affective dimension) by the teacher, indicating learners’ need for external motivation to learn EFL rather than self-motivation or the autonomous learning orientation.

Besides the significance of the above cognitive- affective relationship in students’ narratives, combinations along other dimensions derived from narratives are also important as illustrated by quantitative outcomes on these combinations in Figure 20.

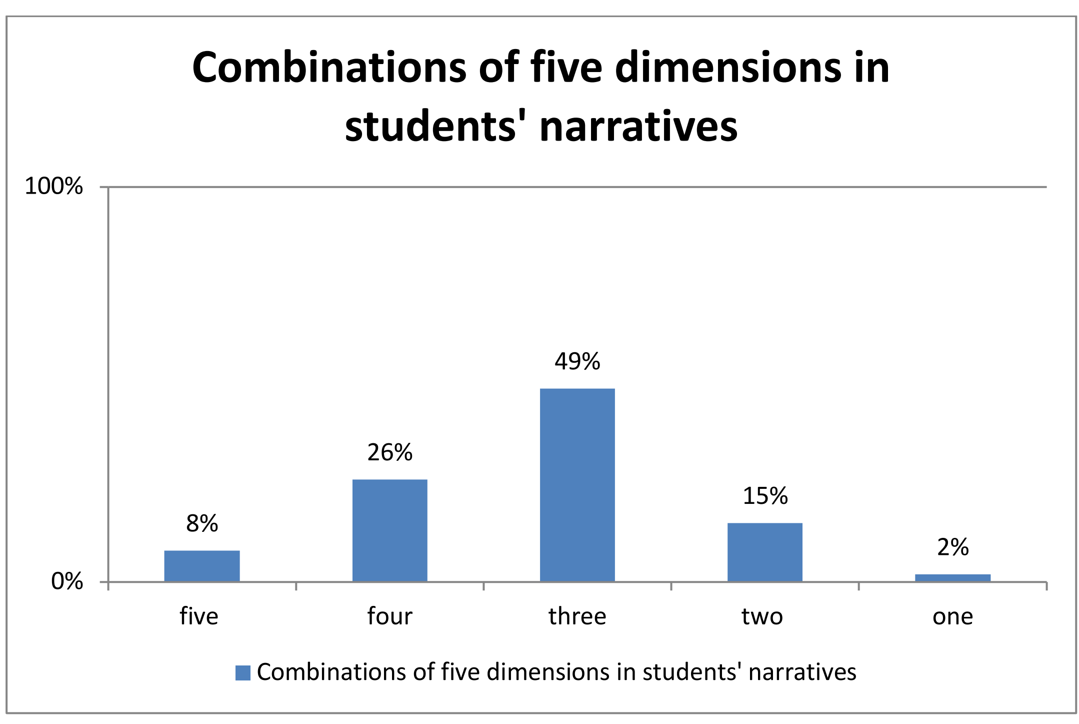


Figure 20 Combinations of five dimensions in students' narratives

In Figure 20, labels from one to five refer to different combinations of dimensions found in narratives. According to Figure 20, more students than teachers seem to believe that most expected qualities combine three and four dimensions of the good English teacher concept.

Furthermore, results from students' narrative analysis contain half the proportion of a single dimension conceptualization compared to those of teachers. This mere 2% percent of narratives revealed only cognitive aspects of the good English teacher concept in the students' narratives.

Interestingly, all the five dimensions are found in narratives of students from a first-tier university (one of the research sites), whose students are all high achievers based on their IELTS scores. A narrative below shows how an English teacher is perceived beyond developing students' cognitive and academic development.

> "*I'd like to tell you about one of the most popular teachers at my secondary school. He was an example of kindness. I remember once we were going home from school and we met him on the street with a kitten and we asked if that kitten was his. It turned out he had just found this homeless weary looking kitten and can*

you imagine what happened? He took this kitten home and adopted it. I was so touched by this act of kindness. That kitten is by the way a very pretty cat now that I usually see together with this teacher on his Facebook page. Besides, he was our friend and we could always tell him about our problems and as a friend he would always listen and give advice. And his lessons were most interesting of all lessons I've had! Once we were very tired when we came to his English class because we had taken an exam. He noticed this because he was always so attentive to his students and he suggested we listen to a song in English and the whole class was conducted around this song. We listened to it, dealt with lyrics and words, phrases so on and discussed the topic in that song. He helped us to relieve the tension of the previous class exam and we felt more relaxed after his lesson. Now that some time passed after I left the school I think that he did not only encourage us to learn English but also motivated us to be kind to other people and animals and be kind to the world and see beauty in this world " (N113)

This link between the university background and likely conceptualizations along the five dimensions in students' narratives from a first-tier university raises further questions. Are these students high-achievers because their English teachers have done more than teaching a foreign language? Or is it the case that high achievers draw on wider frameworks of educational dimensions? Furthermore, as the above narrative (N113) suggests does learners' motivation and so achievement depend on whether EFL teachers possess those qualities realized through combinations of cognitive, affective, social, moral and aesthetic dimensions in narratives about English teachers?

In contrast to first-tier university students' narrated experiences about their English teachers, for students at second tier universities negative perceptions about English teachers is a major theme based on narrative data. Students at second-tier universities in this study mostly complain about the quality of EFL teaching, at least as they have experienced it.

When probed further on these negative experiences, issues were revealed on how the EFL curriculum is organized and delivered in some Kazakhstani higher and secondary education as shown below.

> *"…I was so happy when I got accepted to this university because it's a good one and I thought that they teach well here. But it didn't happen. On the first day, we took a test to know our level of English. Mine was and still is elementary but I was told to be in the intermediate level group. I didn't believe it. Why take a test if they anyway decide arbitrarily which group we are in? I was so unhappy and we all asked the teacher why we are in intermediate group even though our level is elementary because we couldn't make a simple utterance in English. And the teacher replied "it's not my fault, according to the curriculum the first year university students start with intermediate group because when you leave secondary school you are supposed to reach that level" and you know that at a common school it's not like that, when we finish, we don't have intermediate level of English*" (S085)

The above experience seems common to most students at second-tier universities which raises questions on relationships between institutional context and its impact on a perceived image of a good English teacher. Does it suggest that teachers narrated in similar negative narratives have been influenced and constrained to meet institutional curriculum demands? What are reasons for frequency of negative experiences in students' narratives?

All students agree that an English teacher's main objectives are "give knowledge and teach students". However, meanings behind those features are different among students.

One group believes that a good English teacher should "*control discipline, give immediate answers, should be very strict and conduct interesting lessons*". Another group believes that a good English teacher should not be very strict and at the same time should not be "*too kind and should not allow complete freedom' otherwise 'nobody will*

study". At times these contradicting views are hard even for students themselves to clarify the difference between '*strict*' and '*strict enough'*. While there might be different views about 'strictness', this is perhaps linked to immaturity to students: children and teenagers commonly refer to strictness as a teacher quality, with the expectation of reasonable strictness, whereas older or more advanced learners are more likely to see this in terms of organization, management of learning, classroom organization with well-planned and carefully enacted activities since, at university, discipline should not in general be an issue (though clearly it can be with immature or unmotivated students). All the students in this research seem to agree that a teacher is expected to set deadlines and push towards learning objectives. The finding that most students expect 'strict' English teachers might again suggest dependence on external regulation and lack of students' autonomy which might be the impact of students' previous learning socialization or likely teacher-centred dominance in learning experiences. This point can be derived from the following analyses.

Students' most frequently used linguistic choices are a combination of modal verbs and action verbs used in every interview. Usually students do not specifically and explicitly give the narrated teacher's features but they rather express them through verbal and modal verb phrases including "*teacher should motivate*", "*should arouse interest*", "*should push*", "*should demand*", "*should control*". This finding from narrative analysis on students' dependence on a teacher was reinforced by frequency of passive voice verb structures in general interview talk and further validated by metaphor data analysis. Almost every interview with a student contains passive voice clauses in which an individual student's agency is removed from learning processes as in "*we are taught in this way*", "*students are shown examples*".

Students' dependence on a teacher is further revealed through a frequent use of cause and effect clauses both in students' narratives and in general interview talk, e.g. "*if a teacher forces, then students make effort to study*". The relationship between a teacher's actions and

students' subsequent behaviour response is more prominent in students' interviews compared to those of teachers. This finding seems to trace back to influence of behavioral learning theory dominant in the Soviet educational practices in which students are dependent on teacher's stimuli. Such a research outcome is in contrast with the 'Western' expectation that university students and school learners too, must develop autonomy of learning to become self-motivated and self-directed with increasingly less guidance: this is a major feature in Britain as a general expectation (though not necessarily widespread in practice). In the case of Kazakhstan, although the goals of 'autonomy' or 'self-directed' learning are generally getting more attention among practitioners and are officially established by the Ministry of Education and Science, in reality autonomy and self-directed learning are still not common in learning and teaching generally, not only in relation to EFL (Yakavets, 2017; Fimyar & Kurakbayev, 2016).

The above causal relationships between teacher's actions and students' subsequent behaviour in students' narratives are also related to narrated pragmatic values of learning English for students expressed through such narrative clauses as "if English teachers teach well, students can achieve their goals", "if an English teacher is good, we learn English and can find better jobs and study abroad". This feature was not found in the teachers' data. Perhaps this apparent teacher-dependence is not found in teacher data because of dominance of teacher-centred rather than learner-centred approaches.

The pragmatic value of English for students is further reinforced by metaphor analysis results in which a students' conceptual metaphor 'TEACHER IS A TOOL' was more frequent for students than teachers. This suggests that students depend on teachers in seeking better employment and overseas education opportunities because of increased value of knowing English for those opportunities. Unlike teacher participants, for the students in this research, a good English teacher is perceived through students' academic and social success that mostly depends on a good English teacher.

In research on perceptions of good teachers in China (Cortazzi *et al.*, 2009; Jin & Cortazzi, 1998), there are strong elements of student effort and determination but these features are not evident in the present study. This difference suggests contrasting influences of cultures of learning in Kazakhstan and perhaps reflects the Soviet inheritance but maybe also local values which are not from that historical period.

Nevertheless, almost every teacher in this research (unlike students) has reported that good teaching involves effort from both the teacher and students. This difference in views seems to create a conflict with implications for learning and teaching. Students expect a teacher's full support while teachers believe that students should also make considerable effort. Furthermore, some teachers think that there are some students '*who are not just capable of learning a foreign language'*. These teachers seem to be blaming students for failures in learning, thus, diminishing responsibility from themselves as protagonists (teachers) to antagonists (students) in narratives. Similarly, in students' narratives, students as protagonists blame teachers (antagonists) for their *'inability to teach well'.* Thus, narratives are not mere accounts of past events but they are also used to convey the speaker's moral attitudes to the narrated actions and events (Labov, 1972; 2010; 2013; Linde, 1986). From the point of reportability as an important feature of narrative, by assigning responsibility to others and thus portraying herself/himself as a 'good' person, the narrator is manipulating the way a narrative is received by the audience (Labov, 2013). Thus, through the polarization of protagonist and antagonist, narratives are used to transform the social meaning of narrated events (Labov, ibid). This proposition made by Labov is also found in students' and teachers' narratives about English teachers illustrated through the following examples.

> "…*So not everything depends on teachers, a lot and much more depends on students*…" (T020)

> "…*When there is no progress, teachers are always to blame but it should be stressed out that teachers do only 20% of work and the rest is purely students' responsibility*…" (T013)
>
> *"… teachers have to teach well, they should make us speak English and pour all their knowledge to our brains.. it depends on teachers…" (S067)*
>
> *" … I cannot speak English because my teachers were not good enough. They didn't teach me*…*I wasn't taught well* " (S056)

Such a culture of blame between students and teachers is also a major theme of narrative research conducted in Finland (Honkasilta *et al*., 2016). Based on narrative analysis of interviews with thirteen schoolchildren, researchers conclude that it is important to recognize the culture of blame between students and teachers in resolving teaching and learning conflicts for a better learning environment. This feature reinforces an "us-them" polarity and bolsters such an identity of opposition which does not seem to support learning.

4.4.4 Dimensions and narrative research

As illustrated above, participants' own perspectives of narrated learning and teaching experiences can be teased out through narrative analysis. As argued by Barkhuizen (2013), narrative research gives voice to the research participants. Similarly, as aptly put by De Fina & Georgakopoulou (2012: 81), this powerful feature of narrative

> "celebrates lay experience and lay voices and creates opportunities for them to be heard and validated".

In narrative research on EFL teachers in Sri Lanka and Thailand (Hayes, 2008; 2013), teacher participants are given voice by narrating their own evaluations of teaching experiences in those contexts, thus providing narrative accounts of what it means to teach English in Sri Lanka and Thailand.

As for the students' voices, narrative research conducted in Brazil (Barcelos, 2008) found that narratives are instrumental in examining

students' beliefs about learning English which could be represented through narrated experiences.

Thus, the established body of narrative research in applied linguistics demonstrates that narratives provide "access to language teaching and learning as lived experiences" which is the strength of conducting narrative research (Barkhuizen *et al*., 2014:12). However, there are apparently no published accounts of research which employ narrative analysis and very few which integrate narrative and more innovative metaphor analysis to examine students' and teachers' expectations of good English teachers which makes it problematic to compare findings of this study to others.

Further complications are related to methodological issues of some of the narrative studies. In Hayes (2008; 2013) it remains unknown how the content analysis of the life-history interview data, a single method applied in the research, is linked with the narrative inquiry approach of these studies. In other research accounts, there is a lack of explicitly stated criteria which guide researchers in selecting narratives for analysis. For example, in a narrative study by Barcelos (2008) it is not clear what is considered as a narrative.

In the present research, a narrative as a unit of analysis which combines both structural and thematic approaches to a large data set of 762 oral narratives of EFL teaching and learning experiences which is arguably first extensive project of this kind in applied linguistics. Thus, linguistically-oriented narrative analysis has enabled this study to derive narrative patterns as cultural ways of talking about English teachers in Kazakhstan which shed light on students' and teachers' expectations.

Another major finding is the innovative proposal for five dimensions of the good English teacher conceptions derived from narrative analysis of teachers' and students' data. It is noteworthy that in existing applied linguistics research such a holistic view of the teacher which embodies equally important and interrelated dimensions has not been widely developed; though there are certainly holistic strands in longstanding 'humanistic 'or 'alternative' approaches in language teaching (Richards

& Rodgers, 2014; Stevick, 1990; Moskowitz, 1978) these seem hardly mainstream directions and are arguably marginalized (certainly they are not developed in Kazakhstan contexts). As for the field of general education, the importance of cognitive, affective, social, moral and aesthetic aspects of education has been long discussed at philosophical or policy and curriculum levels (Moore, 2004; Fenstermacher & Richardson, 2005) but barely examined based on research evidence inductively derived from the analysis of narrated experiences of participants complemented with participants' metaphors and in an integrated discussion by examining all dimensions to show their relationships and relevance (Section 5.4). This study yields the interesting insight that teachers' and students' verbal expression of educational experiences and ideas aligns at a fundamental level with holistic philosophies of education and many curricula internationally.

4.5 Interrelationships between metaphor and narrative analyses

The research questions of this study have been explored through narrative and metaphor analyses, thus it is important to discuss how an integrated use of non-conventional EMA and NA as research methods can help address the research questions of the study.

Different research instruments are employed in this study to triangulate and cross-verify the data (Chapter 3). It is demonstrated in Sections 4.2-4.3 that all the data support the finding that a good English teacher is expected to have a variety of roles which go beyond purely academic support of learners. However, each data set adds different insights due to a different nature of a corresponding research method (Chapter 3). Thus, elicited metaphor data suggest that there is a link between conceptual metaphors and participants' mental images for a good English teacher. Interview data verified intended meanings of participants' metaphors elicited from the questionnaire. Narrative data validated participants' opinions through oral stories of lived experiences with a strong emotional component.

It is argued here that both narrative and metaphor data give participants' own perspectives and insider voices. Thus, applied in combination, the methods yielded deeper insights on expectations about good English teachers. With a metaphor elicitation task, participants give their own interpretation provided in metaphor entailments. Narratives give participants' own evaluation of the experienced narrated events and characters. Besides, participants' narratives contained spontaneously produced metaphors which support the elicited metaphor data. Similarly, some of these spontaneous metaphors were further elaborated with a narrative. As the data analyses suggest, metaphors and narratives are intimately connected with each other although generally treated as separate research instruments (Hanne & Kaal, 2019). Thus, functionally evaluative aspects of narratives trigger evaluative linguistic/non-linguistic choices which also include metaphors. Evidence from this research suggests that metaphors have this ability to evaluate events and experiences. Thus, metaphors are a primary function of thought (Lakoff & Johnson, 1980) and narratives as a frame of mind (Bruner, 1986) can trigger this usage of metaphor beyond that of a stylistic device. Hanne (2011) has termed this combined view of metaphor and narrative as "binocular vision", which is recently developed by a range of authors (Hanne & Kaal, 2019). The data in this study support Hanne's argument that employing the narrative lens in conjunction with the metaphor lens (Hanne, 2011: 224; Hanne & Kaal, 2019), enables researchers to see the phenomena "stereoscopically", or in more depth.

In this study, conceptual metaphorical correspondences in the perceived qualities of good English teacher derived from the elicited metaphor analysis suggest that a narrative can be constructed based on conceptual metaphor because both narrative and metaphor can potentially reveal participants' experiences and thinking (Conle, 1996; Cortazzi & Jin, 2019).

Thus, in this research, narrative and metaphor analyses are applied in a systematic way which may be expected conceptually to lead to some overlaps as shown in Figure 21.

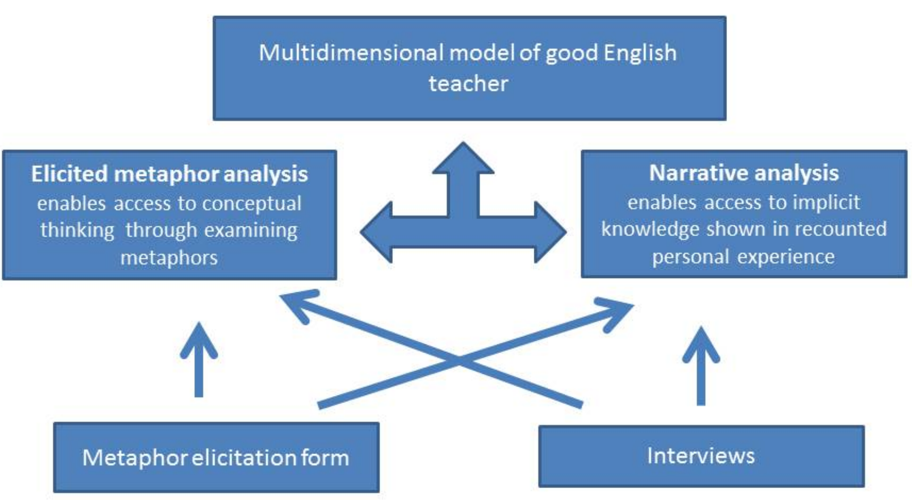


Figure 21 Relationships between research methods

As shown in Figure 21, all the datasets here support one another to some degree in a relationship of triangulation. Besides, how the datasets complement each other is linked to their corresponding research method. It is recognized that the research methods in this study have limitations, yet the data from different sources potentially fill in missing gaps. For example, semantic uncertainties in the elicited metaphor data have been followed up in interviews in attempts to establish a holistic picture and better understanding of what makes a good English teacher in Kazakhstan. Therefore, different sets of data enabled the research to successfully address the research questions (Chapter 5).

Exploring expectations about English teachers through metaphor and narrative analyses yielded insights into cultural ways of talking about teachers in Kazakhstan. Thus, by applying the linguistic tools it has been possible to identify two common patterns of narratives that seem

to frame participants' experiences in this research. Interestingly, both patterns derived from narrative analysis fit some ideas discussed in the Literature Review, but importantly they are here derived bottom-up from accounts of participants own experience, values, beliefs and perceptions, as shared. Knowledge of the narrative patterns found in this research helps to better understand cultures of learning underlying EFL teaching and learning practices in Kazakhstan.

Based on the literature review, this study with an original combination of narrative and metaphor analyses is unique to examine teachers' and students' expectations of good English teachers. Similar research on English teachers in a higher education context of Kazakhstan or other post-Soviet countries in Central Asia and beyond is unknown. Thus, this research has not only attempted to address the gap in current literature on perceptions of English teachers from an unexplored context; it also claims to contribute to the development of research methodology in the field of ELT and applied linguistics. Complementary research methods are helpful to gain a fuller picture of the phenomenon (Chapter 5). The findings show that integrating two innovative methods yields deeper insights on cultures of learning. For example, research on cultures of learning in Kazakhstan which employed conventional content analysis of interview data shed some light on Kazakhstani students' expectations of good English teachers (Makhanova & Cortazzi, 2013). However, investigating narratives and metaphors about English teachers revealed more in-depth how teaching and learning are conceptualized and how this may affect expectations about English teachers in Kazakhstan.

Chapter 5 Interpretation of the findings

Chapter 4 reported the results of data analyses and discussed them in relation to key relevant literature. Overall, these results indicate that teachers' and students' expectations of good English teachers in Kazakhstan tend to be found along the following dimensions of conceptualizations of good English teacher: cognitive, affective, moral, social and aesthetic.

This Chapter takes the findings to a further level of interpretation by synthesizing the data from all the sources and organizing overall results according to the main research questions of the study. Based on Chapter 4, this Chapter proposes a contextualized framework for understanding concepts of EFL teachers, at least as portrayed by the participants in Kazakhstan. The framework is derived from integrating metaphor and narrative analyses and is discussed within cultures of learning, a theoretical perspective of this study.

5.1 The first research question: key features of good English teachers' attributes expected by Kazakhstani teachers of English

The aim of the first research question is to explore English teachers' expectations of good English teachers in Kazakhstan through narrative and metaphor data analyses. Analysis of teachers' metaphors suggests that a good English teacher is not only a source of knowledge but also is seen as providing care and emotional support, as a tool and engages in personal and professional sacrifice. Similar conceptions have been also found in teachers' narratives. Narrative and metaphor analyses have revealed teachers' insider interpretations of what it means to be a good English teacher in Kazakhstan. Cultural ways of talking about English teachers derived from narrative analysis also revealed teachers' expectations of a good English teacher in Kazakhstan. The evidence reported in Chapter 4 suggests that university teachers of English

conceptualize a good English teacher in cognitive, affective, moral, social and aesthetic terms, generally in combinations of these.

One of the issues discussed in Section 2.2 is related to identifying what teaching is. Tsui (2009) suggests the notion of teaching is ill-defined due to its complexity. The issue is further complicated by research contentions in the field of EFL teaching and learning (Freeman, 2009). Arguably, this complexity of teaching activity can be addressed by examining English teachers' conceptualization of teaching; at least such examination can reveal their insider view as key participants, which must be an essential strand of any comprehensive account. The data from all the participant sources in this research indicate that English teaching in Kazakhstan is predominantly (though not exclusively) conceptualized as transmitting knowledge from a teacher to students. The most striking finding is that the expectation of the English teacher 'giving knowledge' was reported in every interview with teachers and students. The significance of this feature is further reinforced by the most frequent conceptual metaphor THE TEACHER IS A SOURCE OF KNOWLEDGE based on teachers' and students' metaphor analyses. While it is obvious that teachers should have subject knowledge and that EFL teachers need expert knowledge of languages, it is not obvious why in the results of this study, language skills seem underemphasized. Some skills are certainly implied in the listed teachers' roles (Figure 12) but as an overall characterization here the emphasis on the possession, development and advancement of skill is considerably less than on knowledge. This seems at variance with the established global orientation within practically all language teaching towards applying communicative skills in genuine context. The latter, however, is officially prescribed in Kazakhstan.

This transmission-based view of teaching and learning underpins not only English teaching but the system of education in Kazakhstan generally (Yakavets, 2017). This conception of teaching seems to be historically grounded in cultures of learning in Kazakhstan influenced by the former Soviet educational philosophy (ibid; Makhanova & Cortazzi,

2013). Thus, the present data suggest that teachers' perceptions of good English teachers are closely linked to broader socio-cultural landscapes (Cortazzi & Jin, 2019). This relationship is, arguably, reflected in emerging changes regarding a traditional Soviet image of the teacher who was commonly seen as "a father or god" (T-07) irrespective of their subject. In the data sets, beginning teachers tend to have different views compared to those teachers who were educated in the Soviet Union in 1970-1980s. The former group seems to have more technical views about teaching, while the latter one puts more emphasis on non-academic development of learners besides academic skills. This is not necessarily only a feature of generational change reflected in different age groups; it is recognized that these differences may be also explained by the influence of teaching experience on teachers' perceptions. However, the research on teacher cognition does not provide consistent conclusions on the impact of teaching experience on teachers at different stages of their career (Borg, 2006).

There is long-standing research to indicate how trainee teachers are significantly influenced by their own experiences of schooling as much or more than the content of training programs (Borg, ibid) but this is hard to assess since observed teaching (especially of those qualifying or newly qualified to teach) is influenced by compliance to perceived demands in order to achieve certification, meet assessed standards or pass inspections. For experienced teachers, too, their cognition is influenced by both external contexts of policies, curricula, exams, social expectations and internal factors related to experience and reflection – but both external and internal factors are part of a culture of learning since they interact in socialization and professional practices mediated by values and beliefs. For reasons of research feasibility, the few studies comparing cognitions of novice and expert teachers within ELT draw evidence from very small participant numbers (e.g. Borg, 2006: 120, cites a total of six studies none with more than 20 participants). On limited evidence, then, teacher knowledge may be deepened by teaching experience and this cognition may be more integrated as a

whole for experts; expert teachers probably see more possibilities for learning presented by their contexts; and expert teachers with their extensive experience may be more explicit in their ability to articulate their practical knowledge and transform theory into such knowledge (Borg, 2006: 119-127). The present study with much larger numbers of participants and using more innovative yet substantial narrative and metaphor analyses, rather than classroom observations or interviews over longer periods, can add to this limited evidence.

In this research, some teachers clearly report that their professional practices have been influenced by former Soviet ideals. Thus, it remains puzzling whether it is socio-political changes or teaching experience or perhaps the interaction of both factors that may have influenced English teachers' perceptions in post-Soviet Kazakhstan. However, based on the evidence here, it seems clear that what constitutes good English teachers depends on how teaching is conceptualized within the given cultures of learning.

The predominance of a transmission-based conceptualization of teaching seems to explain why most teachers reported choosing teacher-fronted activities even though pedagogical practices revealed in the description of good English lessons seem to take a learner-centered direction. This contradiction in cultures of learning in Kazakhstan was also previously discussed in relation to pedagogical foci for language learning (Makhanova & Cortazzi, 2013). Such complexities in perceived good English teaching practices in Kazakhstan are arguably linked to socio-historical factors (Section 2.7). Data analyses show that because of former Soviet educational traditions both teacher-centered and learner-centered practices co-exist in cultures of learning in Kazakhstan. Therefore, arguably, the operation of communicative EFL teaching and learning, an officially prescribed approach in Kazakhstani EFL curricula, is affected by the reality of contextual circumstances to accommodate both teacher-centered and learner-centered practices. However, this may create challenges for beginning and international teachers to achieve a satisfactory balance between these apparently

contradicting approaches. Although these tendencies are clearly in tension, this blend actually shows how two approaches can be found in dialectical harmony in given cultures of learning. The data suggest that the same teacher can practice both approaches depending on students' age, proficiency level, urban/rural school settings and other contextual factors including lack of resources/textbooks and institutional constraints. As one of the teacher participants noted:

> "… *I think it depends on a teacher's behavior, what approach he has. When I started teaching, I would observe my senior colleague's English classes. I was always surprised and sometimes even admired how this teacher could change her teaching. There was a class with lazy students and they even were disruptive at some points but this teacher would make them study because once she entered the classroom she would become very strict and demanded everyone was on task, she would give them a lot of grammar exercises so that they were not distracted. But, then, when she went on to teach another class she was all different, I mean her teaching behaviour. Not that strict. This class would have more interaction, and students' pair work and more communication. But now I think that because she knew her students' level of English and, the second class was much better in English, she knew students' characters', in the first class the students were quite different from the second class. So, I think she does a great job, to be able to find out what would work with different students*." (T05)

Another teacher has also shared that

> "…*you do know that now it is required by the ministry to be a facilitator or someone who does not control but successfully organizes classroom activities but how can I do that? It always puzzles me. Because I know that my students expect me to push them, to control that they do the task and always remind them of the deadlines otherwise they will forget and lose their good marks. I don't think we are ready to fully let go what we've been*

doing so far…I mean before, in the Soviet times, it was all different and now they want us to change all of a sudden…" (T39)

The above quote - similar to others in the teachers' narratives - raises an important issue currently discussed in relation to challenges on 'importation' of 'Western methods' as a way of reforming traditional grammar-based EFL approaches (Johnson, 2016:127). Kumaravadivelu (2006) posits that such a top-down official implementation of a 'new' approach is likely to come in conflict with existing cultural macrostructures that shape microstructures of everyday language classroom practices. As seen in the teacher's quote above (T39), among others in this study, an officially implemented communicative language teaching in Kazakhstan does not seem to be fully accepted: currently this approach does not seem to fit with teachers' conceptualizations of good English teachers in Kazakhstan. Similarly, as research studies in some other Asian countries suggest (Ahn, 2011; Kim, 2011; Hardman & A-Rahman, 2014; Le Ha, 2004), in spite of decades long educational reforms to implement communicative teaching, teachers in these countries seem to continue their traditional ways of teaching (Johnson, 2016). In the case of Kazakhstan, teachers have been found to be translating a new top-down approach into their own context by making it more suitable (Bridges, 2014). Similar research-based conclusions are also derived from studies in South Korea (Ahn, 2011; Kim, 2011; Li, 1998). The researchers agree that EFL countries should modify pedagogical innovations to fit with local contexts. Furthermore, before bringing 'Western' instructional changes to EFL countries, teachers' beliefs must be examined. Hence, underlying questions would be to what extent an educational reform fits with cultures of learning and how more progressive changes can be best managed.

The above context-driven needs seem to explain that expectations of university teachers of English in this study tend to be similar in some ways to existing research in primary and secondary school settings.

Research on university teachers' perceptions are significantly limited compared to that in school contexts (Chapter 2). Although there are few studies conducted in university settings with an EFL focus (Richter & Herrera, 2017; Borg, 2006; Fry *et al.,* 2008), the teachers' data in this research suggest that knowing the subject and building rapport with students seem important at all levels of education. It is problematic to make a more specific comparison of data from the university teachers in this research with other similar studies on teachers' expectations because a majority of reports are on student beliefs about their EFL teachers (Richter & Herrera, 2017).

As shown, researchers tend to agree that the subject knowledge and building rapport with learners are the most important features expected from teachers of any subject (Richter & Herrera, 2017). In this study, the subject knowledge and building rapport with learners which are sharable among teachers of any teachers are also found.

However, examining English teachers' narratives and metaphors in this study yielded some specific qualities of English teachers compared to teachers of other subjects. Given the increasing international status of English, it is important to ask whether and to what extent English teachers are different from teachers of other subjects (Chapter 2). Researchers (Borg, 2006; Brosh, 1996) suggest that language teachers are different in such aspects as nature and content of teaching, teaching methodology and dichotomy of "native and non-native" speakers, cultural awareness and intercultural communication. Furthermore, as argued by Brosh (1996), EFL teaching is considerably distinct from teaching other subjects because there are social, political and practical values underlying wider societal attitudes that are beyond the control of the EFL teacher. In this relation, as aptly put by Borg (1996:3), language teachers' qualities need to be explored "with reference to specific contexts rather than globally". The data analyses in this research show that English teachers in Kazakhstan are under pressure because of increasing demands from society and policy makers in light of the recently established educational paradigm of the

three-language (Russian, Kazakh and English) instruction at all levels of education. This tension is further complicated by the demands from the students who need support in preparation to take the IELTS examination for overseas studies and better employment opportunities. It was found that almost half of the teachers in this study did not take IELTS and they reported anxiety when asked about their IELTS score by the students and parents. Thus, the teachers are aware of the necessity to have IELTS certificates because parents and students question their language competence to be able to teach English. These societal attitudes seem to influence English teachers' self-perceptions and feeling of professional self-worth as revealed from narrative analysis in this research. IELTS scores seem important to be demonstrated to parents and students as part of the teachers' competence, as the teachers' data suggest. Therefore, discipline specific attitudes of society shaped by social and practical values of studying English create additional pressure for English teachers based on the present data.

Summary

The activity of teaching cannot be represented through a list of prescribed categories (Freeman, 2009; Grant, 2015) because teaching is an uncertain craft (McDonald, 1992). Until researchers explore how teaching is conceptualized in given cultures of learning, it seems problematic to capture understanding of what being a good English teacher means. Teachers' expectations of good English teachers in Kazakhstan seem to be influenced by wider socio-cultural factors that arguably shape their conceptualization of teaching. Furthermore, how English teachers conceptualize teaching is likely to influence how learners of English perceive learning and teaching as will be discussed next.

5.2 The second research question: key features of good English teachers' attributes expected by Kazakhstani students of non-English majors

The aim of the second research question is to explore students' expectations of good English teachers in Kazakhstan. Similar to the evidence from the teachers' data, analyses of the students' data from all the sources suggest a multidimensional English teacher concept. Students' expectations have been found along cognitive, affective, social, moral and aesthetic dimensions. Thus, students' conceptual metaphors for a good English teacher are a source of knowledge, a guide, a tool and sacrifice. Although dimensions in students' narratives seem similar to those of teachers, in students' narratives a combination of cognitive and affective dimensions are found stronger compared to teachers' narratives.

The above reported differences between students' and teachers' data support the researchers' view that students and teachers do not always share similar expectations about what teachers do (Borg, 2018). A likely reason for such differences is that students do not have professional teacher education and teaching experience which may influence teachers' expectations (ibid). Secondly, it is argued that knowledge transmission conceptualization of teaching revealed in this research may be a reason why teachers and students differ in their expectations. Within a knowledge transmission conceptualization of teaching, students tend to depend on teachers in their learning. Thus, students' views of good English teacher in combination of cognitive, affective, social, moral and aesthetic terms are stronger compared to those of teachers in this research.

Besides different views between teachers and students, it is also reported (Chapter 4) that there are variations even among the students. These variations could be explained by different individual viewpoints or by social backgrounds of the students. Thus, it is already discussed (Chapter 4) that students from rural places seem to differ in their

expectations compared to those of urban background. Further differences among students of urban background are related to the type of university where the students are studying. Differences between students from the first tier and second tier universities could be due to quality of teaching these students have been exposed to. Arguably, students from the first tier universities experienced better teaching because of high standards of recruiting teachers to these universities compared to those in the second tier universities. Therefore, students' learning socialization might have impact on their expectations. These findings show the complexity of exploring students' expectations due to possible impact of social factors on expectations even though the students in this study come from the same country and are all first year undergraduates. As stated by Griffiths (2008), examining language learners' ideas is a complex process because of a wide range of variables that influence learners. In order to facilitate better learning, teachers need to be aware of those variables that might affect students' expectations of good English teachers. The evidence from students in this study shows that sometimes teachers seem unaware of different social factors that influence learning. Based on students' narrative data, most students are not satisfied with the quality of English teaching. Thus, this research gave voice to students to express their concerns and desires about English teaching and learning.

Despite the above variations in expectations regarding good English teachers in Kazakhstan, all the students in this research highlighted that a teacher is expected "to give knowledge". This suggests that both students and teachers conceptualize teaching English as transmission based. Such an agreement among 331 participants (288 students and 43 teachers) is arguably due to influences of cultures of learning on students' and teachers' expectations. Thus, in order to gain a better understanding of what makes a good language teacher in a specific context, it is important to examine these expectations in relation to participants' cultures of learning.

Summary

Investigation of learners' expectations is a complex process. Different social factors may influence what learners expect from their English teacher. Students' social background and lack of professional teaching experience may explain some differences between students' and teachers' expectations about good English teachers in Kazakhstan. However, despite these differences, students and teachers tend to share a similar conceptualization of English teaching due to a likely impact of cultures of learning in which both groups of participants have had learning socialization.

5.3 Expectations, classroom practices and cultures of learning in Kazakhstan

This Section looks at students' and teachers' expectations of good English teachers as revealed through dimensions of metaphors and narratives in relation to cultures of learning in Kazakhstan. Examining expectations of good English teachers from a perspective of cultures of learning helps a better understanding of conceptions about English teachers (2.6). These conceptions, on the evidence here, are closely linked to key aspects of classroom practices which are frequently mentioned in relation to good English teachers in this study.

As discussed (Chapter 4), both students and teachers in this study tend to conceptualize English teaching as transmitting knowledge. The expectation of 'giving knowledge' is mentioned in every interview which is further revealed in the most conceptual metaphor TEACHER IS A SOURCE OF KNOWLEDGE based on students' and teachers' metaphor analyses. Thus, participants' expectations of good English teachers seem to be linked to this conceptualization of teaching. Furthermore, there is evidence (Chapter 2) to suggest that these perceptions mediate students' learning (Cortazzi & Jin, 1996; 1999). One of such features revealed during interviews is that most students complain about open-ended tasks given by the teacher. This mismatch

between students' expectations of classroom practices and a teaching instruction created a conflict, because students did not believe open-ended activities were beneficial for learning: they "were used that a teacher gives samples" of how the activity should be completed. Students' expectation that a teacher should direct the task completion might be influenced by earlier schooling experiences or socialization (Makhanova & Cortazzi, 2013). Thus, students' perceptions influenced by their cultures of learning may affect teaching outcomes because there is a mismatch between expectations and actual teaching practices (ibid). The data analyses suggest that students tend to depend on the teacher and in most cases are not willing to take ownership of learning. This might be a reason why the idea that "a good teacher helps the student" was mentioned in every interview with students and in most metaphor entailments. However, what the students and teachers mean by the word 'help' seem to differ as shown below.

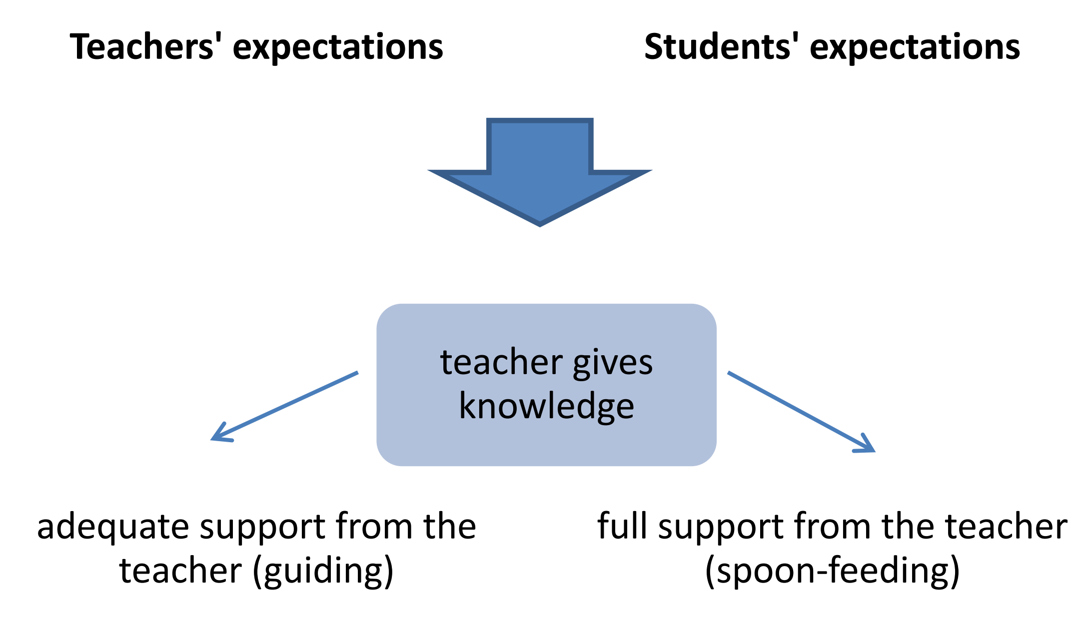


Figure 22 Students' and teachers' expectation of 'giving knowledge'

Figure 22 shows how the expectation of 'teacher gives knowledge' is conceptualized differently by students and teachers. Although both students and teachers agree that a good English teacher is expected to 'give knowledge', they do not share similar views on what constitutes

‘giving knowledge’. This difference in conceptions seems to be operated in class in the following ways.

Students expect a teacher to give ‘immediate answers’, while teachers believe that a teacher should give ‘just enough support’ which is appropriate for students’ age and proficiency level. As said by one of the teachers:

> “… *in my experience it is seen more with small children… when there are primary school pupils, they look at the teacher in this way… that the teacher is great and she/he knows everything and provides all the answers*” (T05).

However, the students’ views are different. Based on the teachers’ responses this difference may be due to a lack of autonomy and self-regulation in students’ learning. Dependence on the teacher is expressed through teachers’ frequent use of ‘spoon-feeding’ metaphor. Besides, ‘giving knowledge’ is so prominent in all the data sets which suggests that knowledge is conceptualized as something owned by the teacher in line with the knowledge transmission philosophy dominant in the Soviet Union (Yakavets, 2017; Fimyar & Kurakbayev, 2016). This might partly explain a traditional view of the teacher as authority in the classroom which is arguably reflected in the following aspects of the classroom discourse. These features of the classroom discourse are frequently reported by teachers and students when they are asked to talk about good English teachers. Thus, it is worth discussing classroom discourse aspects because all these aspects are likely to interact to reveal what is expected from good English teachers in Kazakhstan.

Verbal interaction in class. In students’ narratives a good English teacher is expected to provide immediate answers to students’ questions. It is not ‘appropriate’ for a teacher to say “I don’t know” because a teacher is perceived as an expert and ‘owner of knowledge’. Based on the narrative data some teachers try to change this by asking students to find answers themselves because this is beneficial for their learning. However, sometimes there is resistance on learners’ side to

teachers' attempt to develop students' autonomy. Nevertheless, learners expect good English teachers to create a friendly atmosphere which encourages students' questions. Many narratives on poor teachers of English suggest that students feel 'intimidated to ask questions' because

"the teacher will criticize and say "we learned this last week, how dare you ask?!" (S-007)

Thus, how English teachers interact with learners in classroom discourse is likely to have either positive or negative effect on students' learning and motivation to study English.

Dominance of deductive explanations. Verbal interaction patterns described above are also related to deductive explanations expected from the good English teacher. The data analyses show that the students expect deductive explanations and teacher-led activities. Thus, for many students knowledge seems to be conceptualized as "being poured into brains of students", a frequent metaphor found both in the teachers' and students' data which suggests that inductive discovery from independent learning is minimal. This finding reinforces students' dependence on the teacher which has significant implications for English learning and teaching.

How teachers and students refer to each other. Narrative data show that students expect a good English teacher to know the student's name and refer to the student through the honorific form of personal pronoun "you" which is distinct both in Russian (Вы) and Kazakh (Сіз) from more informal singular "you" (Ты/ Сен). According to the students, teachers rarely use the honorific form of personal pronoun "you" and if they do use it, such a linguistic choice shows a teacher's respect for the student. The teachers' data have not revealed such a feature and their preferred choices of this personal pronoun remain unclear. However, asymmetrically teachers do expect similar respect from the students. Based on narrative data, teachers feel appreciated if students greet a teacher by standing up when entering the classroom which is an

influence of the former Soviet practices in educational institutions and is still present in primary and secondary schools in Kazakhstan as the data suggest.

Non-verbal aspects. The interview and narrative data show that students pay attention to the teacher's physical appearance, i.e. the way teachers are dressed and "how neatly" they look. This non-verbal aspect of the good English teacher conceptualization is mainly found within the aesthetic dimension proposed in this study and elaborated in Section 4.3.3.e.

The above features of the classroom discourse derived from teachers' and students' data analyses suggest that teachers and students seem to have the following expected roles in the classroom (Table 21).

teacher's roles	student's role
• give knowledge (*wikipedia; dictionary; book*) • fix academic and non-academic issues (*gardener; doctor*) • entertain learners and motivate (*actor; clown; TV*)	• mainly receive knowledge (*sponge; tabula rasa; empty brain*) and also • follow teachers' instructions (*passengers*) • learn as told (*programable machines*)

Table 21 Students' and teachers' perceived roles based on narrative and metaphor analyses

Students' and teachers' roles in Table 21 are supported by all the data sets. Interestingly, both students and teachers tend to believe that a student's major role is to receive knowledge compared to the wider and more numerous roles expected from the teacher. But why is this major role expected from a student? It is argued that this is within a traditional view of teaching and learning in Kazakhstan in which teachers lecture

students and students are expected to memorize this ready-made material. Here, conceptualization of teaching includes teachers' and students' roles (Hall, 2016) and, as noted, in this study teaching is conceptualized by participants as transmitting knowledge. The most common metaphor THE TEACHER IS A SOURCE OF KNOWLEDGE shows this conceptual link between participants' responses and perceptions about good English teachers. Based on this model of teaching, there seems little scope currently for developing students' independent and critical thinking skills. This feature might explain why only two teachers emphasized the significance of developing students' critical and creative thinking; none of the students mentioned these skills. As Yakavets (2017) argue, the Soviet ideology limited self-expression, hence critical thinking in educational institutions is not common as part of learning goals in the present Kazakhstani system of education.

The apparent dominance of knowledge transmission seems contradicted by the overall strength of the five dimensions, but the cultures of learning perspective is broader and the NA and EMA have revealed the broader – or deeper – dimensions and, further, has shown how the dimensions work in conjunction and combinations with each other. This finding raises a question: are the existing knowledge transmission features of teaching and learning and the identified dimensions contradictory? Perhaps, such an outcome reflects an ongoing process of social and cultural change in education. Furthermore, the approach to research and specific research questions affects findings: in this teacher-researcher's experience just observing ELT classrooms or talking generally in interviews gives the knowledge-transmission impression while narrative and metaphor approaches examine experience and values in a different way and, here, yield the more complex picture of multiple dimensions. All this shows the complexity of concepts of 'good' teachers and perhaps how some ideas are in tension with each other (knowledge transmission, socio-cultural ideas about learning, communicative approaches, wider international

perspectives, holistic educational thinking). After all, one should not expect a single uniform idea in any cultures of learning.

Furthermore, ELT in Kazakhstan has various strands (Section 2.7.2) which make learning and teaching English different. Figure 23 is an overview of the research findings in relation to ELT strands of Kazakhstani cultures of learning. This Figure (23) integrates the theoretical perspective, methodological assumptions and empirical evidence of this study.

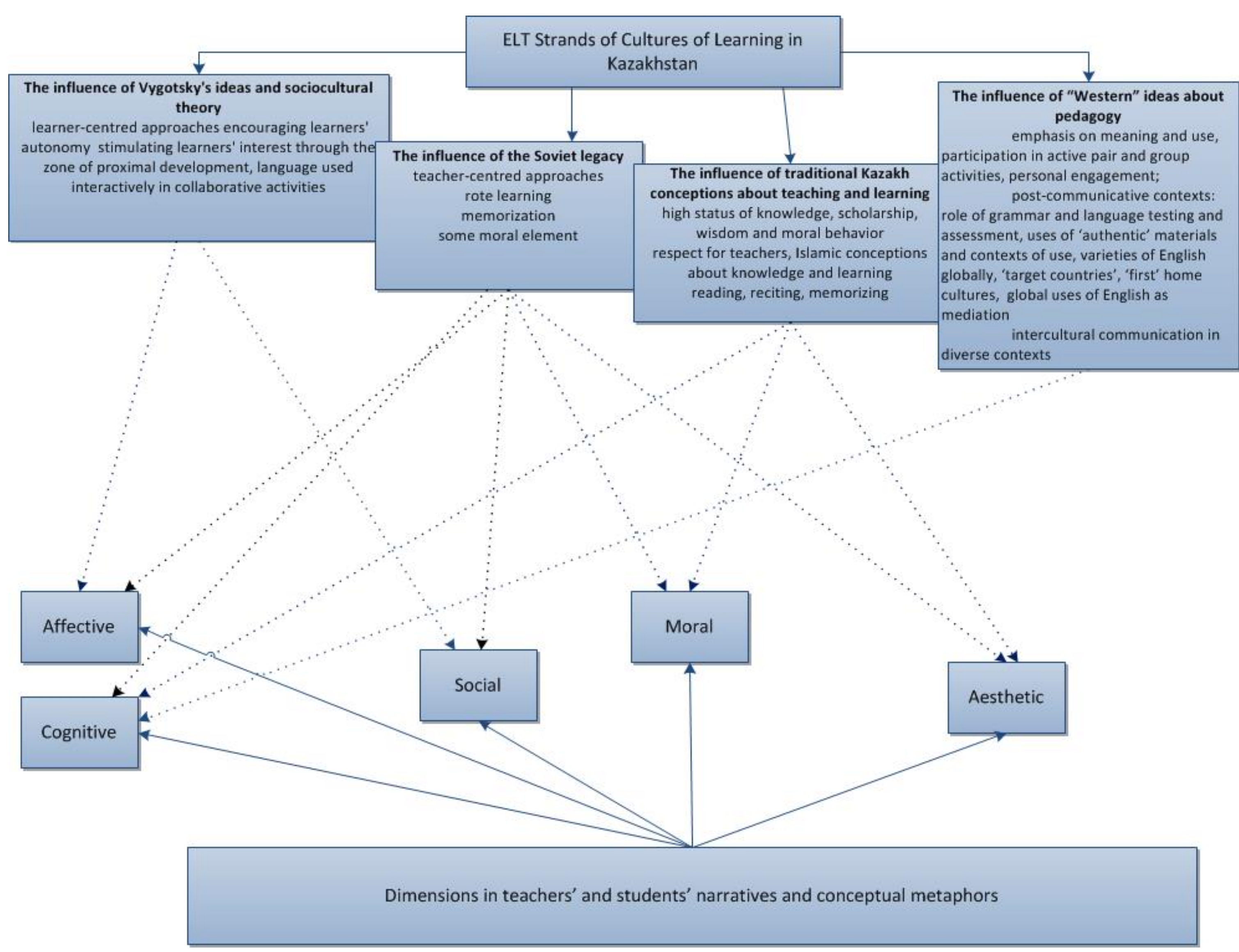


Figure 23 ELT Strands of Cultures of Learning in Kazakhstan and dimensions in narratives and conceptual metaphors about good English teachers

The five identified dimensions in metaphors and narratives about good English teachers in Kazakhstan are tentatively linked to the various strands of cultures of learning as illustrated in Figure 23. The dimensions might combine features of several ELT strands due to likely overlaps among the strands of cultures of learning. On the evidence of this study, modern day educational values in Kazakhstan seem to have a surprisingly complex underlying foundation. Ideas from each strand arguably make up common thinking which perhaps influences teachers' and students' perceptions.

According to Figure 23, the four ELT strands of Kazakhstani cultures of learning are overlapped with varying emphases influencing the dimensions in the participants' metaphors and narratives. As argued by Fimyar (2014), educational culture in Kazakhstan is an interesting mixture of old and new, local and international. This argument seems also valid in relation to ELT strands in Kazakhstani cultures of learning.

Summary

This section summarizes key aspects of conceptualizations of good English teachers by synthesizing findings from teachers' and students' data analyses. Narrative analysis enabled this researcher to capture what the participants mean when they talk from their personal stories of experience about qualities expected from good English teachers. Even though teachers and students report similar features expected from good English teachers in Kazakhstan, this linguistically-oriented narrative analysis revealed differences in teachers' and students' implied meanings behind those expected features. It is also argued in the above discussion that cultures of learning in Kazakhstan seem to shape classroom discourse aspects, teachers' and students' expected roles in and beyond the classroom. Examining these features enabled this research to reveal different dimensions of good English teachers in which they are expected to teach EFL, provide emotional support to learners, cultivate moral, social and aesthetic growth of learners. These

dimensions in teachers' and students' metaphors and narratives relate to ELT strands of Kazakhstani cultures of learning despite the dominance of the knowledge transmission classroom practices. Such insights into expectations of good English teachers are derived from an innovative research approach of this study towards something more attuned to participants' experience, value and beliefs about good teaching, and their cultures of learning within both international ELT and local contexts. Such a holistic multifaceted view on the teacher clearly indicates a need to shift from a traditional check-list approach that evaluates teachers in terms of prescribed teaching strategies.

5.4 A holistic framework of concepts of EFL teachers

This section proposes a contextualized framework of concepts of EFL teachers based on the empirical evidence of research and theoretical perspective of cultures of learning. The framework synthesizes findings derived from analyses of teachers' and students' interview, narrative and metaphor data and, thus, contributes to the current literature in several ways. Firstly, the framework is empirically grounded on qualitative and quantitative analyses of 331 research participants' responses. It is derived from combining narrative and metaphor analyses; an original combination of these more innovative research methods which has not been reported so far in the fields of general education and applied linguistics to examine ideas about good English teachers in higher education context. Currently, studies which investigate both English teachers' and students' views through a combination of narrative and metaphor analyses are scarce (apart from Jin & Cortazzi's research, cited here) and are absent in Central Asian contexts. Therefore, the framework is, arguably, a tentative representation of EFL teacher concept based on the data from teachers and students in Kazakhstan. The framework proposes empirically-derived categories that contribute to a better understanding of the EFL teacher concept as illustrated in Figure 24.

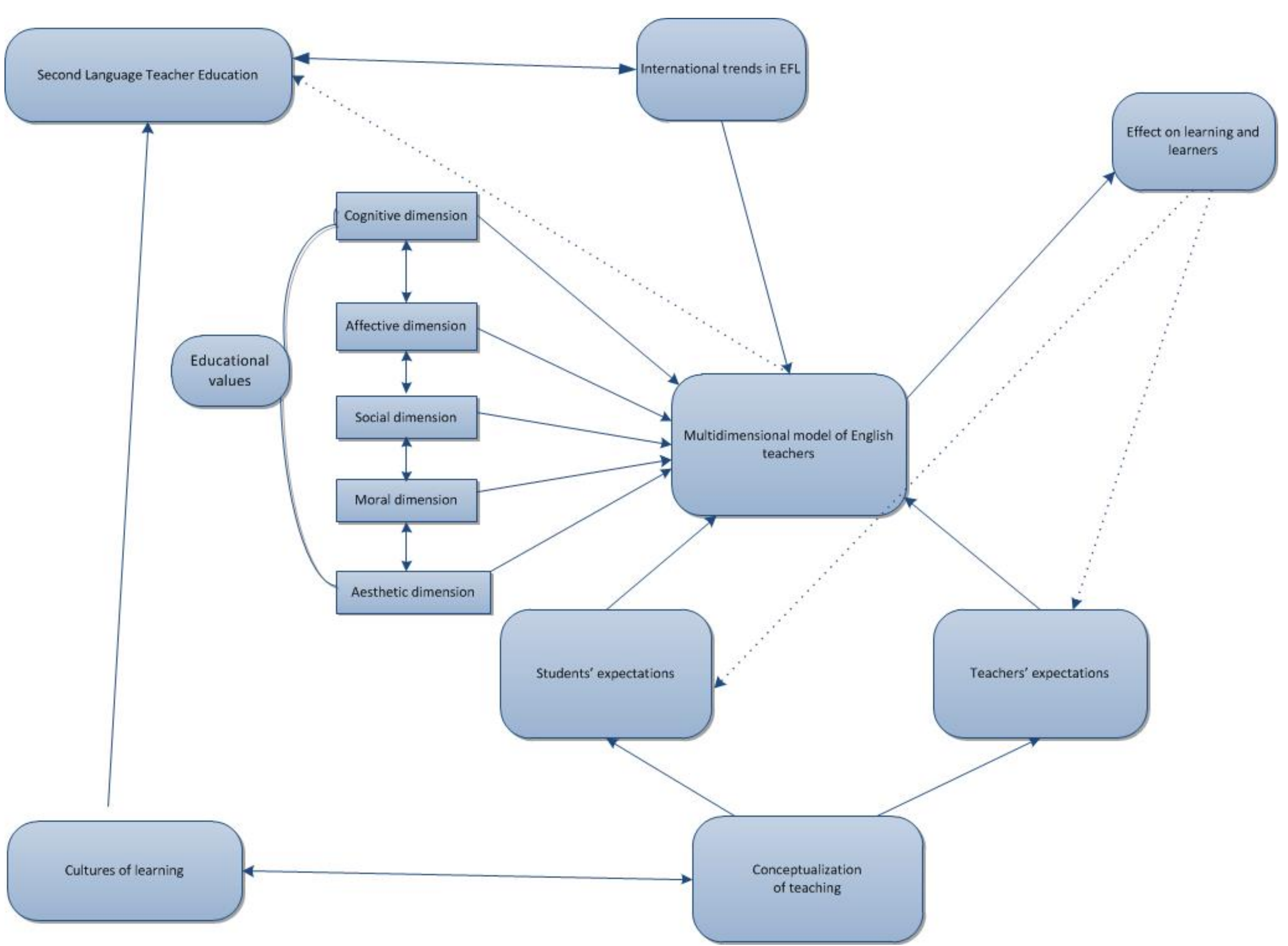


Figure 24 A holistic framework of concepts of EFL teachers

This framework (Figure 24) demonstrates the factors associated with the EFL teacher concept based on findings of this research. Cultures of learning play a significant role in exploring the EFL teacher concepts.

Cultures of learning influence participants' conceptualizations of teaching (5.1-5.2). How teachers and students conceptualize teaching is likely to shape their expectations about a good English teacher. The data from students and teachers here suggest that conceptualization of the English teacher is shared by both groups along five dimensions of the perceived image of the English teacher. Thus, this model of teachers includes equally important interrelated cognitive, affective, social, moral and aesthetic dimensions. For ELT this is also framed by international ELT or global Englishes, notions about varieties and change, which may push ELT in Kazakhstan towards newer cultures of learning, especially if there are international teachers and students among participants.

Both narrative and metaphor data indicate that the participants tend to perceive an English teacher beyond academic development of learners (Chapter 4). This feature is particularly shown through the ratio of the significant number of positive metaphors and the tiny proportion of negative ones. Possibly, this finding could be explained 1) by influences of strong Soviet-era and Kazakh traditions of showing respect and value for teachers, so teachers' images are mostly positive; 2) teacher participants are likely to appreciate how no other teacher is ideal but emphasize positive aspects in metaphors as they are themselves teachers and so, perhaps, highlight a positive self-image in professional portrayal rather than confessing weaker points; 3) students may be reluctant to share negative images to a researcher who is known to be a teacher (worthy of respect), yet the fact that there are indeed some negative images might be taken as a sign of honesty or validity: students feel they express their opinions freely; 4) perhaps, given the innovative method which neither teacher nor student participants have seen before, they answer with positive trends and maybe further probing would reveal more negative characteristics.

Furthermore, the two narrative patterns of talking about English teachers derived from teachers' and students' narrative analyses suggest that learning and learners' development seem to depend on whether and how the English teacher possesses qualities conceptualized along the proposed five dimensions of the model of English teacher. Within the narrative pattern of "Good English Teacher vs. Poor English Teacher" narrated good English and poor English teacher characters are opposed to each other in cognitive, affective, social, moral and aesthetic terms (Chapter 4). The data analyses suggest that there is a positive effect on learning and learners' development, if an English teacher demonstrates perceived features along the dimensions but if a teacher lacks some or most those perceived qualities, this seems to have a negative impact on learning and learners' development.

While English teachers' effect on learning and leaners is an outcome, it is also constructive of teachers' and students' further expectations. Thus, effective teaching and learning over time modify these expectations in a cycle or series of cycles. Similarly - though not in this model - the acts of formulating narratives, narrating and receiving narratives and of formulating, expressing and working out the entailments or getting the implications of metaphors not only reflect but also construct and constitute thinking about experience and good English teachers, that is, a two way relationship.

The dimensions identified here are arguably linked to educational values because fundamental purposes of education are to cultivate and promote learners (Section 2.2) cognitively, affectively, socially, morally and aesthetically. Good teachers are expected to "spark young generation" (frequent metaphor in this study), i.e. the teacher initiates the process of discovery and exploration. The British educational philosopher Peters (1966) argues that central to the concept of education is the idea of teachers initiating and inducting learners into worthwhile activities and values; in this sense, the teacher is a carrier of educational values (Brown, 2009).

Another aspect of the proposed framework is how a multidimensional model of English teacher might relate to Second Language Teacher Education (SLTE) design. It is argued here that teaching is conceptualized as knowledge transmission-based due to influences of cultures of learning. Such a conceptualization of teaching is reflected in teacher education programs in Kazakhstan (Yakavets, 2017) and is illustrated in the above figure through a continuous line. The most frequent conceptual metaphor of teacher as a source of knowledge revealed in this research supports influence of SLTE on the perceived image of English teacher.

The second dotted line indicating the relationship between the multidimensional model of English teacher and SLTE shows that evidence from this research can have implications for SLTE design. The inductively-constructed multidimensional model of English teacher calls for the need of looking at SLTE holistically beyond knowledge transmission view of teaching and learning. Moreover, the multidimensional model of English teacher, arguably, reflects participants' holistic thinking about English teachers which embodies multiple functions and roles expected from teachers.

Such a holistic view is also important beyond the fields of SLTE and ELT. In education, the identified dimensions of this study can be linked with the notion of 'multiple intelligences' (Gardner, 1999; 2008; Christison, 2017; Berman, 1998) including linguistic (verbal); logical (mathematical); musical; visual (spatial); kinesthetic (bodily); interpersonal; intrapersonal; naturalistic (environmental) and possibly spiritual and existential. A broad view to learning based on these multiple intelligences has become popular as a way to complement purely cognitive or knowledge-based approaches to learning. These multiple intelligences correlate but loosely with overlaps to the dimensions in this research. Other relevant notions in education and language learning include 'emotional intelligence' (Goleman, 2006) and more recently 'cultural intelligence' (Oaska-Panikwia, 2018). The ideas associated with emotional and cultural intelligences are closely linked to

the affective (self-awareness and self-regulation), social (social skills) and cognitive (cultural intelligence) dimensions found in this study. These intelligences currently promoted in the field education apply their ideas to learning but the dimensions proposed in this study are in a way more abstract and thus more general to a holistic view.

5.5 Summary

The results of students' and teachers' metaphor and narrative analyses have successfully addressed the research questions of this study. The aim of the first research was to explore key features of good English teachers' attributes expected by Kazakhstani teachers of English. It was found that the teachers' expectations of good English teachers have cognitive, affective, social, moral and aesthetic dimensions of the EFL teacher concept. The second research question dealt with key features of good English teachers' attributes expected by Kazakhstani students of non-English majors. Similar to the teachers' expectations, the students' perceptions of good English teachers can be also found on the cognitive, affective, social, moral and aesthetic dimensions of the EFL teacher concept. Thus, good English teachers are expected to do far more than teaching EFL. Arguably, these dimensions in teachers' and students' narratives and metaphors can be explained by likely influences of cultures of learning in Kazakhstan. On the evidence here, the identified dimensions are related to the four ELT strands of cultures of learning in Kazakhstan.

Through integrating a theoretical perspective and results of the study this Chapter proposed a framework for understanding concepts of EFL teachers to capture a multifaceted nature of being an EFL teacher. Rather than prescribing a fixed set of pre-determined characteristics which seems to be a traditional way of examining English teachers in current literature, this framework offers a nonconventional landscape that, arguably, shows an EFL teacher in holistic terms. Such a shift in theory and practice should help gain a better understanding of EFL

teacher concepts which is likely to enhance English teaching and learning activity.

Chapter 6 Conclusions: contributions, limitations and further research

6.1 Conclusion

This study set out to investigate students' and teachers' expectations and experiences of good English teachers in an unexplored context of Kazakhstan. The previous accounts of research fail to examine participants' views in relation to their cultures of learning but rather focus on English teachers' characterization without much attention to EFL cultural contexts. Furthermore, much current literature and official practices are mainly on assessment and evaluation of teachers' efficacy which do not seem to recognize human dimensions in teaching and learning a foreign language.

The results of the data analyses answer the main research questions of the study. Firstly, both teachers' and students' expectations of good English teachers have been found along combinations of cognitive, affective, social, moral and aesthetic dimensions of the good English teacher conceptualization. This finding is supported by the results of both metaphor and narrative analyses. Thus, these findings reveal rather high expectations of English teachers. They are expected to have a deep knowledge of English, provide emotional care and help beyond academic studies, cultivate academic and personal growth, exemplify moral and aesthetic ideals. Such a conceptualization of a good English teacher seems to be influenced by cultures of learning. In Kazakhstan this may be surprising since there is a clear knowledge-transmission heritage. Thus, examining teachers' and students' narratives and metaphors revealed some features of former Soviet practices in cultures of learning in Kazakhstan, but the identified cultures of learning are not limited to this historical strand. Analyzing narratives structurally as a particular sequence of events yielded two narrative patterns as cultural 'ways of talking' about good English teachers in Kazakhstan and by further thematic NA of evaluative parts in narratives it was

possible to tease out key features of students' and teachers' expectations about good English teachers in Kazakhstan. As a result of elicited metaphor analysis, an impressively wide range of roles expected from good English teachers have been identified. Thus, conceptual metaphors underlying the metaphor data also reveal core expectations about good English teachers. As demonstrated by the empirical evidence of this study, by combining linguistically oriented narrative and metaphor analyses it is possible to examine expectations about good English teachers as part of cultures of learning in Kazakhstan, and presumably through methods in many contexts elsewhere.

The findings of this research are consistent with prior research on good teachers (e.g. reviewed by Ko & Sammons, 2013) and the importance of examining students' and teachers' views in relation to cultures of learning established by the previous research of Jin & Cortazzi (see Chapter 2). Investigating teacher's views within their cultural contexts has been emphasized over the years (Farrell, 2016; Tsui, 2009; Borg, 2003; 2010; 2018; Woods, 1996). Similarly, the importance of examining English learners' expectations lies within learner-centered approaches (Griffiths, 2008; Norton & Toohey, 2001; Brown, 2009; Nunan, 1988) in which much attention is required to cultural contexts of learners. As the evidence of this study shows, it is important to research teachers' and students' expectations of good English teachers within their cultures of learning in order to better understand teaching and learning. Such a perspective revealed that teaching English should not be seen exclusively as implementing checklists imposed top down; rather being an English teacher as aptly put by Farrell (ibid) is not a linear job and, indeed, through examining metaphors and narratives in this study, it was found that conceptions about a good English teacher are not at all one-dimensional. Good English teachers have a multidimensional image as perceived by both teachers and students in this study. This multidimensional model is a key feature of the proposed framework on the concept of the good English teacher which considers

the field of EFL in holistic terms to show dynamic and diverse nature of relationships between various aspects of this framework. Cultures of learning arguably include such inherent elements underlying teachers' and students' conceptualizations of teaching which further shape expectations and practices of good English teachers. Another impact of cultures of learning is in its influence on second language teacher education (SLTE) and, in the case of this study, SLTE is often conceptualized as transmitting knowledge which could be reconsidered by a multidimensional model of the good English teacher. Other key conclusions based on the research findings include theoretical and methodological perspectives as well as implications for SLTE and practices of learning and teaching EFL presented next.

6.2 Contributions of this study

Theoretical contributions

This study investigated teachers' and students' expectations of good English teachers in Kazakhstan from the perspective of cultures of learning. The theoretical underpinnings of applying cultures of learning are multidisciplinary and grounded in the fields of education, psychology, linguistics and cultural studies (Yuan & Xie, 2013). Based on the research evidence, this study reveals the importance of taking a holistic view to better understand teachers' and students' conceptions of EFL teachers and teaching. Approached theoretically from the perspective of cultures of learning, this holistic framework derived from the data analysis here does not represent a fixed model; rather as demonstrated by Jin & Cortazzi's research on cultures of learning, the framework introduces a holistic way of considering the ever-developing field of EFL in which cultures of learning are a complex and dynamic notion which embraces a diversity of views and practices. In this holistic framework, cultures of learning are likely to influence teachers' and students' conceptualizations of teaching; subsequently, these conceptualizations might shape students' and teachers' expectations of good English teachers which, in turn, affect teaching and learning

practices. Expectations of good English teachers in Kazakhstan have a complex nature and are found along equally important and interconnected five dimensions of the good English teacher concepts. Such a holistic view goes far beyond knowledge-based or skill-development view: not only this supports recent thinking on reconceptualizing the second language teacher education (SLTE) knowledge base (Larsen-Freeman, 2012; Burns & Richards, 2012) but also provides an alternative context to theorize the SLTE scope (Larsen-Freeman, ibid).

Furthermore, examining expectations of good English teachers from the perspective of cultures of learning contributes to a deeper understanding of a wider range of EFL communities – using Kazakhstan as an exemplifying case study - to draw a better picture of global English practices (Canagarajah, 2012), which are necessarily diverse.

In accordance with established current literature (Grant, 2015; Larsen-Freeman, 2012; Burns & Richards, 2012), this study shows how teaching is a complex activity and cannot be reduced to simplistic or binary terms and adequately understood through centrally-disseminated evaluation lists. Thus, a holistic framework constructed as a result of metaphor and narrative analyses could be one way of addressing this problem rather than prescribing a top-down fixed set of predetermined characteristics expected from teachers. Such a shift in theory and practice should help gain a better understanding of an EFL teacher concept which is likely to enhance EFL teaching and learning from both global and local perspectives.

Methodological contributions

As an innovative research approach in applied linguistics, integrated application of metaphor and narrative analyses allows for a reconceptualized way of employing complementary research methods: it attempts to address methodological challenges of capturing teachers'

and students' inner worlds, based on their own experiences and beliefs and expressed largely in their own voices. Thus, based on this study, the following methodological implications are drawn for research methodology in applied linguistics.

Narrative analysis of nearly 800 stories told by teachers and students in this study yielded important insights into EFL teaching and learning within cultures of learning in Kazakhstan. Systematic examination of evaluative devices in narratives revealed teachers' and students' insider perspectives. Furthermore, cultural ways of talking about good English teachers have been found as a result of combining thematic and structural approaches to narrative analysis which would have been hardly feasible with more traditional research instruments. Some key features of the perceived images of an English teacher identified from narrative analysis have been further reinforced and complemented by the results of elicited metaphor analysis. Thus, findings from metaphor analysis in this study do not only support the previous metaphor research which aims to capture teachers' and learners' beliefs through a metaphor (Barcelos & Kalaja, 2011) but also extends it by offering a cultural interpretation of complex metaphor networks potentially underlying teachers' and students' expectations of good English teachers. Moreover, a mixed methods study which includes the examination of almost 1000 metaphorical expressions elicited in this study allowed identifying likely relationships between students' fields of study, social background and their perceived images of the good English teacher.

To sum up, an original methodological approach with innovative research methods has enabled this study to productively address the research questions. This study, in conjunction with recent research on the complementarity of narrative and metaphor research in education (Hanne & Kaal, 2019) and applied linguistics related to teaching and learning EFL (Cortazzi & Jin, 2019), has the further implication that NA and MA should not be simply used together, possibly in conjunction with other mixed methods including classroom observation, but that they

might possibly be used in alternating iterative cycles: elicited narrative accounts and elicited metaphors can lead to each other when narratives are seen to contain key evaluative metaphors while metaphors may be illustrated with teller's narrative exemplifying accounts of experiences; particularly significant narrative and metaphor models could be discussed further with participants for their further confirmation and elaboration.

Contributions to Second Language Teacher Education (SLTE)

Following theoretical contributions of this study in relation to SLTE outlined above, findings of this research can be practically used in the design of SLTE. The proposed holistic framework provides one possible way of reconceptualizing SLTE curricula. Currently, SLTE in Kazakhstan still bears influence of the former Soviet practices in the theory driven 'training' of preservice teachers within a knowledge transmission educational paradigm (Cortazzi & Makhanova, 2013; Yakavets, 2017). Yet this research shows that while cognition is central it is clearly part of more holistic view of teaching and learning derived from teachers' and learners' experiences and ideas: this dissonance can be overcome by developing the identified dimensions (plus others such as cultural or spiritual ones within teacher training and classroom activities). Combined with a reflective stage, these steps could be starting points for integrating a holistic framework into the formal theory component of the SLTE curriculum. Such an application of the data-driven holistic framework would be meaningful for preservice teachers since this integration is based on their own reflections and experiences hence the proposed approach is in line with a constructivist view to teacher training and development (Freeman & Johnson, 1998). Thus, some workshop types of awareness-raising activities for preservice teachers might be based on narratives and metaphors collected in this study to engage the participants in reflective practices of their own experiences. Awareness of the proposed holistic framework would be also potentially helpful for discussion and development of related classroom practices. Thus, the outcomes of this research would be

beneficial for preservice teachers because a multidimensional model of the English teacher based on teachers' and students' views shows a wide range of important and, at times, thought-provoking features expected from good English teachers in Kazakhstan. A significantly innovative development would include SLTE workshops and training activities which themselves model, in theory, the approach and practical methods integrating the five dimensions. Inclusion and integration of moral and aesthetic dimensions seems especially challenging but potentially of high interest in teacher education contexts.

Another implication is related to the importance of examining teachers' expectations from the perspective of cultures of learning. Investigating conceptualizations of teaching in relation to participants' cultures of learning helps to better understand sources of such conceptions in different EFL contexts, addressing thus the need in current teacher education literature to study teacher beliefs within their cultural contexts (Borg, 2006).

Contributions to EFL learning and teaching

This study has revealed that although teachers and students have similar views about good English teachers, sometimes their expectations may differ from each other. Thus, it is important that English teachers and students are aware of any differences and gaps in each other's expectations in order to facilitate better teaching and learning. In line with learner-centred approaches in education, examining learners' views within their cultures of learning contributes to teachers' better understanding of learners and potentially to learners' improved understanding of themselves as learners. For teachers, this is a point of professional development. This reciprocal idea of mutual understanding of each other's' cultures of learning is part of the cultures of learning framework (e.g. Cortazzi & Jin, 1996; Yuan & Xie, 2013). Some practical ideas of using the findings of this research might include awareness – raising workshops for EFL students to discuss the most expected features of good English teachers in Kazakhstan and reflect on their own EFL learning experiences. Workshops would introduce

complementary and contesting features of cultures of learning to facilitate reflection and help prepare students for academic and professional use of English world-wide.

On evidence here, knowledge about students' expectations of good English teachers seems important because teachers play significant roles in perfecting students' human and social qualities (Hare, 1993). In this argument, therefore, students' perceptions of English teachers are at the nexus of educational, social and human values. This is exemplified in the particular institutions of the focus of the study and also of the wider areas of the world in which English plays both global and local roles, which might be seen, for example, in how students perceive features of ELT methodologies as performed or exemplified by their English teachers.

As this study demonstrates, students from different social backgrounds and on different study programs can also have different emphases in their expectations of good English teachers. This finding implies not only the importance of examining students' expectations but also indicates diversity within cultures of learning. Awareness of such diversity of students' expectations who come from the same national cultural background is important for international teachers working in Kazakhstan, otherwise mismatch in expectations between international teachers and local students can demotivate the latter (Li, 2004). Within Kazakhstan recognition of this potential diversity of cultures of learning is significant because of the large range of linguistic and ethnic diversity within the country which may be relatively unknown to outsiders and newcomers. In sum, teaching English should not be 'one size fits all' and thus should be informed by evidence from contextualized research on students' expectations of good English teachers.

Eliciting narratives in this research facilitated students' and teachers' reflections on their learning and teaching experiences thus engaging them in the process of making implicit more explicit. Increased awareness of inner thoughts in relation to teaching and learning can have a positive impact on teachers' and students' actions and practices

(Farrell, 2016). Conceptual metaphors developed from elicited metaphor data analysis in this study reveal students' and teachers' values expressed through a complex network of patterns underlying teaching and learning within the participants' cultures of learning. Similarly, because "narratives serve to give cohesion to shared beliefs and to transmit values" (Polkinghorne, 1988:14), in the case of the current study, teachers and students transmit values through their student-teacher relationships in a language classroom. Therefore, it is important to examine both students' and teachers' expectations for a better learning and teaching, especially within contexts of social and educational change and internationalization. Sharing narrative experiences and common or creative metaphors are part of an envisaged SLTE approach.

Although findings are derived in the context of Kazakhstan, the insights gained from this study might be – or should be - of relevance to other EFL settings. Furthermore, with an increasing role of English globally in the context of internationalizing higher education, it is important that voices of English teachers and learners from diverse contexts are heard. Teachers' and students' stories voiced in this research could be illuminating for those learning and teaching EFL in and beyond Kazakhstan.

6.3 Limitations and further research

This study has shown that expectations of good English teachers are related to cultures of learning. Due to the exploratory nature of this research some features of possible links between cultures of learning and expectations about good English teachers have been found. Because cultures of learning are part of larger sociocultural phenomena further research is inevitably needed to examine the most influential features of cultures of learning in the transition period of a society in Kazakhstan. This presupposes cultures of learning are dynamic, likely to change further, and open to locally diverse and wider international influences (Cortazzi & Jin, 2019). It is fully recognized that the four ELT

strands of cultures of learning proposed in this study are not exclusive and perhaps there are other strands yet to be examined.

In terms of the research methods, it is acknowledged that the narratives may not represent ‘truth’ but importance of conducting narrative research is not in describing the reality but to ‘give meaning to experience’ (Bruner, 1986:13). In this process of co-constructing meanings in interviews I had multiple identities: as a university teacher who personally shared the teacher participants’ issues and concerns through similar experiences, as a former EFL student who also had struggles learning a foreign language and as a local society member who is aware of the current socio-economic problems of the country influencing teaching and learning EFL. But all of these roles have been mediated through my major research task of co-constructing interview data together with the participants. Nonetheless, in retrospect now, in the earlier interviews I would have asked other questions framed by better understanding of this research process which emerged at later stages. Thus, I am also aware that there must be other stories to be told by teachers, students and other members of cultures of learning which could be studied in further research.

In further work on elicited metaphor analysis, it would be useful to examine students’ and teachers’ classroom practices in relation to their metaphors for good English teachers through classroom observations. This entails issues of feasibility with the participant numbers involved here. Nevertheless, an important question to be investigated closely is the extent to which participants’ metaphors represent their beliefs about teaching and learning (Fisher, 2017) and how they match classroom activities. This would link the present approach to NA with the narrative inquiry approach developed in North America which includes considerable longitudinal classroom observation with teacher research but with far more restricted participant numbers (Clandinin, 2013; Kim, 2016) but still retain the present MA approach not so far used in narrative inquiry; hence, these larger streams of educational or applied linguistics research might apply the methodology of the present study.

Some evidence in this study suggests that conducting narrative research with students and teachers can reveal key aspects related to agency and identity of participants. Examining how teachers' and students' identity is constructed narratively in relation to cultures of learning would be helpful to explore via further studies. It might face the important question of how far "we are our stories", professionally, personally, culturally and so on. In-depth narrative exploration of students' and teachers' agency could be also conducted to investigate how the proposed dimensions of this study might interact with agency and how students and teachers negotiate their agency within transmission based educational philosophy and in relation to other changing aspects of cultures of learning.

For demographic reasons the sample of this study is mainly represented by the Kazakh ethnic group. Further research should explore to what extent expectations of other ethnic and linguistic communities might be similar or different from the findings of this study. Besides, how ethno-linguistic background might interact with cultures of learning would be also useful to investigate.

Future studies might also consider examining expectations about other key agents of cultures of learning and stakeholders, including parents, administrators, education policy makers and teacher educators. Such research would potentially contribute to a fuller picture of conceptions about good English teachers from such different viewpoints explored within their cultures of learning. Furthermore, ideas about good English teachers could be compared with parallel research on what makes a good English learner. Thus, pulling expectations about a good English teacher together with those of a good English learner would shed more light into a better understanding of cultures of learning. Similarly, further studies could examine how conceptualizations of English teachers in other EFL contexts might be similar or different from the multidimensional model of the English teacher proposed in this study.

To expand this model, it would be illuminating to explore how cognitive, affective, moral, social and aesthetic dimensions of conceptualizing a

good English teacher could be applied to research on university (and school) teachers of other subjects and to identify whether these dimensions are peculiar to teaching and learning of English only. Similarly, could the proposed multidimensional model be applied to other learners? Thus, this present applied linguistics and educational study in ELT might be a marker for much wider research applications in education. For example, the role of aesthetics or moral dimensions through such wider research in university or school education might help to balance some present trends towards narrowly utilitarian or pragmatic outcomes to expand with more emphasis on multi-dimensional humanity and humaneness.

The five dimensions are identified bottom-up from the EMA and NA investigation. Potentially, there are obviously other candidate dimensions in students' and teachers' metaphors and narratives - spiritual, economic, cultural, among others. But there seems no evidence for these in the present datasets. Thus, further research should explore other likely dimensions in teachers' and students' metaphors and narratives.

More broadly, it is acknowledged that participants of any study know more than they can tell (Polanyi, 1983) but in both narratives and metaphors the participants could say more than they usually do. Furthermore, analyzing data from several sources has enabled this research to identify salient features expected from good English teachers common across the two large data sets of narratives and metaphors.

On a more personal level, the process of doing this research has enriched my own personal, professional and academic growth along the dimensions which gradually emerged from this study. Cognitively, I have developed the research skills and significantly expanded the boundaries of my pre-doctoral studies knowledge base. Affectively, I have learned how to cope with low points of the research process followed by the joy of overcoming struggles. Sharing my experiences with others and learning from my research participants, peers and

supervisors in a socially supportive environment was also an important part of the research process. Another important aspect is a moral dimension of doing research which I see as making paths for good teaching and sharing with teachers and students what is considered good and ethical based on this research evidence. Through learning and attempting to integrate all of these ideas I have experienced the aesthetic enjoyment from this journey which has enabled me to discover many more roads still to be explored.

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Appendix 1 Published research on good teachers

Context	Sample	Research method(s)	Source
UK	Primary and secondary school pupils (number of participants not given)	Essay and ranking questionnaire	Taylor, 1962
USA	55 Social sciences teachers at university and their students	1. Students' questionnaires of effective classroom behavior 2. Teachers self-described personality traits	Costin & Grush, 1973
USA	34 adults	Interviews	Naiman, 1978
USA and Pakistan	413 American students (186 college and 227 high school students) 353 Pakistani students (170 college and 183 high school students)	Closed ranking questionnaire	Quereshi, 1980
USA	1 374 university students	Ranking questionnaire	Overall & Marsh, 1980
USA	700 university students	Questionnaire	Basow & Howe, 1987
UK (ORACLE Project)	Junior age (7-11) classrooms	Classroom observations	Galton, 1987
UK	2000 pupils in 50 primary schools	Classroom observations, teachers' and parents' views	Mortimore *et al.*, 1988
Austria, UK, USA	102 teachers of elementary schools (50 in New York, 31 in Vienna, 21 in London)	Teachers' self-reports of successful teaching incidents	Beckum *et al.*, 1991
Botswana	54 in-service teachers	Ranking questionnaire with open-ended items	Yoder, 1992
China and UK	101 Chinese students and	Questionnaire and interview	Jin &

	37 British academic staff		Cortazzi, 1993
Caribbean Republic of Trinidad and Tobago	1633 school pupils aged 7-17	Essay	Kutnick & Jules, 1993
Puerto Rico	236 university students	Ranking questionnaire	Green, 1993
Hong Kong	39 lecturers	Interviews	Gow & Kember, 1993
USA	395 preservice and inservice teachers	Open-ended questionnaire	Ogden, 1994
UK	13 secondary school teachers and their respective pupils	Interviews and classroom observations	Cooper & McIntyre, 1994; 1996
Israel	1710 primary and secondary school pupils	Ranking questionnaire	Tatar & Horenczyk, 1996
China	135 Chinese university students	Essay	Cortazzi & Jin, 1996
Israel	200 secondary school teachers 406 students	Ranking questionnaire Interviews	Brosh, 1996
Hong Kong	2 156 university students	Open-ended questionnaire	Littlewood & Liu, 1996
UK	900 secondary school pupils	Interviews	Ruddock *et al.*, 1996
Japan	165 university students	Essay	Hadley & Hadley, 1996
Trinidad and	1 756 pupils aged 8-16	Essays and interviews	Kutnick &

Tobago			Jules, 1997
USA	5 381 school children in 410 schools	Students' achievement scores, Teachers' questionnaires	Rowan *et al*., 1997
China and UK	135 Chinese university students 30 Chines postgraduate students and teachers 60 Chinese teachers of English and 88 British teachers 160 British students 45 British teachers	Student essays, interviews to complement essays and Likert-scale metaphor questionnaire	Jin & Cortazzi, 1998
USA	250 students, teachers, educators	Conceptual metaphor analysis	Oxford *et al*., 1998
USA	1 766 secondary school children	Student achievement scores and questionnaire	Adams & Singh, 1998
Australia	148 university students	Questionnaire	Patrick & Smart, 1998
China	University and school learners and teachers	Classroom observations, interviews, questionnaires	Jin & Cortazzi, 1998
USA, UK, Ireland	4 secondary school teachers in each country	Pre-interview survey and interviews	Collinson & Stephenson, 1998
UK	Secondary school pupils and teachers	Interviews	Morgan & Morris, 1999
China and UK	129 Chinese university students 205 British university students	Questionnaire and metaphor analysis	Cortazzi & Jin, 1999

Israel	831 parents of secondary school children	Ranking questionnaire	Tatar & Horenczyk, 2000
Hong Kong	55 university students	Interviews	Kember & Wong, 2000
UK	80 schools and 170 teachers	Classroom observations, interviews, questionnaires and focus groups	McBer, 2000
UK (PACE project)	school pupils and teachers from nine schools with a focus on 54 pupils	Observations, interviews, questionnaires	Pollard *et al.*, 2000
Spain	2 221 university students	Semantic Differential questionnaire	Pozo-Muniz et al., 2000
Brunei, mainland China, Finland, Germany, Hong Kong, Japan, South Korea, Malaysia, Spain, Thailand, Vietnam	2 656 university students	Questionnaire	Littlewood, 2001
China	1 Phase -18 teachers 2 Phase - 450 teachers	Interviews and classroom observations	Lingbiao & Watkins, 2001
Netherlands	198 Primary and secondary school pupils aged 7, 10, 13, 16 and 7 teachers of primary and secondary schools	Essay	Beishuizen *et al.*, 2001
China, UK, Malaysia	129 students in China 205 students in the UK 101 students in Malaysia	Five-point scale questionnaire	Jin & Cortazzi, 2002
USA	112 preservice teachers	Description of best and worst teachers' characteristics	Aagaard & Skidmore,

			2002
USA	355 university students	Ranking questionnaire	Spencer & Schmelkin, 2002
Puerto Rico	22 teachers	Metaphor analysis	De Guerrero & Villamil, 2002
USA	134 student teachers	Participants were asked to identify, rank, and define between three and six characteristics	Minor *et al*., 2002
Cyprus	608 secondary school students in 5 schools	Open-ended questionnaire	Koutsoulis, 2003
Japan, USA, China	university students: 110 in Japan, 98 in USA, 105 in China	Ranking questionnaire	Banno, 2003
USA	60 second graders, 61 preservice teachers, 22 in-service teachers	Likert-scale questionnaire, drawings and interviews	Murphy *et al.,* 2004
New Zealand	17 university lecturers nominated by departments as excellent teachers	Interviews and classroom observations	Kane *et al*., 2004
USA	218 university students	Likert-scale questionnaire	Okpala & Ellis, 2005
USA	457 postsecondary teachers of foreign languages (German, French, Spanish)	Closed ranking questionnaire and Likert-scale questionnaire	Bell, 2005
Taiwan	832 secondary school teachers	Likert-scale questionnaire	Wu, 2005
Turkey	13 primary school teachers	Interviews, classroom observations, before and after class reflections	Kavanoz, 2006
Variety of contexts around	200 teachers	Questionnaire and essay	Borg, 2006

the world			
USA	414 university students 128 university lecturers	Questionnaire	Goldstein & Bennassi, 2006
South Korea	169 high school teachers and 339 high school students	Ranking questionnaire	Park & Lee, 2006
Turkey	1 142 prospective teachers	Metaphor analysis	Saban *et al*., 2007
China	100 university student 20 tertiary English teachers 20 Western teachers	Essay	Flowerdew *et al*., 2007.
USA	912 university students	Questionnaire with rating scale and Likert-type items	Onwuegbuzie *et al.,* 2007
USA	89 preservice teachers	Open-ended questionnaire	Arnon & Reichel, 2007
Lithuania	305 university graduates	Essay	Stankeviciene, 2007
Malaysia	23 university students	Metaphor questionnaire	Nikitina & Furuoka, 2008a
Malaysia	98 university students	Metaphor questionnaire	Nikitina & Furuoka, 2008b
Scotland	200 primary and secondary school teachers	Focus group interviews	Wilson *et al*., 2008
USA	More than 1000 preservice teachers	Essay on the most memorable teacher	Walker, 2008
USA	63 preservice teachers	Participants were asked to identify, rank, and define characteristics	Witcher *et al*., 2008
Estonia	60 school principals and	Interviews with principals and	Oder, 2008

	vice-principals 601 secondary school students	students' essays	
UK	80 primary and secondary teachers and their school leaders and pupils	Questionnaires Classroom observations Interviews	Day *et al.,* 2008
USA	201 teachers of grades 2-6 and 13 principals	Rating questionnaire	Jacob & Lefgren, 2008
USA	3 496 first graders from 253 schools	Before-and –end of grade achievement tests, surveys with teachers, parents and principals	Palardy & Rumberger, 2008
Hong Kong	4 primary and 11 secondary teachers	Interviews	Elizabeth *et al*., 2008.
USA	27 048 secondary school students 2 319 teachers	Students' learning gains and survey	Boyd *et al*., 2009
USA	110 high school teachers	Metaphor analysis	Alger, 2009
Malaysia	100 university students	Open-ended questionnaire	Nikitina & Furuoka, 2009
USA	49 university teachers and 1 600 students	Likert-scale questionnaire	Brown, 2009
UK	80 university students	Like-scale questionnaire and focus group discussions	Allan *et al.,*2009
Turkey	58 junior year preservice teachers, 92 senior year preservice teachers, 70 in-service English language teachers.	Metaphor analysis	Seferoglu *et al*.,2009
mainland China, Hong Kong, Singapore, Japan	410 university students	Interviews and online survey	Littlewood, 2009

Poland	9 primary school teachers, their classes and school principals	Classroom observations, interviews with teachers and principals, pupils' questionnaires	Werbinska, 2009
China	1 140 Chinese university students	Metaphor analysis	Cortazzi *et al*., 2009
Hong Kong	4 university teachers	Case study	Tsui, 2009
Iran	215 secondary school teachers	Likert-scale questionnaire	Khojastehmehr & Takrimi, 2009
Thailand	400 university students	Ranking questionnaire and interview	Wichadee, 2010
Iran	59 English language university teachers and 215 learners of English (university, high school and language institutes)	Likert-scale questionnaire	Shishavan, 2010
China	70 university students 33 EFL teachers	1) Attending a metaphor-related workshop 2) Metaphor questionnaire 3) Follow-up interview	Wan *et al*., 2011
Canada	45 preservice teachers	Interviews and metaphor analysis	Thomas & Beauchamp, 2011
Iran	120 university students 16 university teachers	Likert-scale questionnaire	Ganjabi, 2011
USA	1)307 fifth graders' teachers 2) 32 teachers (top and bottom quartile)	Results of students' tests and classroom observations	Stronge *et al*., 2011
Mauritius	325 preservice teachers	Essay	Mariaye, 2012
Turkey	998 university students	Likert-scale questionnaire	Çelik *et al*., 2012

USA	205 doctoral students	Questionnaire with open – and-closed ended items	Anderson *et al.*, 2012
Estonia	972 secondary school pupils aged 13-15, 16-19	Essay	Läänemets *et al.*, 2012
five Arabic countries (Egypt, Syria, Jordan, UAE)	492 foreign language learners	Likert-scale questionnaire	Sakurai, 2012
Turkey	365 primary, secondary school students	Likert-scale questionnaire	Koc, 2012
Turkey	2 177 high school students and 214 teachers	Questionnaire	Kormur & Eryilmaz, 2012
Iran	100 university students, 50 language teachers and 20 university professors	Likert-scale questionnaire	Nemati & Kaivanpanah, 2013
Cyprus	110 university students	Questionnaire and focus group interview	Kourieos & Evripidou, 2013
Kazakhstan	105 undergraduate students	Essay and semi-structured interviews	Makhanova & Cortazzi, 2013
Finland and Thailand	185 student teachers in Finland 187 student teachers in Thailand	1) Collecting proverbs about teaching and students' essays 2) Likert scale questionnaire with conceptual metaphors	Berendt & Mattsson, 2013
Iran	100 teachers in secondary schools and language institutes	Likert-scale questionnaire	Moazzam & Jodai, 2014
Turkey	Six administrators of private language courses	Interviews	Erbay *et al.*, 2014
Iran	393 university students of English in two universities (179 undergraduates; 214 postgraduates)	Metaphor analysis of students' metaphors and the entailments	Cortazzi *et al.,* 2015

Saudi Arabia	17 language teachers and 17 secondary school students	Questionnaire	Badawood, 2015
UK	Preservice teachers, recent graduates of teacher courses, experienced teachers (total number of participants 546)	Questionnaires and interviews	Arthur *et al*., 2015
Turkey	404 university student teachers	Likert-type questionnaire	Demiroz & Yesilyurt, 2015
China	243 kindergarten learners of English and their parents	Questionnaires, metaphor and narrative analysis	Jin *et al*., 2016
Southeast Asian countries (Myanmar, Brunei, Malaysia, the Philippines, Thailand, Indonesia, Cambodia) and Mexico	116 preservice second language teachers	Statistical analysis of repertory grid technique (RGT), data elicitation instrument	Richter & Herrera, 2017

Appendix 2 Doctoral research theses on good teachers

Context	Sample	Research method(s)	Source
Kuwait	Primary school teachers (410 – questionnaire, 84 observed, 48 interviewed)	Questionnaire, classroom observations, interviews	Al-Rasheedi, 1997
Qatar	587 primary school pupils 66 school teachers 32 head teachers	Questionnaire, classroom observation and interviews	Al-Khwaiter, 2001
Libya	25 student teachers 22 university tutors 28 Classroom teachers	Ranking questionnaire and interviews	Elhensheri, 2004
Singapore	400 primary schools	Questionnaires and interviews	Ong, 2004
Turkey	8 high school teachers of English	Interview and classroom observations	Erdogan, 2005
China	1000 primary EFL teachers and 18 classrooms	questionnaire survey, classroom observations, follow-up interviews	Wang, 2007
Malaysia	5 high school principals and 120 teachers	Questionnaires and interview	Iyer, 2008
Hong Kong	7 teachers of English	Narrative inquiry – interviews and classroom observations	Gran, 2009
Malaysia	120 secondary school students and 8 teachers	Questionnaire and interviews	Palaniandy, 2009
UK	10 university teachers	Interviews	Woodhouse, 2009
China	23 university teachers of English	Case study	Xue, 2009

UK	35 in-service trainee teachers in post compulsory education	Participant produced drawings with an accompanying description story and follow-up interviews	Mattock, 2010
Northern Cyprus	9 novice teachers of English	Interviews, questionnaire, classroom observations, teacher diaries, metaphor elicitation	Erkmen, 2010
Hong Kong	106 secondary school students and three teachers	Ranking questionnaire, focus and individual interviews, classroom observations with follow-up interviews	Chan, 2010
UK	18 primary school teachers	Case study	Tether, 2010
India and Pakistan	Datasets of primary and secondary school teachers	Descriptive statistic and econometric analysis	Rawal, 2013
UK	40 trainee teachers	Ethnographic study (reflective logs, lesson observations, class discussions)	Bailey, 2013
Poland	40 student teachers of English	Questionnaire, group interview, lesson observations	Dydowicz, 2014
Libya	University students and teachers	Questionnaire and interviews	Abushafa, 2014
Bahrain	12 teachers in the primary, intermediate and secondary schools	In-depth interviews	Hasan, 2014
Iran	University lecturers of English	Close-ended and open-ended questionnaires and semi-structured interviews	Mazandarani, 2014

Appendix 3 Metaphor Elicitation Form

Gulnissa Zhunussova. PhD study: Teachers' and students' perceptions of good English teachers in Kazakhstan

Students' background information

Please complete

1. Years of learning English

1-4 ☐ 5-8 ☐ 9-11 ☐ 12+ ☐

2. Your age

17-18 ☐ 19-20 ☐ 21-22 ☐ 23+

3. Your gender

M ☐ F ☐

4. What languages do you speak other than English? ....
5. What is your ethnic group? ....
6. What is your major field of study?...........
7. In which city/town/village have you lived last 15 years? ....

Gulnissa Zhunussova. PhD study: Teachers' and students' perceptions of good English teachers in Kazakhstan

Teachers' background information

Please complete

1. Years of teaching English

1-4 ☐ 5-8 ☐ 9-11 ☐ 12+ ☐

2. Your age

25-34 ☐ 35-45 ☐ 45-54 ☐ 54- ☐

3. Your gender

M ☐ F ☐

1. What other professional jobs have you had?.......................
2. What languages do you speak other than English? ....
3. What other subjects do you teach or have taught in the past?..
4. What is your ethnic group? ....
5. What is the field of your research?....................

Gulnissa Zhunussova. PhD study: Teachers' and students' perceptions of good English teachers in Kazakhstan

Metaphor Questionnaire

This questionnaire will help to find out your ideas about *English teachers* by asking you to write down your own metaphors as a way of sharing your thoughts. Please think of a comparison **using a metaphor** and then **add a reason** (see examples below). All answers, opinions and information will be treated anonymously.

Examples of metaphors:

a) A medical doctor is a *gardener* because *they repair the ill body*.
b) A medical doctor is a *mechanic* because *they read technical information and deal with diagnostic equipment.*
c) A medical doctor is an *alien because they use perplexing phrases*.

Please write your own metaphors here and add a reason to each one.

1	A **teacher of English** is ……………………………because…………………………………… ……………………………………………………………………………………
2	A **teacher of English** is ……………………………because…………………………………… ……………………………………………………………………………………
3	A **teacher of English** is ……………………………because…………………………………… ……………………………………………………………………………………

Please add any other comments about teachers of English and the teaching of English

……………………………………………………………………………………………….

………………………………………………………………………………………………

………………………………………………………………………………………………

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………………………………………………………………………………………………

Thank you very much for completing this questionnaire!

Appendix 4 Ethical approval

HLS FREC Ref: 1831

18th August 2016

Gulnissa Zhunussova
PhD Candidate

Dear Gulnissa,

Re: Ethics application – Teachers' and students' perceptions of good English teachers in Kazakhstan (ref: 1831)

I am writing regarding your application for ethical approval for a research project titled to the above project. This project has been reviewed in accordance with the Operational Procedures for De Montfort University Faculty of Health and Life Sciences Research Ethics Committee. These procedures are available from the Faculty Research and Commercial Office upon your request.

I am pleased to inform you that ethical approval has been granted by Chair's Action for your application. This will be reported at the next Faculty Research Committee.

Should there be any amendments to the research methods or persons involved with this project you must notify the Chair of the Faculty Research Ethics Committee immediately in writing. Serious or adverse events related to the conduct of the study need to be reported immediately to your Supervisor and the Chair of this Committee.

The Faculty Research Ethics Committee should be notified by e-mail to hlsfro@dmu.ac.uk when your research project has been completed.

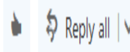
Yours sincerely,

M. Grootveld

Professor Martin Grootveld
Chair
Faculty Research Ethics Committee
Faculty of Health & Life Sciences
De Montfort University

Email: hlsfro@dmu.ac.uk
Web: http://www.dmu.ac.uk/research/ethics-and-governance/faculty-specific-procedures/health-and-life-sciences-ethics-procedures.aspx

Appendix 4 Ethical approval (cont.)



Inbox

You forwarded this message on 11/05/2018 10:57

Dear Gulnissa –

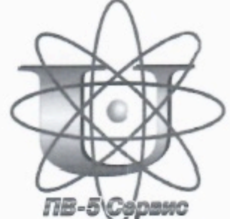
Thank you for sending this through. Everything here is fine, so you can go on with your analysis – but do let us know if you need to gather any more raw data since in that case you will need to get ethical approval.

Best wishes
Melissa Shani Brown and John Lowe

Dr Melissa Shani Brown
AB 436
Assistant Professor in Media and Cultural Studies
School of International Communications
University of Nottingham Ningbo Campus
199 Taikang East Road, Ningbo, 315100 China
Tel: +86 574-8818-9193

Appendix 5 Translator’s statement

«ПВ-5 Сервис»
ЖАУАПКЕРШІЛІГІ
ШЕКТЕУЛІ
СЕРІКТЕСТІГІ
Заңды мекен-жайы: 050046
Қазақстан Республикасы,
Алматы к.,Сатпаев к-сі, 90/1
Тел.: 8 702 059 40 11
БСН 181140006397
ЖСК KZ14826A1KZTD2997176
«АТФБанк» АҚ
БСК ALMNKZKA



ТОВАРИЩЕСТВО С
ОГРАНИЧЕННОЙ
ОТВЕТСТВЕННОСТЬЮ
«ПВ-5 Сервис»
Юридический адрес: 050046
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Тел.: 8 702 059 40 11
БИН 181140006397
ИИК KZ14826A1KZTD2997176
АО «АТФБанк»
БИК ALMNKZKA

Исходящий № 18-16

10 December 2016

To whom it may concern

I hereby certify that I have listened to audio recordings of six interviews conducted by Gulnissa Zhunussova as part of her research. Besides checking translated scripts of interviews, I also checked translated versions of six metaphor elicitation forms before she started collecting data. I verify accuracy of translation done by Gulnissa.

As a qualified translator, I have experience of translating documents from Russian/Kazakh to English and vice versa. I have more than ten years of working as a translator with international partners and clients in different fields.

Should you have questions, please feel free to contact me by email at pv5service@pv5service.kz

Aziza Roziyeva

Appendix 6 Map of the Republic of Kazakhstan and research sites

Source: Nations Online (2019)

Numbers indicate the cities where the data were collected.

1 Aktobe; 2 Shymkent; 3 Almaty; 4 Oskemen; 5 Pavlodar; 6 Astana (renamed Nur-Sultan on 19.03.2019)

Appendix 7 Interview transcription

Interview with a teacher (reference number T003)

Q: Could you please tell me about a good English teacher you've met?

A: it's my favorite English teacher whom I admire both as a woman and as a professional and who inspired me to become a teacher. She was our tutor in the first year of my undergraduate studies, so that was about eight years ago now. I've always wanted to be like her. She always has this upright posture, she never slouches and she is beautiful. So, of all the teachers I've met since my childhood she is my favorite not only because of her beautiful appearance but also because she gave a lot to us and she put a lot of effort and energy to support us in our learning. Although, she taught me about eight years ago, we still keep in touch. With my classmates we even met her family, her children. So we all liked her. I don't know why. Maybe because she was also young, in her late twenties that time. We were on good terms with her. So, as I said, even when she completed her course with us, she would ask us how we were doing and were interested in our further life. She is open and supportive. We could approach her not only with academic matters but also with some personal matters too.

Q: A moment ago you've mentioned that she gave a lot to you. Can you elaborate on this please?

A: By the time we met this teacher, we were used to drilling, so there were many grammar exercises and we would do those exercises all the time which were good because that helped build the foundation of our language skills. But when she started teaching us it was completely different. We would read a lot and come to class to discuss what we'd read. She made us speak and express ourselves, she made us think and ask questions beyond that reading material, and she encouraged critical thinking. She helped us think critically and we liked that very much. She would literally pull out our thoughts from us when we were not very confident to speak up. She also introduced us to modern quality newspapers in English and we would read articles on

contemporary issues and discuss in class which we also liked very much.

Q: You've said that she made you think critically. Before you met this teacher, do you remember if in other classes you'd been encouraged to think critically and how your previous learning experience had been like?

A: [*her intonation and emotions suddenly change and she shifts from an energetic tone to neutral*] Before her, with other teachers we would just retell and recite what we read. It was dull and boring.

Q: So, what do you think teaching should be like in terms of approaches, class dynamic etc.?

A: Again, I'm going to refer to this teacher. We would start each class with checking homework and she would make sure that every student understands the target vocabulary from the reading text. Her explanations were clear cut and to the point and she could explain very complex things so that it becomes easier to comprehend. So, when we've checked that everything is clear from the home reading text, we would start discussing the content.

Q: Could you ask questions, if still something was not clear?

A: Yes, we were even encouraged to ask questions. So, it was different from my school years, for example. In school, most of the time we were afraid to ask questions because we would think the teacher will laugh at us saying "why you don't understand it, it's easy and the book has rules on it". We were afraid to look silly because when we ask questions that would mean you are not smart enough to get it. I was always afraid to ask questions, I was afraid to be laughed at. But this very teacher showed that it is normal and even good to ask questions.

Q: So when you asked a question on an unknown word/phrase or some other language aspect, did any of the teachers said they didn't know the answer? What was your reaction to that?

A: Of course, it is expected in our society that the teacher should give the answer which shows that this is a knowledgeable and good teacher. But now being a teacher myself, I know that, first of all, it is not possible to know everything but we can refer the student to check this or that reference book or guide in general terms, for example, check out this or that resource etc. Secondly, in my experience a teacher would say "I'll check this and come back later with explanations" and they would always return to that point in question. On the other hand, based on recent research on language acquisition, I know that if we give a ready answer right away that would not benefit learners. We should encourage learners to think for themselves, we should teach them to be independent because our role is to support and guide them and it is their responsibility to find answers and by doing it they acquire life-long learning skills which goes beyond learning in academic context. I believe, when they are used to search for answers themselves, that develops them both personally because they learn to be autonomous and not to depend on others and of course in terms learning it is beneficial too because while searching, they learn other things too. When I start a course with a new group, I always say that they should be ready to search answers themselves and if I don't give the answer, it doesn't mean I don't know the answer. I just want them to become independent.

Q: Does this approach work?

A: At the beginning it is always challenging because the students are used to receive the answers right away but gradually they accept this new approach and by the end of the course they are just fine. I even receive thanks at the end of the course that this approach was helpful and I think that is our job to help students become better and stronger and help them develop. But at the very beginning, when I started applying this approach, I didn't feel comfortable that I didn't know a translation of a certain word, for example. And even though, I'd refer them to the dictionary, I would then make sure to check the word myself afterwards for my own knowledge. So, I think this is because from

childhood we believe a teacher is ideal when he or she knows the answers but this is not always the case. We are all human beings and we may not be perfect and the teacher's job is to guide not to spoon-feed.

Q: Can you elaborate on that? Do you think spoon-feeding is more common in our country?

A: I think, it depends. Historically, we were used to that spoon-feeding approach with ready answers. The former Soviet system of schooling was like that. The students were dependent on the teacher and there wasn't space for autonomy. Not only with learners but with everyone I think. Because the idea was that everyone was told to do things in this or that way. So, the student was told by the teacher, the teacher was told by the head teacher or by the regulations and the head teacher by the party officials and so on. I mean, people were not free to do what they feel was right. There were always instructions and you had to fit in those margins. But now, it's changing gradually. The institutions with advanced viewpoints try to preach and practice critical thinking and let students be independent. For example, I worked at one of those best schools in our country which follow the Cambridge curriculum and what they are doing is in line with humanistic approaches and the number of this kind of schools is increasing. But in most cases, these are private or the best ones where the competition is high to get a place. And if you go to a village or other remote areas, the situation might be different and those schools might still have some features of the former Soviet schooling. The other day I met a colleague whose cousin is in such a school in a village and by what she said it seems that learner-centred approaches are still not established there and the teacher is still dominant in the class which is not good.

Q: So, what is good?

A: oh, there are many things to consider. I once observed a class in a secondary school. When I entered the classroom, the children were so noisy that I even felt scared of this noise. The English teacher was

young and she couldn't bring order and discipline for the lesson to start. The learners kept walking around and because of the noise no one heard what the teacher was saying. She couldn't manage the class and I think the teacher should be able to manage the class so that there are conditions for learning. It was difficult for her to control the class and she couldn't get the students to do their work all the forty minutes of the lesson. She shouted at them and tried to calm them down but these students would not listen and care for what she was saying. The whole lesson was spent like that and I didn't take anything good from it. This lesson showed me that a good English teacher should be able to do the opposite of what I saw. The teacher should be able to manage the class, she should know how to bring order to the class and her main job is to create an environment when students learn something. And that very lesson was a waste of time for her as a teacher and for learners because they didn't learn anything.

Q: You mentioned words order and control, how do you think these are important when teaching? Should everything be controlled?

A: I think, there shouldn't be a total control and power imposed by the teacher which would be the other extreme point of what I described earlier. Although this could happen when our parents were in school, as I said before. I remember them saying that there was a total silence in class and everything was in order and, you know, the teacher was the one in power and no one could utter a word without the teacher's command. But that was during the Soviet era and that was normal that time to accept a teacher's authority. Now, it's all different and by that example of poor teaching it is obvious that things changed. So, my point is that learners should learn something or should develop some skill at the end of the class. And if there is chaos in class and nobody hears the teacher, it's useless.

Q: What would be useful for learners?

A: Again, I want to describe from what I've seen. So, there was another teacher whose lessons I also observed. I like that she always considers

her immediate teaching context and adapts her teaching accordingly. When she taught secondary school learners, she was different from how she taught primary schoolchildren. So, when she was in a primary class, she would become as a child herself, you know, she would play games and jump and dance, she would be like a clown for the kids. But at the same she managed the class and she was able to get work done and she was strict too. I mean, the kids would do what she asked them to do because I think she knew how to approach them. She made lessons interesting so that learners become interested. She would bring different toys which she would use to present the target item of the lesson. They drew a lot and while drawing learned many things. So, she prepared a lot of extra material according to the needs of young learners. And she put so much energy and effort to get kids understand the lesson material. She ‘chewed’ everything for them.

Q: What do you think of this ‘chewing’ approach? How important is it?

A: if it’s young learners, especially young beginners who never learned English, perhaps it’s better to chew and spoon-feed the material so that they understand the lesson. But with adult learners, they should think for themselves and should make efforts to acquire the material because these are mature people and they should be able to figure out things themselves.

Q: You’ve mentioned that this teacher was strict, can you elaborate on this?

A: Yes, there was a boy, Samir, he was one of those ‘difficult’ kids. It was a challenge for him to be in class for forty minutes, sit there and do work because he was so hyper active. He could say ‘I don’t like this activity’, ‘I don’t want to do this’ and she would patiently explain that he is at school and his job is to do what’s required in class. But sometimes things would get out of control. Once he didn’t want to engage with other learners and do pair or group work. And there were many problems with this child. Once she even asked his parents to interfere. But it didn’t work.

Q: What would the teacher do when the boy didn't want to participate in activities?

A: Sometimes she would let him do what he wants but after the class she would keep the boy and get him to do the work. Because of such a behavior the head teacher also talked to him several times. Putting myself on this very teacher's place I just don't know what I would do if I had such a student. So, I respect this teacher because she was patient and believed she could improve this situation. She didn't give up. I think we should be this strong.

Q: What else should be?

A: I think people want us to spend some period of time abroad at least a year. They tend to think if a teacher lived for some time in an English-speaking country, then the language proficiency of this teacher is appropriate to teach. To be honest, I personally think this way too. Because in order to have fluency and good speaking skills, I think one needs to spend at least one year in one of those countries. I didn't think about this need before, when I was a student but now being a teacher I feel this need to spend a long period of time in an English-speaking country for better language skills so that's my aim for the future. I haven't been to any of those countries and I feel it's not right for me as a teacher. How do I teach English confidently and feel confident about myself professionally, if I didn't even visit London. I think, if I was a student myself, I would respect the teacher more if she studied there. Also completion is high in our field. The degree gained abroad makes your profile much stronger and I can earn more with a Western degree.

Q: You've said spending time abroad is beneficial for speaking skills, how do you understand good speaking skills?

A: Let me share my experience of learning German. I spent one year in Germany. By the time I arrived there, I thought I knew German. I could read, I could do grammar exercises and I could even communicate with native speakers of German. But when I arrived in Germany, I was exposed to real life in German, you know, how to fill in utility bill forms,

what to say in small talk, even I learned some non-verbal cues of expressing thoughts. So, with English, when I watch films in English, I don't always catch what's being said and that's a pity. As a teacher of English I think I should be able to understand those things. There are also some catch phrases that are not always in dictionaries or books but you came across them only in the natural environment where English is spoken, when you are immersed, so to say.

Q: What else do you think is expected from a good English teacher?

A: First of all, a teacher should be able to help students. So, if a student comes to the teacher with a question or some issue to discuss, the teacher should listen and pay attention to the matter. Because, you know, teachers are often so busy. When the class finishes, they have to rush to the other class and if there is time they need to do paper work, reports, forms etc.. Among all of these things, I know it's a challenge to stop and look at the eyes of the student without a rush and at least listen to what they are saying. Sometimes, students may ask questions not relevant to studies and I think in these cases, the teacher should be open and at least guide the student to where the student might get the answer. Besides, a teacher should be willing to teach others.

Q: Which of these qualities do you think is most important?

A: Desire to teach others. Because even though all of my teachers who made me an English-speaking person didn't spend time abroad, they all loved their profession and had a desire to teach.

Q: How can a teacher make an English-speaking person from somebody who does not know a word in English?

A: I think there should be a mutual desire, it is a mutual process, I mean if the student doesn't want to learn English, and it's hard to teach him. So, if I didn't want to learn English, how could the teachers give that knowledge to me? Because when I started teaching in a private language center, I naively thought all those kids came there because they wanted to learn English. But it wasn't the case because parents sent them to study English and some of the learners were not interested

at all. Frankly speaking, it was very hard to teach someone who doesn't want to study. I could spend 6 months teaching a course and at the end of the course I couldn't give anything to them. They don't absorb it, they don't take it and they don't want it. "Did you learn the words?", "No, I didn't" and they start making up different excuses. I think, it depends on the teacher, of course, but at the same it depends on the learner too. How strong is his desire to learn and study English. And I start to think that it's up to the teacher to motivate learners.

Q: Now that you're more experienced, would you change something?

A: Yes. When I started teaching I paid a lot of attention to grammar. I thought that if you didn't master grammar, you couldn't master English. But now I think I would do more speaking activities because it would be easier and I would design more pair work activities for speaking. And I would make those activities interesting because what I did during my first years was mostly drills.

Q: Do you remember why you chose to use drills?

A: Because that was what we were told to do at the teacher training university and we believed that grammar was the foundation and without grammar you can't master English. Now I think it is not so. I'm now smarter [laughs] and I think, first of all, activities should be interesting given the learners' needs and age and it shouldn't be dull and boring exercises with the same format and routine all the time.

Q: How do you understand interesting activities?

A: Once when presenting the present simple tense with young learners, I asked them to choose their favorite singers, actors, or idols etc. and I asked them to find out what their usual day is like and they could use photos of those people to demonstrate the task. And when I first used this activity, I was so happy to see that learners are enjoying what they are doing and they were all engaged and, as a result, they learned to use the ending '–s' with the third person singular in the present simple tense. And I saw the change. Because previously I would do those grammar drill exercises and it was all monotonous and, as a result, they

didn't learn anything and that was frustrating to know that I couldn't help them learn that target grammar. But when I began to use more creative tasks, I saw how the learners like them and they want to do the task. And when I see that they are learning and that I was able to contribute to their learning, at that time I feel fulfilled as a professional and as a person too.

Q: Do you think other teachers in our country feel fulfilled too in most of the times?

A: I've taught in different places, so I know a diversity of possible contexts in our country. I started teaching in a public school and it was one of the most stressful times I had. There are about 30 students in the class and you only teach two hours a week in one class. You have to teach five hours a day in your regular classes and also because the salary is low you need to do private one-to-one classes after you finish your working day. There were a lot of reports to submit, for every lesson we had to prepare a formal lesson plan and also you are required to conduct a demo lesson which a lot of teachers attend. And at the end of this demo lesson, there are assessment results, and it's very stressful to learn about those assessment results because the whole assessment process focuses on fixing weak areas instead of highlighting strong sides.

Q: How about other places?

A: I'm now working in one of the top universities in our country. There is not that much hierarchy with your supervisors and you can informally approach them and discuss things. But there is little time left for class preparation because of other things which come along. Again, reports, paperwork, evaluation reports, assessment notes, helping to liaise things with the students on behalf of the administration and besides that we have to do translation too. Once a month, we can be given about 2-3 pages to translate from Russian to English or vice versa and nobody cares we are not professional translators. For example, I once got a very technical text with specific professional vocabulary and that was

tough, I struggled. Because the perception is that if you know the language a priori you are able to translate it. And we are not get paid for it! So, we're trying our best to teach among other many things.

Q: could you refuse to do one of those extra things?

A: in theory, yes but it then might have impact on your contract. But I'm not complaining because compared to the secondary school where I worked before, my current place is much better not only in terms of salary but also because of nice environment and capable students. The colleagues are supportive and very experienced. So I like it.